NIEUW GUINEE

DEEL III

ONDER REDACTIE VAN DR. W. C. KLEIN M.D.

UITGEGEVEN VOOR HET MOLUKKEN-INSTITUUT
DOOR DRUKKERIJ EN UITGEVERIJ J. H. DE BUSSY
AMSTERDAM - A° 1938

Nederlandsch Indisch Handelsbank, N.V.
VOORBERICHT.

Met dit deel III is thans de taak, die ondergetekende op verzoek van het Molukken Instituut op zich had genomen, geëindigd.

Aan de lichamen in Nederland en Indië, die het verschijnen van dit deel mogelijk maakten, zij hier nog eens dank gebracht en niet minder aan de auteurs. Deze moesten ten deele zeer veel geduld oefenen, toen het oorspronkelijk als één deel gedachte boek tot drie deelen bleek te moeten uitgroeien, waardoor met de publicatie ervan enige jaren gemoeid zijn geweest. Zoodoende moesten er hoofdstukken zijn, die eerst lang nadat zij waren geconceipeerd het licht konden zien. Niet alle hoofdstukken leenden zich voor omwerking; aanvullingen moesten uit den aard der zaak soms zijn. Een voorbeeld hiervan is het hoofdstuk over „Nieuw Guinee en de Pacific”, hetwelk geschreven werd in 1936, in het licht van de toenmalige omstandigheden.

Voor de bijgevoegde kaart zijn wij veel dank verschuldigd aan den Topographischen Dienst in Nederlandsch Indië en aan het Hoofd van deszelfs kartographische afdeeling, Dr. Pannenkoek.

Den heer Tijeman zij erkentelijkheid betuigd voor de samenstelling van het register.

Een der meest verdienstelijke auteurs, de heer Van Sandick, is helaas overleden, voordat zijne bijdragen gedrukt konden worden. Ondergetekende heeft die over het Bestuur, zoozeer mogelijk in den geest van den overledene, van enkele noodig geworden aanvullende notities voorzien.

De Firma De Bussv heeft ervoor gewaakt dat deel III een even verzorgd uiterlijk heeft als deel I en II en zal zoodoende tot het succes dezer uitgave het hare bijdragen.

De Redacteur,
Dr. W. C. Klein, M.I.
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meer, in het midden en naar rechts, eenig bosch: 't grootste gedeelte van 't land is bedekt met tuinen of oude tuinen (lichte grijze vlekken zijn pas aangelegde tuinen). De droge rivieren zijn wit, de andere zwarte, de drainage is grootsteels ondergronds en er zijn veel dolinen in het heuvellandschap, dat uit talloze toppjes van 50 à 700 m hoogte bestaat; de zon staat rechts. Landbouwkundig is de grond volgens Salverda van weinig waarde.

212. Het Dusseldorp-meer, ten Z.Z.W. van den Wilhelminatop, ontsnapt door officier-vlieger Dusseldorp van den M.L.D.

213. Het gewone type der bogen in het N.W. deel van den Vogelkop, ten O. van Sorong. Deze foto, zoals hier gereproduceerd, is typeerend voor de foto's van de K.N.I.M.-luchtkarteering, uitgevoerd voor de N.N.G. Petr. Mij. De schaal is 1:40.000 en de hoogte van de camera (vliegtuig) boven het terrein 4000 m. Een gebied van 7 x 7 km wordt door een foto afgebeeld. Bij stereoscopisch bekijken van fotoparen kan men zeer veel meer observeren, dan op deze foto, en o.m. de berghoogte, het boschtype, de beste expeditieroutes, de geologische structuur, e.d. bestudeeren.


215. Kaart van het meest onbekende gedeelte van het Z.W.-kustgebied van N. Guinea en van de nieuwe rivieren (riviergedeelte), ontsnapt door den M.L.D.

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217. Uitzicht vanuit de pasagreanen op de Sikorsky-helling met de hangar te Eina baai.


219. De H.H. Wissel, Collijn en Duyz, v.l.n.r., die den Carstensatop (5040 m) in Dec. '30 bereikten.

220. De Sikorsky-basis aan de Eina-baai met betonhelling. Deze baai ligt aan de Z.kust, tegenover de Geelvinbaai. Aan de voet der steile kalkrotsen langs de N.-zijde der baai is met moeite een kleine steile terreingedeelte gevonden.

221. Scheve foto van de samenvloeiing van Rawarre en Timawore (bovenloop van de Sebjar, ten N.W. van Babo) in dicht oerwoud.

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223. Aika op de Zuidkust van N. Guinea nabij Kaap Steenboom. In dit onmetelijke kustmoerasbosch was nergens een plaats te vinden voor een vliegveld; met moeite vond men deze iets hogere plek, geschikt voor woningbouw.


226. Kaart van de Europese bestuursposten en luchtvaartbaaien in Nieuw Guinea.


228. Vormig dal aan den Zuidkant van het Sneeuwegeringe. In zulke dalen ontbreken de alluvia bijna geheel en de dalen zijn dus van weinig waarde voor ev. exploitatie van alluviaal goud.


230. Overzicht van Dr. Collij's opmarsweg naar den Carstens-top van Basiskamp tot Bivak IX.


232. Rechte evenwijdige dagzomen van banken van sedimenten (in zee bewogen gesteenten).


235. Combinatie van pakhuis, postkantoor en schutplaats bij het Surprise Creek-vliegveld bij Bau, Territory of New Guinea. Links en rechts brievenbussen voor binnenkomende en uitgaande post, de laatste
wordt dagelijks om 8 uur v. m. gelicht. Het huize links behoort aan 2 prospectors. Andere goudzoekers gebruiken het gewone pakhuys. Alle piloten en goudzoekers hebben den sleutel en zij deponeren in het magazijn hun goederen, incl. pakketjes met door hen gewonnen goud. Alles is gebaseerd op onderling vertrouwen en werkt zeer goed.


238. Evenwijdige pakketten van sedimenten met geringe helling op den Vogelkop. Men vergelijk dezen gevonden foto-albliefde met de anaalglyp in afzonderlijke enveloppen achterin dit deel, waarbij den beschouwer blijken zal, hoe buitengewoon veel meer de hier gela- producerde luchtfoto's aan den bestudeerder kunnen opleveren, wanneer hij deze stereoscopisch bekijkt. Dit geschiedt dan ook steeds door de ondernemingen, die luchtcarteringen laten uit- voeren.

239. Luchtfoto van de baai van Manokwari. Op den achtergrond is nog juist het eiland Manamam te zien, waar de eerste zendelingen in 1853 aan land gingen.

240. Rivier met in het meer vooruitgaande door eigen slijtage en gevormde reuzenwalen. Oostover van het Paniniem, gezien naar W.

241. Een typisch vegetatiebeeld vindt men in de uitgestrekte Bomberai- steppen, die hier aan den horizon opdoemen, een z.g. "padang- formatie", waarvan de masscherpe vegetatie-grens gemakkelijk is vast te leggen (foto uit rapport van houtvester SALVERDA over Nieuw-Guinee, 1938).

242. Een zeldzaamheid beeld geven de karstformaties, die soms uitgestrekte gebieden omvatten, en veelal, behoudens in de dalen, met een lage vegetatie begroeid zijn (foto uit hiervoor geciteerd rapport SALVERDA).

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244. Tapiero-dwerg (149 cm) en profi, wonende op de Zuidhelling van de centrale keten, ten W. van den Carstensz-top. Nov. 1935.

245. Pioniers aan de Anggerimooi op 1900 m boven zee in den Vogelkop tegen Z.O. van Manokwari. Van links naar rechts onder meer: no. 1: Zendinge GRONDEL der U.Z.V.; no. 2: Dr. HORHIG, Offic. c. gezondh., bij het Mil. detachement in de Anggerimooistreek; no. 3: Berts, Ass. Resident van Manokwari; no. 4: Dr. HACA, toen Resident der Molukken, thans Gouverneur van Borneo en no. 7: OVERMEERSELT, Geraad, Mil. Commandant der Molukken.


COMPARISON OF THE SYSTEMS OF ADMINISTRATION OF

SUMMARY

of the Chapter

COMPARISON OF THE SYSTEMS OF ADMINISTRATION OF
NETHERLANDS AND AUSTRALIAN NEW GUINEA

BY THE LATE

L. H. W. VAN SANDICK,

member of the Council of Netherlands India, Governor of the Moluccas.

In this chapter Mr. Van Sandick first describes in detail the systems of government in Papua and the Mandated Territory. He also quotes from time to time the German methods. For the Dutch part he refers to the chapter about the Dutch administration by Mr. Hovenkamp in Volume II. He adds a few words to stress the point that in the whole of the Netherlands Indies the civil administration is based on the principle to leave the natives as much as circumstances permit under the direct administration of their own chiefs (sultans, etc.). The only requirement is, that these chiefs have been appointed or recognised by the Netherlands Indies government and that they are subject to the supervision, which has been stipulated in art. 118 of the act concerning the system of government of the Netherlands East Indies (Indische staatsregeling).

The decentralisation, which is actually being carried out in the Netherlands East Indies, does not affect the validity of the above statements. Everywhere we have indirect rule, also in the areas which have so called direct administration. In Netherlands New Guinea, where chiefs were absent, the government has appointed Ambonese district chiefs, but whenever there is a possibility native chiefs will be educated to substitute the former.

Mr. Van Sandick apparently is very pleased with the system of native police in Australian New Guinea. He also mentions Assworth's report and discusses the white Australia policy, which of course for our territory is out of the question.

Finally the author compares Australian and Netherlands New Guinea and points out the following big differences:

1. Our interference with the Western part of New Guinea is of a much older date. The costal population, which the Dutch found there, had already acquired a civilisation of a certain degree from parahed-bird-hunters, etc. Consequently these populations could be brought more easily under the influence of government and missions. Relatively few Europeans fell as a victim of this task.

2. The economic development of Australian New Guinea is more advanced than ours.

3. In Netherlands New Guinea the higher magisterial officers are subject to the Resident of Ambon and the latter has to consult on a great number of matters Batavia and Buitenzorg. Within short he will also be subject to the Governor of Macassar. In Australian New Guinea the government is nearly independant and there are legislative councils, which enable these territories to deal with their affairs, including the budget, locally.

4. Government officers in Australian New Guinea remain there during their whole period of service, whilst on our side they are subject to transfer and mostly work in New Guinea only during a short time.

Program for Netherlands New Guinea.

1. Detail a young very capable resident at Manokwari, of whom it may be expected that he will stay many years and that he is physically and mentally fit to cope with the heavy requirements of his task. He should obtain the necessary independance and be supplied with local advisers to take decisions on the spot. A fair size government-steamer and an aeroplane should be put at his disposal. Aviation in Netherlands New Guinea should be a part of a more general plan for the development of aviation in the Eastern part of the Archipelago.

2. The police should consist of Papuan natives.

3. The government and the public should alter their standpoint that New Guinea can be developed solely by capital. Also colonisation by "poor whites" should be considered.

The creation of an independant residency of New Guinea would give this area a status equal to the mandated territories of Japan and Australia and the Territory of Papua. It would lead to a long period of service in New Guinea for all the government officers.

International affairs of a minor importance like difficulties with Japanese fishermen could then be settled on the spot instead of having to consult the Resident and via him the authorities at Batavia.

The increasing economic importance is also an argument for making the territory more independant.

Finally Mr. Van Sandick, who favours the idea of the so called colonisation by a class of what is called in British colonies "poor whites" and by the so called Indo-Europeans (Eurasians) holds the view that this scheme is more liable to be a success if a central government at Manokwari can constantly keep an eye on it.
VERGELIJKINGEN BESTUUR VAN NEDERL. N. GUINEE EN OVERIG DEEL.

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HOOFDSTUK XVIII.

GEZONDHEIDSTOE RAND

DOOR

Dr. H. DE ROOK.

Inhoud.


I. INLEIDING.

De gezondheidstoestand van een onbekend land in de tropen, waar- mede de aanraking in den beginne slechts oppervlakkig is, wordt meestal algemeen naar de hoeveelheid en de grootte der ziektten, welke optreden onder de personen, die zich voor korte of langere tijd in dit nieuwe gebied gaan vestigen.

Dit is ook geschied ten opzichte van Nieuw Guineë. Nu kunnen de daar in vroegere jaren op deze wijze verkregen ervaringen omtrent den gezondheidstoestand niet gunstig worden genoemd. Wat betreft Nederland sch Nieuw Guineë moge gewezen worden op het grote aantal zieken en de groote sterfte onder de militaire bezetting van het eiland in de Triton-baai. Na een lange lijdensgeschiedenis (van 1828—1835) werd deze nederzetting wegens den slechten gezondheidstoestand opgeheven. Ook in Kaisers Willemsland waren de eerste ervaringen slecht. De eerste nederzetting van de „Nieuw Guineë Kompanje“ kwam in Novem-
GEZONDHEIDSTOE Stand.

Lepra komt slechts weinig voor, het meest in Mekeo, Milnebaai en Trobiand-eilanden. Veneerisch granuloom is het meest waargenomen in de Eastern Division, de Trobiand-eilanden en in de Western Division. Dit laatste district grenst aan ons gebied, bewoond door de Marindineezent. Melding dient nog gemaakt te worden van een ziekte, welke onder de arbeiders in Papua, doch ook onder die in het mandaatgebied (vooral op de goudvelden) vrij veel voorkomt, n.l. de z.g. „New Guinea sore mouth”. Deze ziekte kenmerkt zich vooral door het optreden van bloeedingen en ulceraties van het tandvlees, soms ook van de wang en zelfs van het verhemelte. Doeldelijke gevallen komen voor door het aanvatten van de bloedvaten (Günther 1938). Vermoedelijk is dit een vorm van scheurbuik, welke ziekte tengevolge van het tekort aan vitamine C ontstaat. De mondzaadzamen geneest vrij spoedig na het gebruik van versche vruchten en groenten. Volgens de verslagen werd in Nederlands Nieuw Guinea alleen in 1936 een 7-tal gevallen van scorbut waargenomen onder de Papoea-gevangenen te Tanah Merah, welke ziekte ook hier een gevolg was van een onvoldoende gebruik van verse groenten.

In den onderstaanden staat worden de sterftecijfers vermeld onder de contractarbeiders in het Australische gedeelte gedurende de laatste 9 jaar:

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De sterftecijfers zijn over het geheel hoog, vooral in het mandaatgebied. Zoals reeds werd opgemerkt wordt de sterfte vooral veroorzaakt door bacillaire dysenterie, longontsteking en tuberculose.

STATE OF HEALTH.

SUMMARY
of the Chapter

STATE OF HEALTH

by

Dr. H. DE ROOK.

DUTCH TERRITORY.

A general survey is given of the chief diseases found here. Of these malaria appears to be by far the most important. Spleenic indices show that this disease is very common in the lowlands, except in the territory to the South East of the Digoel river. The sick-rate from malaria was extremely high in settlements of large numbers of immigrants (Mambaram expedition 1920 to 1922, Upper Digoel 1923 to 1924, and colonization by Indo-Europeans). Although the sub-tertian is the form of malaria most prevalent, it is non-malignant and is hardly ever fatal in the case of adults. The mild character of the disease is ascribed to the prevalent use of quinine. There is a great deal of blackwater fever in these settlements.

We must assume that malaria causes a large number of deaths among Papuan children. The adult Papuan has developed relative immunity from this disease to a marked degree and is therefore very suitable for work on plantations in this country.

Persons residing temporarily in New Guinea are recommended to take a daily dose of 400 or few mg hydrochloride of quinine by way of preventive. The compulsory use by the army of mosquitoes was not sufficient to prevent the disease from attacking a great many members of that body. No really adequate improvement in these conditions can be expected unless measures are taken to prevent breeding, on the principle of special sanitation. Fourteen different species of anopheles mosquitoes are found in Dutch New Guinea. Anopheles punctulatus var. moluccensis, A. punctulatus Anopheles bancrofti are malaria carriers, the first name being the most significant. Anopheles punctulatus and its Moluccan variety breed only in water impen to sunlight. That it should be sunny is the only thing they require of their breeding-place. As making a clearing in the jungle increases the area of suitable places where these anopheles can breed, this must be done as little as possible. The larvae of these anopheles have never been found in virgin forests. Larvae of A. punctulatus var. mol. are also found along banks of the large rivers.
STATE OF HEALTH.

Just as Australian authors have pointed out for this country the A. bancrofti avoids breeding grounds subject to direct sunlight. The larvae have been found in stagnant waterpools between algae overgrown with pandanus trees or vertical waterplants, but also in slowly running brooklets.

Experience along the Upper Digoel has taught us that satisfactory results may be expected from sending mosquito gangs to fish breeding-places and make them innocuous by chemical means. Where the necessary funds are not available for cleansing breeding-places in the neighbourhood of large immigrant settlements, malaria will in all probability be rampant. It will, no doubt, be possible to prevent its proving fatal by the use of quinine, but the victims will suffer from the weakening effects of frequent attacks of malaria, and blackwater fever is sure to occur.

There are only sporadic cases of beriberi among the native Papuan population. Years ago this disease played an important part during expeditions. No beriberi is found in settlements where the staple food is unpolished rice. Polished rice and sago are pronounced unsuitable as staple food on plantations, because it is difficult to provide a sufficient quantity of vitamin B in supplementary articles of diet.

Yaws are a national scourge. As it seems very doubtful whether medical men will be able to cope with this disease themselves in this vast country, it might be advisable to allow mantri orderlies to give neo-

salvarsan injections under guidance and supervision of government doctors.

Gonorrhoea, syphilis and ulcus molle are of small significance here. From 1910 to 1920, however, granuloma venereum worked terrible havoc among the Marindinese. The gradual degeneration of the people noted as having occurred during those years was no doubt partly due to the ravages caused by this disease. Efforts to check sexual excesses, to promote the building of one-family dwellings, and to deal with the disease itself on a large scale have succeeded in reducing the number of cases to a very marked degree. The only places where the disease is found to any extent worth mentioning are the Frederik Hendrik and Komolom Islands. No cases of granuloma have ever been found among the Papuan tribes in the neighbourhood of the Marindinese (Digoel, Mappi) but the disease does occur in Papua and Northern Australia.

Filaria infections and the diseases caused thereby (elephantiasis, hydrocele, fibrosis testis and swellings of the lymphatic glands) are very common all over the plains of New Guinea although the sick-rate is not the same over the whole area. The Berau region (Western New Guinea) is a prolific breeding place for elephantiasis. The fact that there is danger of possible infection for immigrants in places where the disease is rife must not be lost sight of. The carriers are A. bancrofti and probably A. punctul. var. molucc.

Very little tuberculosis is found among the Papuans. Papuans living under unusual conditions (boarding-establishments, coolie lines) may suffer considerably from this disease.

Leprosy occurs along the coast of New Guinea except in the district of Hollandia. Most of the cases noted were found in the district of Manokwari (especially along the Bay of Wamadani) and Sorong.

Influenza rages by fits and starts. The death-rate from this disease appears to be considerable at times, owing to the occurrence of inflammation of the lungs.

Infectious diseases play no very important part. Little epidemics of bacillary dysentery occur on the North coast. Deaths from this are on the whole infrequent. Smallpox has not occurred since 1937. The vaccination service in this district is adequate and the population within easy reach of the persons in charge. The use of dry vaccine is regarded as an important step in advance.

In 1931 an epidemic of poliomyelitis anterior acuta occurred in the Eastern portions of Hollandia, which lasted several months. At the same time or a little earlier a similar epidemic was reported in the Territory of New Guinea.

In the last part of 1937 an epidemic of diphtheria occurred in some villages of the North coast close to Hollandia. There were about 145 cases of this disease of which 30 ended fatally.

The most common skin-disease is tinea imbricata.

A very tiresome kind of irritation is often caused by red mites (thrombities). Some serious cases of acute dermatitis (especially of the face) were observed along the Upper Digoel, the cause of which was probably contact with some vegetable substance or other.

Infection of wounds in the feet often becomes a real scourge. This may be counteracted, however, by a proper use of footgear and other articles of clothing and by taking proper and timely care of small wounds.

The lowlands of New Guinea are generally considered unhealthy on account of the prevalence of malaria there. It is not necessary to advise against settlements in this region, however, provided that a medicohygienic service is established under supervision of a physician who is thoroughly well acquainted with the malaria problem.

STATE OF HEALTH.
STATE OF HEALTH.

AUSTRALIAN TERRITORY.

Roughly speaking the same diseases affect the health of the people here as in the Dutch part of the island. Here too malaria holds the first place and causes a high death-rate among children. But judging on the basis of the figures at our disposal the splenic indices would lead us to conclude that malaria is less prevalent in the Australian portion of New Guinea than in the Dutch. On the other hand the Europeans are subject to malaria and blackwater fever.

*A. punctulatus* and *A. punctulatus var. moluscicida* are here the carriers of malaria.

Danger connected with the clearing of virgin forests is not pointed out by Australian investigators. It is interesting to note that the malaria-carrying *A. punctulatus* is reported as being found in the gold-fields even at an altitude of 3500 ft. The fact that malaria epidemics occur among hill-tribes in Papua when they move down to the plains shows that in this territory there is little or no malaria in the mountains. In the important places in the mandated territory so-called mosquito gangs have been instituted.

Beriberi used to occur on the plantations, but there is little of it now since the rations to be given to the labourers have been regulated by law.

Cases of yaws are of very frequent occurrence. In the campaign against this disease in the mandated territory not only qualified physicians but also European medical assistants give injections. In Papua native medical assistants do this as well.

There is more leprosy in the mandated-territory than in Papua. The incidence of this disease in New Hannover is extremely high. *Filarisis* is found in both colonies. There is not much tuberculosis among the free Papuans; it occurs more frequently on the plantations.

The death-rate among the contract-labourers is rather high, especially in the Territory of New Guinea. This high mortality is due to inflammation of the lungs, bilharziasis and tuberculosis.

*Ulcus tropicans*, which occurs in the villages and on plantations particularly in the mandated territory, causes great economic losses owing to the fact that the coolies have to be treated in the hospital.

New Guinea sore mouth, which is prevalent in both territories, is probably a form of avitaminosis that could be avoided by an adequate use of fresh vegetables and fruit.

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SUMMARY
of the Chapter
THE LABOUR PROBLEM IN NEW GUINEA

BY
G. KEPPER,
ex-inspector of labour in the Dutch East Indies

AND
L. H. W. VAN SANDICK,
ex-member of the Council of Netherlands India.

It will doubtless sound strange to any one who has not lived in the Dutch East Indies and is not thoroughly acquainted with conditions obtaining there to hear us say that Dutch New Guinea is not simply an ordinary section of those far-flung possessions, not just one of the many islands, but a territory that should be regarded as an independent unit — one which might very properly be termed a colony of the Indies. There are, of course, other islands besides this one where there are tribes (as for instance the Dayaks and the Alfurese), whose cultural level can hardly be called high; there are the regions in Sumatra inhabited by the Kubus — a people perhaps even less developed than the native Papuans of the interior. But these are areas to which no special attention or care need be given, either because long years of acquaintance have made us thoroughly familiar with their peculiar characteristics or because they are not too extensive to allow of their administration being entrusted to that particular branch of the Government in whose territory they are situated. The case of Dutch New Guinea, however, is different. Here we have a territory eleven times the size of the Netherlands, or almost as large as Sumatra, remote, for the most part terra incognita, and feared alike by the white man and the black.

On the other side of the imaginary line which divides the island into two parts lies Australian New Guinea. More than a quarter of this has already been brought under government influence; government stations have been established in its 1000 kilometres inland; it boasts a town in the interior where more than 600 Europeans live; in it hundreds of thousands of Papuans are already engaged in regular occupations. On our side of the boundary line we find a territory divided into two parts each of which is an appendage of a different province. The two provinces referred to are situated at a distance of several days' journey from New Guinea, and are inhabited by people of an entirely different stock from the Papuans, living under entirely different conditions; across the boundary line are two distinct territories, each with its own

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Governor — an Official possessing a large measure of independence — its own laws and its own Civil Service. With our own section of the island communication is maintained once a month by means of one of the "Paketaart" boats or a Government steamer; the Australian s/d/e is served by similar large vessels and also by numerous small steamers, and in one particular area is an air-service conveying, roughly, ten thousand passengers and 2000 tons of freight annually. On our side exports consist of a little copra, gum copal and lumber; over the border: an annual export of 70,000 tons of copra, and gold, from a single gold-mining district to the value of six million guilders. We have a few hundred Papuans working, more or less irregularly, on Japanese cotton plantations or on small estates belonging to Europeans or Chinamen, and also upwards of a thousand in surveying and prospecting for oil; whereas in the Australian Territories there are about 50,000 workmen employed in a number of different occupations, about 4000 of these being free and the rest indentured labourers. Far from opposing the contract system, the Roman Catholic and Lutheran missions themselves run flourishing plantations where they employ some 3000 contract coolies.

The contrast here drawn between the two sections of the Island shows plainly how far we are behind our neighbours, whose territory is, after all, geographically and climatically practically the same as ours and is inhabited by virtually the same native races. Doubtless the means of fighting tropical diseases have greatly increased and improved during the later years of Australia's activity in behalf of New Guinea and doubtless, in spite of this, Australia has had many difficulties to overcome and many disappointments to bear; nevertheless her work on the far side of the dividing line has proved that New Guinea can be developed. Which means that unpopularity and dislike, as a result of lack of knowledge, may no longer be regarded as valid factors for neglecting the development of this territory, and that the Netherlands has a task over there which she must shoulder or risk not only the chance of being drawn into a war, but also of losing this territory.

The actual development of the country is not the duty of the Government; this has to be left to private initiative and financed by private capital. But the Government must make development possible by enacting laws adapted to the necessities of the case — laws that will attract entrepreneurs and further the interests of bona fide concerns, without losing sight of the primary duty of a colonial government, namely, to protect and guide the native with a view to enabling him to develop himself in, and together with his own country.

How did our neighbours tackle this problem? Australian principles do not allow immigration of coloured labourers either into Australia or into territory occupied by it. In Papua we find only white men and the native population, and in New Guinea this is the same
THE LABOUR PROBLEM IN NEW GUINEA.

with the addition of a few Chinese and Malays who settled there under the German government. The Papuans are therefore the only people available, not only as labourers, but also as small shopkeepers, artisans, policemen, petty officials or even domestic servants. This condition of affairs is very much to the advantage of the Papuans, as it means that all competition with more advanced races is avoided. But it has its disadvantages too in that it shuts them out from any opportunity of gradual development and adjustment such as they would have enjoyed if there had been business undertakings of any kind in the country in which foreign labour was employed. As it is, they have been obliged to prove themselves fit for regular work directly and, what is more, for work under the immediate control of Australians who had had very little training in dealing with native races.

The Australian Papuan's fitness has been proved beyond any question of doubt. We find the ex-headhunter and cannibal now going to sea and functioning as a captain or an engine-man on small boats, occupying a responsible position in the armed constabulary, acting as an overseer or a clerk. As education spreads more and more in his country he will win for himself posts which in our colonies are only held by members of the privileged races.

Is anything of this kind possible in our part of the country? Most certainly it is, provided the necessary laws are enacted.

The above has probably made clear to the reader why we said earlier in this summary that New Guinea is a country that must be regarded as a separate unit. It is too large to be attached to an administrative unit already formed; and its exploration and development will have to be regarded as an independent problem. Furthermore its development must of necessity take a course different from, and more rapid than that of other backward portions of the archipelago. Neither past experience nor existing systems, nor rules and regulations valid at present in the Dutch East Indies should be regarded as applicable to the growth of this island. Neither government ordinances, nor immigration laws, nor mining regulations, as at present in force, are suited to the needs of the New Guinea of the future. Without blindly imitating what we find in our neighbours' territory, we may yet profit by their example in many ways. Plenty of work will have to be done over there and not only of the kind one does sitting at a desk. Nor is it only Government officials that will be called upon to do this work; the natives themselves must set to work as well. Why? Ostensibly to further their own interests, but in reality to make money for the big business enterprises? will be the sarcastic inquiry. No, not in the first place. Still, as it may sound to hear us say so, our first aim will be to give something to this people. Any one who has lived among a primitive race knows that their lives are not by any means as simple and care-free as a superficial view might lead one to suppose. Savages have to be on the alert and armed day and night. They have to plan wars or

how to avenge their wrongs and be ready to ward off possible attacks from their neighbours. In all this they need the support of their gods and countless are the number of things that have to be done or left undone in order to avoid displeasing these gods. Now all this comes to an end as soon as regular government is introduced. No more wars, head-hunting expeditions or raids. The ruling power forbids all that is immoral according to its standard of morality; but the very things which it prohibits are in the eyes of the native population not only quite permissible, but even a part of a man's duty, sanctioned by their moral code and inextricably interwoven with their religion, filling their lives and satisfying them. Hence the present bewilderment and discomfort of these people. They live in dread of doing something contrary to what their rulers approve — contrary to the strange regulations of which they can make nothing. The younger men with their vigorous vitality are especially hard hit. Something must be found to give meaning to the lives of the natives and direction to their thoughts. They might, for instance as in Australian New Guinea, leave home for a time and go out as labourers to see other parts of the country. They would then return to their kampong, not as warriors, as they did formerly, but crowned with wealth and experience. Which of them, the headhunting Papuan in Dutch New Guinea or the labourer on the Australian side, feels most satisfied with life, is a question we will not attempt to answer for the moment; for we have no choice in the matter. If we wish to bring culture to the Papuans we shall have to take work into the bargain.

As things are at present there is not sufficient work there to give to them. To create it we need private employers. New Guinea's isolated position makes the importing of contract labour from Java very expensive. This presents a double aspect, the two main factors of which mutually affect each other: In order to provide the Papuans with an opportunity to work we must attract private enterprise, but this can only be accomplished if the Papuans are available as labourers. To make them such we must have labour laws suited to the needs of primitive tribes that have still everything to learn. There is only one foundation on which such laws can be based, if they are to be adequate, namely the indenture system. If an employer knows that he can depend on having men at his disposal, he will not be afraid to risk working with Papuans, even if their capacity as labourers is not up to standard at first. As for the men themselves, so far they have signed on of their own accord as if for an experiment, which, once begun, must be carried on to a finish. It is absolutely certain that unless some pressure be applied these people will rise like a flock of frightened starlings and disappear into the wilderness the very first time an accident occurs, say with a tree that is being felled, or some one falls ill of a disease with which they are not familiar. Here, again, our neighbours are ahead of us. Instead of a timid "coolie-ordinance" in which a few compulsory rules are inserted between the lines, as it
THE LABOUR PROBLEM IN NEW GUINEA.

were, and decorated with conditional censure and the like, all of which is quite incommensurable to the primitive mind, they have a Labour Ordinance, in which a number of objections raised against our coolie ordinance for years by plantation managers in outlying districts have been met and overcome by appropriate legislation. Of course no one will maintain that this labour legislation has escaped the criticism either of the press or the public in general. The principles prevalent in Australia would make such a condition of affairs unthinkable. But the persons responsible for these laws — among whom we find such men as Sir HUBERT MURRAY — stuck to a principle they considered essential to the development of New Guinea and Papua, and the results (we have indicated above what they are in the contrast drawn between the Australian part of the Island and our own) have so far proved them right. By prohibiting immigration they have prevented the Papuans from being driven back into the forests and mountains by economically stronger races, and by labour legislation they have secured them a share in the growing prosperity of their native country.

Hence the special attention drawn in the above article to the labour laws obtaining in the Territory of Papua and to those of very recent date in the Territory of New Guinea. Not, as has already been said, in order that we may imitate our neighbours blindly. Quite the contrary. Fifty years of experience with contract labour has already taught us that the penal sanction may, under certain circumstances, be set aside without any one being aware of the fact. We have gone through all the various phases of recruiting, from that undesirable form of doing it by means of professional recruiters to the so-called laukhe recruiting; from the recruiting of women of questionable morals, sent out as the wives of men whom they had never seen before, to the recruiting of respectable peasants with their families, who immediately settled down as colonists. But all this was done among the Javanese and Sundanese, people who are far ahead of the Papuans culturally, and the serious student of this question must never lose sight of this superiority.

We consider our weak, moribund “cooie ordonnance” ill-adapted for use in New Guinea. The Australian ordinance contains much that, if tested by our own experience, may be useful to ourselves. But we must go further. Since 1911 we have had a kind of emergency act in the Indies regulating free labour. This act has already been patched up several times but has never yet been satisfactory as a support for employers and inspectors of labour. If labour in New Guinea is to be regulated by legislation suited to the needs of the case, special attention will have to be paid to the subject of recruiting in the first place, and next, to the relations existing between all non-European employees and all employers who may be supposed to be at the head of a business enterprise. We have made an attempt to formulate a labour act of the kind indicated. The space at our disposal for this chapter however, did not permit us to do more than touch on the main points.

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NEW GUINEA AS A COLONISATION TERRITORY FOR THE DUTCH.

SUMMARY
of the Chapter

NEW GUINEA AS A COLONISATION TERRITORY FOR THE DUTCH

By
Dr. J. VAN HINTE.

It is only in recent times, that the problem of the colonisation of Dutch New Guinea has been a matter of serious study, although in previous centuries the subject had been occasionally thought of, and a few people actually settled there. Now the question is seriously put: Is New Guinea suitable for a permanent settlement of Netherlanders, who, relying on their own efforts as small agriculturists, wish to earn for themselves an independent though simple existence?

For many, this has already ceased to be a question. During the last few years, some three hundred people, mostly Eurasians, have settled in New Guinea as colonists. Two hundred of them occupied land in Manokwari and the surrounding district on the so-called Vogelkop (Bird’s Head), a hundred in the neighbourhood of Hollandia, near Humbold Bay.

Neither the fact that it was just Indo-Netherlands 1) who first actually did something, nor the fact that it was just to New Guinea that they went, can be attributed to more chance. For no group of persons in the Dutch East Indies are things so bad nowadays, and is the future so dark as for the Indo-Netherlands, namely the so-called Indo-Europeans among them, and for numbers of those who do not repatriate.

The Indo-Europeans, people of mixed-blood, — Eurasians as they are called in British India — are about 15,000 in number. Although people of high rank both in the army and the civil service are to be found among them — some became generals, others “residents” (magnisteral officers of high rank) the majority of them belong to the clerk-status and occupy positions in the lower ranks of the government service.

Till quite recently, they were seldom met with in educational circles or in the field of agriculture.

The increasing standard of education of the Inlanders (Natives) has made many of them suitable for office work. They too have rights

1) Among this group are included a majority of Indo-Europeans (Eurasians) and a minority of Europeans who wish to settle permanently in the Dutch East Indies.

and, moreover, work for much lower wages. This made them more and more serious competitors of the Indo-Europeans who were ousted from the labour market to a steadily increasing extent.

Some Indo-Europeans are now trying to make a living in agriculture. Their organisation, The Indo-European Bond (Association) with its 13,000 members, founded for this purpose, in the Lampong districts in Sumatra, an agricultural colony „De Giestig“. Smaller colonies were established in East Java. Europeans and Indo-Europeans, however, cannot obtain land-rights — the ownership of land is reserved for the Natives — they can only lease land. They do not consider the future of their children assured by a title of lease, all the less as the native population which is strongly increasing, here too, makes competition difficult; in the long run they would be absorbed by the latter.

Consequently in Indo-European circles, attention is naturally centered on New Guinea, which is thinly populated and where these dangers hardly threaten, because the Papuan natives are not numerous and are but little attached to the soil. Here they think one could lead an independent existence, and, in the first place, remain Dutch. Here neither ousting nor absorption threatens.

These ideas were fervently urged in Java by A. Th. Schalk, A. Wevers, J. H. Slingersma in 1923 and led to the founding in 1926 of the Association for the Colonisation of New Guinea (V.K.N.G.) and in 1930 of the „Stichting Immigratie en Kolonisatie Nieuw Guinea (S.I.K.N.G.)

So great was the enthusiasm among these Indo-Europeans — so great the misery too — that many did not wait till the preparatory measures for such a colonisation were completed. A group of fourteen (independent colonists) „wilde kolonisten“ set out, at their own risk, for the Boemi area on the north coast of New Guinea. But nothing came of the settlement, and some of these people died on the spot.

In the meantime, attention had been fixed on the Sentani district, near the Cyclopes Mountains and Humboldt Bay. Since 1930 many have gone thither, and now there are three settlements: Bijslag, Abelsdorp and Juliana, with a total number first of 93 colonists, men, women and children which number afterwards decreased to 50. Here the leading idea is to be self-supporting. Native labour, in the beginning even entirely excluded, was only made use of by way of exception, and then during the initial difficulties connected with settling! For the rest, everything was done by themselves, partly in cooperation in which the rule held good: wages according to work (i.e. piecework) and no day-labourers at so much an hour, day or week. In spite of the enormous difficulties, lack of assistance, money and cooperation, this colony has been able to maintain itself, but it is anything but a success. As a result of this experience, three training camps have now been established in Java, where colonists applying are prepared for their difficult task.

A second colony has been founded by the same V.K.N.G. to the
NEW GUINEA AS A COLONISATION TERRITORY FOR THE DUTCH.

south of Manokwari, namely the New Orange-Reserve near Oransbari—a territory selected by the aforementioned Bond. Seven colonists all trained in Java, are now employed here, but others will follow.

The aforementioned S.I.K.N.G. had first some 300, afterwards 225 colonists at Manokwari. From this place as a starting point, the interior should be colonised, especially the fertile but small and scattered river-terraces. In contrast with the V.K.N.G. the S.I.K.N.G. allows the permanent use of native labour. The colonists may even bring them from Java. Once in New Guinea, the colonists are allowed much more freedom of action by the Stichting. The guidance given by this Institution left much to be desired in the beginning, and was often entirely lacking, so that the Government found it necessary to interfere. A hundred colonists were sent back to Java at the expense of the Stichting. The original difficulties have now been partly overcome. The assistant-resident at Manokwari continually supervises everything, the Government shows increasing interest, and even gives assistance, so that there is a possibility of success. Small settlements are developing here. The colony numbers 225 souls, a good 300 ha (750 acres) of virgin forest have been felled and some 220 ha have been brought into cultivation.

The first aim of all the colonists is to become self-supporting, then to work in the course of time for the exportation, for instance, of cotton, kapok, or soja beans. Not only in the Dutch East Indies, but in Netherland the general public watches this colonisation with interest. It may originally have been looked upon as foolish, but the tide is gradually turning. The perseverance of the associations has made some impression. This is shown by the growing interest and moral assistance of the Authorities in the East Indies. It must be said that the authorities in Europe are still very sceptic as to the economic possibilities of this agriculture by small European farmers, as to Eurasians, they gradually show some sympathy. There have been small government expeditions for soil-exploration, followed by reports.

An urgent question now is: Is New Guinea a suitable place for colonisation, not only for Indo-Europeans but also for full-blooded Netherlanders now living in Europe? For a long time the opinion was that a permanent settling of Netherlanders in the Dutch East Indies was impossible. Nowadays this attitude is condemned by an increasing number of people, who still form a minority however. Already medical specialists like STOKVIS and EYCKMAN deny any danger for the health of manual labourers in the tropics. Ten years' study of the influence of the tropics on whites has convinced Dr. P. M. VAN WULFEN PALTE, Professor of medicine at Batavia that most Europeans can remain in the tropics in perfect health and comfort, if well cared for medically. Hard work, in any form, is an excellent remedy against possible neurosis. Numbers of planters, military men and others have already experienced this. During a trip through tropical Queensland in 1932, I observed with admiration the cheerful life of the whiteman in that territory. They do

the hardest sort of work. In other parts of the world too, in Central Africa, in Central America a small number of British, German and other colonists maintain their position in a similar way just by this working themselves.

Of course these medical statements leave the economical possibility of the growing of export products by whites out of consideration. The conviction that now is the time for the colonisation of the tropics by the white race and that this is economically possible, is gaining ground. The historical moment has come to try this out. Let enterprising unemployed Netherlanders share in it. Particularly so in New Guinea, where presently, if we do not do it, Japanese and Germans will take over our work.

Tens of thousands of people in the Netherlands are leading an idle, miserable life in receipt of the dole. The energetic among them ought to take the initiative, without counting on the support of the Government. In this, preference ought, of course, to be given to the unemployed non-Eurasian Netherlanders in the Dutch East Indies, who are already accustomed to the tropics and its peculiar atmosphere. In the beginning, they must by preference establish colonies on high table-lands; if these can be found, and along the gentle slopes of the mountains; afterwards, they might go to the lower plains which must be first drained. Let the government only give information, cooperation and other mainly assistance in thorough preparation. Naturally the government must be cautious in granting financial assistance, for however necessary money and good preparatory work may be, neither of them can bring success. This depends entirely on the individuals themselves, it is from their perseverance and endurance that success must come.
## ENKELE GEGEVENS OVER GROND-OCCUPATIES OP NIEUW GUINEE.

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<th>Afdeeling en onder-</th>
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New Guinea presents itself as a country of antithesis; the primitive New Guinean man bestrides the western part of the island. About the native rights to lands, in the North more than in the South, people are engaged in land rights, the rights of the landowner are those of the owner, the rights of the occupier are those of the occupier. In the North more than in the South, people exercise the rights of the landowner, the right of the occupier is indicated especially in the case of a leasehold.

SUMMARY

by

Dr. J. W. DE STOPPELAAR

LAND-LEGISLATIE IN Nieuw Guine

1932
LAND-LEGISLATION IN DUTCH NEW GUINEA.

pastoral purposes on a leasing basis (erfpacht) for a maximum of 75 years against a relatively low leasement (pachtschat, canon). In the first years freedom from leasement can be granted. For pastoral land there still exists in the Sultanate area another right, for which a very low renumeration has to be paid. In the same Sultanate area exists a personal leasing right (kruur), which for the present is being applied when granting land to Eurasian and European agricultural settlers (kolonisten).

Outside the Sultanate areas land can be granted for agricultural and gardening purposes on the basis of a special lease (erfpacht) for a maximum of 25 years.

For the extension of towns and villages land may be obtained in freehold (eigendom) or with a right to erect buildings (opstal).

It seems desirable to revise in some respects the existing land-legislation in Netherlands New Guinea by creating a special freehold title, which can be obtained under easy conditions, mainly with a view to the "settlers" (kolonisten). Moreover the administrative procedure in granting land rights in general should be simplified.

HOOFDSTUK XXII.

RECHTEN OP GROND VOOR NIET-INLANDERS IN HET AUSTRALISCHE GEDEELTE VAN NIEUW GUINEE 1)

DOOR

S. BASTIAANS,

Oud-adviseur voor Agrarische Zaken bij het Departement van Binnenlandsch Bestuur te Batavia.

In het rechtstreeks bestuur gebied in Nederlandisch Indië vindt (vinden) nog steeds de domeinverklaring(en) toepassing: Alle grond, waarop niet door een ander recht van eigendom wordt bewezen, is Landsdomein. De rechten der inheemse bevolking op door haar ontgonnen of bij haar in gebruik zijnde gronden worden daardoor weinig aangetast; zij worden slechts overkapt door een Landseigendoms-(domein)-recht, dat meer theoretische dan praktische gevolgen heeft. Van de rechten, welke de bevolking op woeste gronden pretendeert, kan echter niet hetzelfde gezegd worden. Het adrechtelijke "beschikkingsrecht" van inlandsche rechtsgemeenschappen op woeste gronden vindt namelijk geen officiele erkenning, al weet de practijk soms nog wel te vinden om er min of meer rekening mede te houden, evenals zulks geschiedt met de belangen der inlandsche bevolking. In het Nederlandsche gedeelte van Nieuw Guinee is volgens de beschikbare gegevens 2) het beschikkingsrecht op woeste gronden trouwens zeer weinig krachtig en kan een zeer groot deel van die gronden blijkbaar inderdaad als "niemandsland" beschouwd worden. De Overheid — vertegenwoordigers van het centrale gezag of van het zelfbestuur van Tidore — heeft het hier dus gemakkelijk bij het uitgeven van gronden.

In het Australische gedeelte heeft men zich op een ander standpunt gesteld. Noch in het Zuiden — the Territory of Papua — noch in het mandaatgebied in het Noorden — the Territory of New Guinea — is een algemene domeinverklaring uitgevaardigd. Integendeel, men heeft zich daar op het standpunt geplaatst, dat alle grond, welke nog niet in

1) De hieronder volgende opmerkingen zijn eene bewerking van door dr. ir. W. C. Klaas bijgevoegde gegevens.

2) Zie daarvoor de bijdrage van dr. D. Stoppelaar.
landbouw worden geweerd. In het mandaatgebied werd niet lang geleden door een planters-organisatie nog bezwaar gemaakt tegen het toewijzen van „agricultural leases” aan Chinezen. Men wenschte hen niet als naburen en indien de Regeering er anders over mocht denken — hetgeen het geval is — zou werd verzocht om streng toezicht op ondernemers van dezen kinder uit te oefenen.


Met deze opmerkingen moge worden volstaan. Zij mogen tot de conclusie leiden, dat de Nederlandsch-Indische wetgeving, ook zooals zij in de praktijk wordt toegepast, goedzins in ieder opzicht minder „liberal” behoeft te worden geacht dan die in het Australische gedeelte van Nieuw Guinea.

Den Haag, Juli 1937.

LAND-LEGISLATION FOR NON-NATIVES IN AUSTRALIAN NEW GUINEA.

SUMMARY of the Chapter

LAND-LEGISLATION FOR NON-NATIVES IN

AUSTRALIAN NEW GUINEA

BY

S. BASTIAANS,

ex-adviser on agrarian affiars at the Department of the Civil Service in the

Dutch East Indies,

Deventer (Holland).

In Netherlands New Guinea the opinion prevails that waste and vacant lands are Crowlands or belong to the Sultanates. In the Australian part of the island all land is regarded as belonging to the native population unless the contrary can be clearly shown. Lands whereupon no native rights are vested have been declared Crowlands or administration lands, which means that they may be given to non-native applicants. If a non-native wishes to obtain land on which native rights are vested, the administration starts an investigation to determine whether the natives in question are willing to cede their rights and for which sum; if they are willing to cede these rights, the Government purchases them and thereafter it can lease the land to third parties. About such applications for land a Land Board acts in an advisory capacity, at least in the Territory of New Guinea.

The former German government of the Mandated Territory has granted land in freehold; the Mandated Government and the Government of the Territory of Papua at present only grant land in leasehold, which is being administered according to the Torrens-system.

There are many kinds of leases viz. for agricultural purposes, pastoral purposes, for residence or business, for the missions and for still other purposes. The leasing period does not usually exceed 99 years.

The rent is dependent on the purpose for which the land is leased and on the value of the land without cultivations or erected buildings etc. This value is re-estimated periodically.

In Papua small tracts of land — and these predominate — are as a rule rent-free during the first 10 years. The rent for residential leases in towns is much higher than that for ground leased for other purposes. Pastoral leases are the cheapest and the soil involved is mostly of inferior quality. Mission leases are granted gratuitously for the erection of
specifed buildings. When granting land rights certain conditions are formulated regarding planting of or building on the land. If the tenant does not observe these conditions, the lease may be declared forfeited. The same may happen if the ground-rent is not paid in due time.

Aliens can obtain ground on the same conditions as Australian subjects. Certain areas, which are remote or not yet under government control, have been closed. No leases are granted there and even entering them is disallowed except for official purposes. On a limited scale native reserves have been established. When comparing the Australian to the Netherlands Indian legislation it becomes obvious that the latter is just as liberal as the former.

HOOFSTUK XXIII.

LUCHTVERKENNING EN LUCHTVERKEER IN NEDERLANDSCH EN AUSTRALISCH NIEUW GUINEE

DOOR

Dr. W. C. KLEIN M.I.,
oud-Secretaris van het Nieuw Guinees Comité

met medewerking van

Mr. R. N. DE RUYTER VAN STEVENINCK,

Inhoud.

A. INLEIDING 1038.
D. LUCHTKARTERING 1087. — I. Algemeene beginselen 1087. — II. In Nieuw Guinees verrichte luchtkartellicisarbeid 1091.

Summary 1121. — Literatuur 1131.
SUMMARY of the Chapter

AVIATION IN DUTCH AND AUSTRALIAN NEW GUINEA

BY

Dr. W. C. KLEIN.

mining engineer

and Flyingcaptain

Mr. R. N. DE RUYTER VAN STEVENINCK

(The Hague.)

In Dutch New Guinea various exploration campaigns have been started in recent years on a very large scale. For example detailed aerial photography for topographical and geological survey, which started in 1935, has covered about 40,000 square miles, big explorations for oil and gold are being undertaken, and also the Government doubled its activities. We may say that in many respects we are now no longer behind the Australian part, though this portion remains ahead as regards administration, exports, etc.

After some general remarks and some information about the planes and the aerodromes in Dutch and Australian New Guinea the authors describe in their article about aviation the principles and methods of aerial photography, emphasizing the usefulness of stereoscopic photographs, etc., and explaining how, by means of air-triangulation, more accurate maps can be obtained than by simply pasting the photos together to mosaics. Mr. De Ruyter van Steveninck, who contributed a.o. this part of the chapter, was the leader of the aerial survey carried out by the K.N.I.L.M.-Company (Royal Netherlands Indies Airways), working under a contract for the Nethelands New Guinea Petroleum Co., that obtained a ten-million ha. 1) license to explore for oil. The staff consisted of 32 Europeans and numerous Asians. Six of the Europeans were pilots.

The objects of air-survey—a term which is used here for exploration

1) Including numerous photographs supplied by the courtesy of the Netherlands New Guinea Petroleum Co. (partly aerial photographs taken from 4,000 m — 13,000 feet), and many others which we owe to the kindness of the Naval authorities in the Dutch East Indies. The planes of the Navy have made very successful reconnaissance flights in the interior of Dutch New Guinea, especially in the Snow mountains.

2) 25 mill. acres.
from the air in the widest sense—are discussed in the same article. Up till now the surveys, mostly in the form of military and scientific surface-explorations, have cost about ten million florins in Dutch New Guinea. To bring the results obtained for these ten millions in such a form as is required for economic exploitation and Government penetration, the expenditure of another ten million florins will certainly be necessary (Fig. 213). We are convinced, however, that every hundred thousand florins spent on airdharma will save as many millions on the future surface expeditions that are still required. All main features are seen from the air; we detect which the geographically most important areas in the little-known interior, also we discover the best routes to reach them and locate trails leading from one area to another. One can thus avoid the sometimes not very high but absolutely impassable hummocky limestone ridges that nearly brought disaster to the recent Hides—O'Malley expedition in the unknown interior of Papua (1935).

One can also see quite well which valleys are wide or dry and easily passable (Fig. 213), and where they are V-shaped (Fig. 229) and full of rapids and waterfalls or even suddenly disappear owing to absorption of their waters in limestone (Fig. 198). If mountains have to be crossed one sees where the passes are lowest, a question which remained unsolved in the case of the Snow mountains, notwithstanding the numerous expeditions; in grassy or rocky areas one can easily recognize on large-scale photographs the small footpaths of the natives. Moreover, patches of thin jungle in the midst of thick forest and easily passable grassy portions (Fig. 233) can be located; the latter facilitate travelling if such air-survey data are interpreted.

Last, but not least, one can observe the places containing population and their cultivated areas (ladangs), which can eventually be used to replenish the supplies of land-parties. The oil-explorers often travelled from ladang to ladang, as indicated by the photographs. If certain valleys, probably after much flying to and fro over a series of adjoining watercourses, are definitely selected as an expedition-route, a few oblique photos instead of numerous vertical ones, which are more expensive, though more preferable, will be of great help to subsequent surface-explorers. If they are well made, the leader in the evening in his camp can often mark his location on such photos and study on them the difficulties for the next day in the way of rapids, waterfalls, steep cliffs, rough lime-stones, sharp ridges, etc.

We can subdivide the aerial observations into the following groups and most of these groups are already being tried out on the Dutch side:

1) So did, for instance, Dr. A. H. Colijn, when ascending Mt. Carstenz in the end of 1935, where he had to climb 15,000 feet over a distance of about twenty miles. Air-survey showed him the best route of access to this high summit.

2) The American scientist Archbold, flying over them in Papua near Mt. Leonard Murray, called them "haycock-limestones". See the typical photo of similar limestones (Fig. 200) near Fakfak and also Fig. 211 (Amarnoe-lake).

1122
The same persons that later on carry out the land-survey have to man the 'plane and only after some four or five flights can the full benefit of useful co-operation be obtained. Dr. Colijn and Mr. Archbold, of the American Museum of Natural History both adopted this system, the former around Mt. Carstenz, in 1936, the latter in West Papua in 1935 and North of Mt. Wilhelm in 1938.

In the case of the gold exploration that is now going on, the above remarks concerning topographical data to be obtained by cursory air-survey hold good as shown by the navy planes which carried out some flights to assist them. The oil explorers of the Netherlands New Guinea Petroleum Company follow another air-survey method. In their case a systematic map 1:40,000 is prepared from photographs taken from the air at the constant altitude of 14,000 feet. The whole area of their enormous licence (which is to be converted later into smaller concessions) is thus mapped on this scale, and from the photos a rough fragmentary geological 1:40,000 mainly structural map, as well as an accurate topographical map, is obtained. The former, of course, has to be completed where soft rocks, due to lack of any clear erosion forms, do not indicate strike or dip of the strata (as in fig. 232 and 238) and also in alluvial or landslide areas.


On the photos obtained in Dutch New Guinea one can sometimes distinguish between dry forests and those growing on swampy or often inundated ground, even if the latter is dry at the time of survey. The most useful trees—i.e., gum-copal trees, ironwood (Intisla) and sago-palms—can often be detected. 5 It may be that the future results of special forest survey flights by the forestry officers in Dutch New Guinea will lead to far more observations from the air being possible, as their experience will probably be increased during the first months of flying, studying the photos, and comparing the results of photos afterwards with observations on the ground. Rough boundaries of forest leases to be applied for can be drawn for sago or mangrove directly on the mosaics of the photos. Captain Kint, of the Topographical Service of the Dutch East Indies, has more experience in unravelling the forestry data on aerial photos than anybody else, and has published his results in various papers (however, only in the Dutch language), Salverda's report is equally important.

Areas for agriculture can be provisionally located from the air. As a basis it has to be remembered that—e.g. in volcanic regions where the fertility may be supposed to be sufficient—the most suitable areas are those which are not steep, nor dissected by numerous deep valleys, and not full of patches of bare rock, but well covered with soil. The search for similar portions of land on the volcanic island of Halmahera east of Celebes was carried out in this way by the Dutch Naval Air Force on behalf of the Handelsvereeniging (Trading Co.) “Amsterdam”, a big Dutch agricultural firm. This is feasible also in many parts of the certainly not unfertile basaltic areas south and south-west of Manokwari and of the adnetisic areas along the whole of the north coast west of Manokwari. In plains, as stated above, the dry portions indicated by dryland-forest can be located sometimes, and this is important if one realizes how many plains have been described as entirely marshy because the small portions seen from them near rivers or sea or lakes were swampy. Also many a plantation has been laid out where later on inundations occurred and showed that a wrong site had been selected. This happened with cotton land near Merauke.

3. Air-survey for the Benefit of the Administration, Missions, etc., and for the Construction of Roads, Aerodromes, etc.

It will be clear from the above that the question of whether a territory is thickly, thinly, or not populated, can be solved by air-survey for many unknown portions of both Australian and Dutch New Guinea and both countries have shown brilliant examples of actual air-survey by Government and companies that disclosed the populations. The unexpected discoveries that were made in the Australian part are too well known to need repetition in detail for British readers, and their description is, moreover, available in books. I might refer here to the lectures delivered by Leamy Brothers, by Mr. Hides, and Mr. Taylor, and to the publications by E. W. P. Chinnery, Mr. Spinks, Ivan Champion, etc.

In the Territory of New Guinea the gold exploration flights were mostly the first that were undertaken, and the Government was compelled to enter quickly on account of attacks made on the subsequent exploration parties. In that case both peaceful and hostile populations, and even the location of attacked exploration parties of Europeans, which had lost contact with their bases, were determined from the air by civil officers.

At the same time the site of a temporary aerodrome was selected near the base chosen for a temporary or permanent Government post that was to protect the parties. Chinnery 1 and Townsends 2 describe this method of air reconnaissance to assist gold explorers. It is, however, striking that Australian New Guinea with its large number of 'planes has not made use of these for a systematic aerial reconnaissance of the unknown and uncontrolled areas like those south of the Sepik. The Government has refused to grant concessions for oil and gold explora-


2) Lit. 28.
AVIATION IN

known parts of south-west Dutch New Guinea (cf. fig. 215). East and south-east of the Casuarina coast (this part of coast is between Yapero and Kawarga) there were in the past many big villages encountered showing a hostile attitude; even the name given to one of them indicates this (djokot = hostile), and so the map remained blank, or was — hypothetically — filled in with the symbols for marsh. The fact that along this Casuarina coast only very few small rivers reach the sea, whereas to the west and east very numerous and big streams are known, is an indication that perhaps higher ground might prevail instead of the hypothetical marsh. Recently the naval flying officer Mr. DUSSELDORP confirmed this assumption already partly by locating a range of hills in the supposed marsh. It is essential that the flights begun by this capable officer, who recently fell as a victim to his duty, should be continued.

As to the location of suitable waterways it may be said that the photomaps have made it a very easy matter to travel with launces and canoes through the immense coastal swamps of the oil areas. These craft can thus avoid the open sea for which their size is too small.

Landing Areas for Land- and Seaplanes.

An expedition of some fifteen years ago discovered a lake with population around it to the east of Demba (the Nisa-lake). Air photographs of it have only now been made, and this lake is still not shown on the most recent maps although Sikorsky's planes have already landed on it. Whether there were much bigger lakes more to the south, with, perhaps, populations of many thousands on their shores, was until recently entirely unknown. However, statements about lakes were recorded by Mr. Le ROUX when he visited the Upper Ronsheer River north of Mt. Carstenz in 1920, and by Dr. BITTNER when he investigated the Charles Louis Mountains in 1935. In 1937 Mr. WISSEL stated above, located actually discovered one of these lakes, the location of which constitutes an excellent base for the first ground expedition.

In general such bases can be approximately selected all over New Guinea from the air and all the lakes, for instance, quickly disclosed. As the latter are very useful if seaplanes or amphibians are used, they should be sought for first of all, and they number perhaps more than we imagine.

Le ROUX saw two unknown lakes in 1926 near the rapids of the Mambramo in one and a quarter hours of flight; 3) on the first flight around Mount Carstenz at least three small lakes were seen east of it; the Australian party that flew in the interior of Papua over the country of the Tarfluroro and the Wagusfuri tribes located several lakes which the land party had not heard about, and there are many similar examples, like the recent discovery in Papua of the Lake Kutubu (fig. 208) and the Lake Campbell by Mr. ARCHBOLD, west of the Fly River. The same pilot located in this year a new lake on the Dutch side N. of Mount Wilhelmina.

1) Le ROUX stated that his flight has increased his geographical knowledge just as much as half a year of patrolling.
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Aviation in Australian New Guinea started with freight transport, and not with aerial photographic survey, as on the Dutch side. Like here, it started in the Australian part in connection with mining, but there it was gold and here oil. When gold on a commercial scale was discovered and a company took over the holdings from the miners, the question of transport—around of thirty-five miles versus air traffic—was solved in favour of the latter. The direct cost of a road was estimated at 1,075,000 dollars and the transport of the projected plant along this road at 125,000 dollars, whilst the equivalent expense for air transport was 750,000 dollars.

We do not know whether the real expenditure on air transport came up to these expectations; at any rate there is another argument in favour of air transport that seems very decisive to us. It is the fact that profits, which were estimated at twenty millions, are made available by the air transport solution one year earlier, which means a gain in interest (at 5 per cent) of one million dollars. Time is money, and this should also be realized by the Governments, missions, etc., especially those on the Dutch side, when they want to penetrate into the interior. In that event they will be able to erect certain posts when the road construction has reached that point after very many years, or very much earlier when they make a start with air transport, as is done by the Government of the Mandated Territory on a large scale in the Upper Purari-Mount Hagen area, and as was done in 1938 by the Papuan Government in the Tarifuro-Wagafurari area, recently discovered by Hinde and O'Malley. Perhaps the same procedure will be followed by the Dutch Government in the Wissel lake area.

The history of aviation in Australian New Guinea was at the beginning also the history of freighting, and it is interesting to read the story on account of the phenomenal growth of this commercial flying. We will not include many figures in this résumé, as our British friends have supplied us very kindly with these data themselves. Moreover, the British public is familiar with New Guinea aviation. 1) We will, to begin with, quote a few historical data. In 1897 Australian prospectors found gold in German territory in the Waria River; 1908, they still worked there; 1909, the German Governor, Dr. Hahl, created the adminstrative post of Morobe (south-east of Salamaua) on purpose for encouraging and supporting gold exploitation. He tried, of course, German.

1) Because the Bulolo Gold Dredging Co., Ltd. is practically American, the estimates concerned were made in dollars.

2) For instance, Mr. Allen, Inspector of Civil Aviation at Salamaua, and the managers of Guinea Airways Ltd., and Pacific Aerial Transport Ltd.

It is regrettable, however, that none of the numerous capable pilots in New Guinea has ever written a comprehensive technical publication on aviation in this area that arouses such world-wide interest, and that was mostly described by laymen only—for instance by Banks, Taylor, Morley, etc., in papers on mining.

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in this work, but followed a very wise course by inviting three Australian prospectors to work in the German area with good prospects of reward, when gold-mining by the Germans would become possible as a consequence of their discoveries.

As a matter of fact, the prospect type was rather rare in German New Guinea at the time, just as it is now in the Dutch East Indies. Two Dutchmen who visited Australian New Guinea, Mr. Coenen in 1913 and the writer in 1933, both recommended to use Australian prospectors on our side and, without knowing it at the time, we both recommended a measure which had already been carried out by Dr. Hahl.

The subsequent foundation of the Morobe Government post in that area by Dr. Hahl did not fail in its purpose, for gold concessions were granted to German groups in 1913 and 1914. Then the war came, during which the explorations came to a standstill.

In 1921 the work was resumed under the Australian Government and the much richer Koranga goldfield was discovered, but in 1925 a mining engineer declared the transport difficulties to be insurmountable. The energy of the ex-magisterial officer, C. J. Levien and the discovery of the extremely rich goldfield of Edie Creek were necessary to give an impetus to dredging-projects, and the use of aeroplanes to transport all the requirements, including the dredges. In 1927 the first machine had already arrived, but the heavy three-engined freight-planes for the dredge transport came only in 1931. The first 'plane, piloted by the famous Mustar, charged a freight rate of £1 to £1 15s. 11d. for the pound over a distance of about fifty miles, and £1 per pound when transporting passengers. These rates have now been reduced to less than 2 d. per pound for either. Out of this first machine resulted later the Germany Airways Co. Ltd., and three other aviation companies sprang up in the course of the next years. For the Government of Dutch New Guinea it may be interesting to consider that the air transport of Government goods and servants (cooks, police, civil servants, etc.) did not pay in the beginning (if only money and not time were considered), but later on became very profitable to the government. In the annual report of the Treasurer of the Territory of New Guinea for the year 1928—29 it is stated that air transport required an extra expenditure of £2,200, whereas the cost of carrier-transportation through the jungle, which then could not yet be abolished altogether, decreased only with an amount of £600. The freight rates for air transport were, of course, too high in the beginning, as they will be in Dutch New Guinea when air traffic starts there. But the wise initiative of the New Guinea Government was rewarded, because in the following years the rates dropped and it became quite clear that the cost of surface transport was so much higher, that not only the Government but also the missions started to provide their European posts in the interior Mount Hagen-Purari area with the necessary provisions in the same way. It was the first the Lutheran mission at Finschhafen that ordered a Junkers 'plane

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(F. 13, similar to W. 34) in 1934, and the wealthier Roman Catholic Mission of the Holy Ghost at Sek (Alexishafen) followed soon with two Koolman machines and 3 other 'planes in the year 1935 and afterwards.

The 'planes flying between the coast at Salamaaua and Lae and the Bulolo-gold area (Wau, etc.) rarely leave with passengers only; mostly passengers and goods are mixed, at the expense of the comfort of the former, but the flight takes less than half an hour. In 1932 the passenger and mail service Wau—Port Moresby started. On this line there is practically no freight, allowing the companies to use ordinary passenger 'planes with comfortable upholstered seats, etc., as we are accustomed to in the Dutch East Indies and Europe.

In January, 1937, there were about forty aeroplanes and fifty-three aerodromes (fig. 235, 251, 199) in Australian New Guinea. As the Bulolo Valley has no big water surfaces seaplanes have been out of the question, and their use had not been considered for the small transport along the coast between the ports of Salamaaua and Lae. The presence of landplanes only was probably the cause that Rabaul, the capital of the mandated territory had no air communication with the gold area, although the traffic between these two centres was very important since about 1930. It will be known that recently the Sydney firm of W. R. Carpenter & Co., Ltd., has obtained a concession to establish a regular weekly air service between Sydney—Cooktown—Port Moresby—Salamaaua—Rabaul, and uses on this line three Fokker 50's 'planes carrying fifteen passengers. Early in 1938 the service started with these four-engined 'planes. In the Dutch East Indies the town Batavia and the capital of the Moluccas, Ambo, will probably get their air communication with New Guinea shortly. A three-weekly service is seriously planned. As yet the extensive aerial survey on the Dutch side has only occasionally allowed Government officers and missionaries to avail themselves of the advantages of air transport. As to the Government officers, it is thanks to the stationing of a few seaplanes of the Dutch Navy in the Moluccas that many official trips by civil servants are made by 'plane. They use the Doormer Wd (fig. 236), and also later on, Fokker 14 seaplanes. Of course they all are anxiously waiting for regular airlines to and over Dutch New Guinea. The employees of the Netherlands New Guinea Petroleum Co. fly in their own planes (2 Sikorsky S 38b, fig. 203) and in this year those of the Mining Co. for Netherlands New Guinea will follow their example, because this company has bought two Fokker V11b 'planes (fig. 234). For the actual and future airtraffic two aerodromes are available (see map fig. 195, 222, 226) and also three well equipped seaplane-bases, at present all belonging to the oil company (fig. 217). Moreover the many big rivers are suitable for the landing of seaplanes (fig. 237) and still more the many sheltered bays (fig. 239).

The article compares the cost of traffic by land and air and airplane traffic and concludes that the latter is cheaper for going to places in the interior.

Nov. 1938.

LUCHTVERKENNING EN -VEERKE IN NEDERL. EN AUSR. NIEUW GUINEE.

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THE INTERNATIONAL POSITION OF NEW GUINEA

BY G. A. DUNLOP.

The significance of New Guinea is determined by its geographical position and can only properly be judged when considered in conjunction with the changing trends of the times and with the historical development of the South Western Pacific. A short historical sketch of this area and a brief description of the part played by the Dutch therein, as well as a characterization of the circumstances under which the Western and the Asiatic worlds mingle in the Pacific, are therefore indispensable for obtaining a proper understanding of our subject.

At the beginning of our era the wide territories which we now call the Dutch East Indies, the Philippines and also New Guinea and Australia with New Zealand, formed a part of the great Pacific area, which was quite unknown to the peoples round and about the Mediterranean, where Western civilization at that time was centred, and which was known to but practically ignored by the peoples of the Asiatic continent whose coastal territory bordered on the Pacific. Much time elapses before the development of these regions begins to outline itself; this only dates from the time when Malay races, originating in the South East Asiatic mainland, began to migrate to the islands in the South Western region of the Pacific, probably as a result of pressure exercised upon them by North Asiatic peoples, moving southward, just as Europe has felt the pressure of Asiatic tribes migrating Westward from North Asia.

The fact that they migrated to an archipelago enabled these tribes to form themselves into several communities, thereby each achieving a certain degree of independence from the rest. Gradually their civilization developed, especially under Hindu influence, and subsequently under that of stiltward Islam.

Owing to its undeveloped coast line, its vast extent and its limited fertility, Borneo was naturally not attractive to invaders and would-be conquerors; Sumatra and Java on the other hand, being long and narrow in shape, yet sufficiently extensive and fertile to house a large population, were much more accessible and desirable. On the minor islands, including the Philippines, only small communities could thrive. New Guinea and Australia, sparsely populated by "negroid" tribes, remained remote and isolated territory not reached by these migratory currents.

On the Pacific coast of the Asiatic mainland no empires arose with interests extending to these islands, and even when China developed into the empire of Djengis Khan, the peoples of the Asiatic mainland continued to concentrate their attention on a continental policy, except for a maritime expedition on two or three occasions.

The various peoples in the Indian Archipelago were leading a practically independent existence at the time the Portuguese and the Spaniards, coming from the West, came into contact with them. Arriving in ships, equipped for long sea-voyages, they were able to visit all the islands and establish contacts for revictualling and other purposes, before commencing their long voyage homeward. A hundred years later the Dutch and the English came; they succeeded in practically expelling the Portuguese and confining the Spaniards to the territory which is now called the Philippines. In the course of time English influence in the Archipelago was also eliminated — except in Sumatra — after which the influence of the Dutch Vereenigde Oost-Indische Compagnie (United East India Company) prevailed almost exclusively in the Moluccas and in Java, the territory which we now call the heart of the Dutch East Indies.

Until the downfall of the Oost-Indische Compagnie in 1795, the character of the Dutch contact with the native population was mainly commercial. For commerce peaceful conditions as well as trading posts were essential. Thus disputes between native rulers could not be tolerated and the Dutch became involved in their disagreements, with the result that occasionally large districts were given over to the suzerainty of the V.O.C., often against the will of the Board of Directors of the V.O.C. at home, but at the express desire of the native rulers concerned.

In 1795 the V.O.C. succumbed. This meant that the Dutch nation was forced to face the facts of the given situation, which implied that it had to concern itself with the commercial territories of the now extinct V.O.C.; the name "colonies" was applied to them although — as far as Holland was concerned — the characteristic mark of colonisation, namely, settling by groups of nationals from the home country, was absent.

For the peoples of these territories the coming of the Dutch and the manner in which they cultivated their contacts have had far reaching and very beneficial results. The produce of their country have thereby obtained a better value, higher than was previously attainable, since the trade initiated and established reached countries of totally different structure and requirements. This commercial interchange created prosperity, and prosperity brought civilisation; this time under Western influence.

The migration towards the East was discontinued and voluntary emigration from the Asiatic continent to the Indian Archipelago also ceased; the whole territory now took on a static character.

From the very nature of their contact, which was directed towards commerce and towards the obtaining of products for barter, the Dutch
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were in need of stable conditions. From the nature of the qualities of their race, they were not disposed to become agricultural colonists in tropical areas, and they could abstain from a policy of conquest directed towards dispossession of the native rulers and taking the cultivators’ land into their own hands, without considering this to be a sacrifice.

After the British interregnum and the termination of the Napoleonic wars, when the Kingdom of the Netherlands came into existence (1815), simultaneously was born the conception “the Netherlands-Indies”.

It may be said that the 19th century has become for the Pacific area the period of coalescence with the rest of the world. New Guinea, Australia and New Zealand had been “discovered” by Europe long ago but it was only in the 19th century that an interest in these territories, which was to bring new life, began to manifest itself under the influence of radical changes that were taking place in the cultural, political and economic atmosphere of Europe. There, new ideas concerning the rights of man, and the relation between the individual and the community had arisen; since the French revolution and the Napoleonic period these ideas had gained a practical significance in their application to forms of government and to legislation. The people, the masses, were gradually awakened to an interest in life and its activities; liberty of movement and freedom of research were granted; principles of free trade supplanted the former monopolistic trade tendencies. New energy was released, a great vitality and a spirit of enterprise emerged.

As a result of these same tendencies independent states were born on the American continent—the United States of North America, and numerous South American republics.

Under this regime of liberty of thought, the human intellect rose to great heights. New discoveries and inventions increased the technical resources of humanity in a manner hitherto unknown, at once stimulating and satisfying the desire for a greater knowledge of the world and its resources. In medicine and hygiene great progress was made, which in conjunction with increased material prosperity resulted in an extensive growth of population.

These developments greatly affected the Pacific area, especially after steamships had replaced sailing vessels, the Suez canal had diminished the distance between Europe and the Pacific area, and the Republic of the United States of North America, originally founded as an Atlantic state, had expanded into a federation extending from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean.

Among the European nations there gradually arose a desire to acquire spheres of influence over the entire world; “uncivilised” territories were annexed, although as a rule, for the time being, a symbolic act, the hoisting of the national colours, was thought sufficient for this purpose, the European powers mutually recognising and accepting this symbolic occupation as real annexation and possession.

The Netherlands took no part in the striving for expansion of spheres of influence; for her there was no necessity for doing so, as in 1795 she had already accepted the comprehensive inheritance of the V.O.C. in the East and had commenced to adjust her affairs. Holland was the first colonial power to become conscious of the fact that the moral principle: rights create duties and obligations, must also be applied to colonial possessions; and she vigorously and energetically set herself to the task of establishing a sound government.

At first a tendency to exploitation for the benefit of the mother country prevailed. Holland at that time was impoverished and the spirit of the V.O.C. was still alive; yet from the beginning the relation of the European government to the Native princes and chiefs bore a patriarchal character.

In order to stimulate production and enhance returns, a system of land utilization was introduced known as the culture system, which has had far-reaching consequences. It implied a certain compulsion to labour, and notwithstanding the disadvantages and abuses to which this system gave rise, it eventually proved a boon to the native population, which is by nature inclined to take life easy. It laid the foundation for future prosperity as soon as the population was given the opportunity to reap for their own benefit the fruits of their labour. This occurred when about 1860–1870 a new policy was inaugurated and free labour took the place of compulsory labour; the exploitation of the resources of the D.E.I. was thrown open to private enterprise, while at the same time the proprietary rights of the native population to the land were protected (agrarian legislation).

The latter decision proved to be a matter of great moment. It gave the Dutch rule over Netherlands India a distinguishing feature which was estimated at its full value only half a century later. It constitutes the basis for what is known as the ethical system of government, dating from the beginning of the 20th century. Without this decision that system could never have taken root.

In 1904 a policy based on the principle of unselﬁshness was proclaimed in the Dutch Parliament in supplementation of a cabinet statement to the effect that: the Indian government must thoroughly realise that Holland has a moral obligation to fulfil towards the native population of the Dutch East Indies (Kyper’s Cabinet).

Meanwhile British interests in the Far East had also undergone a change. While the V.O.C. had collapsed in 1795 and the Dutch East Indies had formally become part of Holland in 1815, the British East India Company continued to exist as a chartered company until 1857. It was only then that the term “British India” gained significance and that Great Britain commenced her direct governing activities with regard to the peoples of India.

Europe, and later on the U.S.A., penetrated further into the remote Pacific territories, whilst the first signs of an Asia aroused to new life become perceptible. Besides the Dutch and the British, the French and the Germans now began to show interest. New Caledonia, the Loyalty
and the government offered an opportunity to private individuals and companies to exploit virgin ground. However, the Western investor had to content himself with rights of disposal limited in duration (concessions, lease). The right of ownership on the ground remained inalienable to the native population or the Government of the Netherlands Indies; this was not only so in Java but also in the so-called Outer Islands.

With the extension of the task of the European administration over so vast a territory, arose the necessity both for a more decentralised system of administration and for the opening of an opportunity for a more or less public exchange of views concerning government measures, the scope of which had so greatly expanded — local councils; provincial councils; Indian Legislature (Volksraad).

The world war (1914—1918), concluded by the Treaty of Versailles, brought about great changes in the whole world situation. The most remarkable changes, worth special mention in this survey, which restricts itself to the Pacific area, are the establishment of the League of Nations, which Japan and China also joined (but not the U.S.A.), and the institution of “mandates” over “colonial territories” under supervision of the League of Nations. The latter innovation made it possible to liquidate in a modern way, the overseas interests of the German Empire, which had been forced to make peace; and at the same time it laid down — as far as the colonial C-mandates were concerned — certain lines of conduct for colonial government administration.

Since at the same time a Permanent Mandates Commission was installed (by the League of Nations) to meet and report periodically on the administration of mandated territories, many governments have felt that they could not very well ignore the influence of this new spirit, and hence a tendency developed to also encourage its application to the administration of colonial territories, regarding the management of which these governments are not accountable to any third parties. Within a short time the lines of conduct embodied in the “mandate” idea have developed into a colonial code of ethics for general use, as it were — an evolution which no doubt was originally neither intended nor desired.

Thus a fundamental change of structure was brought about in the Pacific area by the Peace of Versailles. Territorially speaking this change was characterised by the elimination of Germany as a factor in the Pacific, and by the appearance of mandates over Pacific territory under the supervision of the League of Nations. The former German territory in these regions was placed under mandate, mainly of Australia (German New Guinea with the Bismarck Archipelago and the Admiralty Islands), and to a smaller extent of Japan (the Micronesian groups, Carolines, Marianas and Marshall Islands). The considerations which guided the statesmen responsible at Versailles can be fairly accurately gauged from the course of the negotiations and decisions, as embodied in the various relative treaties and agreements. The world was thoroughly tired of war.

At Versailles, under the influence of the ideals of Wilson, several hu-
manitarian rules of conduct were drawn up, people being confident that, in this way, a lasting peace could be organised for the future.

In this atmosphere of mutual goodwill extension of territory at the cost of adversaries was denounced by all parties, whatever the wishes previously cherished and the compacts previously agreed upon. Where territory was taken from former adversaries, this was done only to enable peoples, which were considered worthy of self-government, to organise themselves as sovereign states, if they desired to do so; where this right of self-determination was not applicable, the idea of a mandate was introduced (former colonial territories).

Hence, as regards the Pacific area, it was agreed that the former German possessions in and near New Guinea, which naturally belong to the continent of Australia, should in reason be entrusted to the care of the Commonwealth of Australia. Japan, having expressed a desire to be included in the organisation of peace in the Pacific, more especially so in the South Western Pacific, which had until then only known European custody, was allotted the mandate over Micronesia. In accordance with these intentions, it was announced with general approval — that of Japan included — that these islands were not to be fortified. This granting to Japan of a mandate gave her an observation post in those extensive waters and automatically a voice in decisions on the destiny of this part of the world. Confirmation of the peaceful and stabilizing intentions of this system of mandatory regulations is found both in the Treaties of Washington signed since then, and in the Naval Conferences of 1922 and 1930.

Of late, changes have occurred which have affected the trend of the present period.

In 1931 the Micronesian Mandate of Japan took on a new aspect in consequence of Japan's withdrawal from the League of Nations (conflict about Manchuria).

In the beginning of 1934 the United States revised its political relations with the Philippines; in consequence thereof the future Commonwealth of the Philippines will be faced with the great responsibility of choosing its own course of action; there will be no lack of mutually contradictory tendencies and "advises".

At the close of 1934 the U.S.S.R. joined the League of Nations, at the same time effecting changes in its home and foreign policies, from which, to all appearances, the revolutionary character is more and more eliminated.

China is in an uncomfortable position and manifests a tendency towards disintegration rather than reconstruction.

Owing to the expiration of the pacts on Naval armaments, and their non-renewal on account of changes of mentality and conditions in some of the participating countries, armaments on both naval and aerial, are the order of the day, especially with a view to the situation in the Pacific area.

Meanwhile the tide is on the turn in regard to the vital activities and ideas not only of the Western, but also of the Asiatic peoples. In Western countries we see a great increase in population; modern technique, especially in industry, involves enormous mass production. Scientific research requires great laboratories and many specialised workers. The greatly increased population demands a new form of government. Collectivism is replacing individualism; systematic, methodical organising modes of operation have become indispensable for the continued control of modern society, with its typical "mass" character apparent in all its activities.

The ideal of liberty can be pursued in new forms only; in some quarters the value of this ideal is even doubted, which shows a total lack of appreciation of the fact that liberty has been the guiding spirit of present Western society, which could not have come into existence without it.

Western vitality seems to have been temporarily checked in its growth; the West has lost its strong dynamic character, at any rate for the time being. A certain pessimism, a certain disappointment has affected its vital energy. After having ploughed, sowed and harrowed in the 19th century, the West now wishes to reap the harvest; national politics crystallise in static relations between citizens mutually; inter-national policies aim at the maintenance of the status quo in nearly every sphere.

The present aspect of Asia forms a striking contrast with the above. In Asia we see the budding of new life, full of vitality; there society has begun to move under the influence of the same ideas that impregnated the West in the 19th century and raised its civilisation to a high level; the Western idea of liberty, which sets free new dynamic energy in almost every field, is welcomed with enthusiasm.

Worthy of special attention, as a typical example of these new ideas, is the emancipation of woman in practically all Asiatic countries, where previously she held an inferior position in society.

The Asiatic peoples, so long the traditional example of a contemplative attitude towards life, are now revising both their conception of life and their habits. At the same time Western social tendencies are placed at their disposal, while they participate in the great increase of knowledge, which the Western scientific development has brought. The Asiatic peoples are now seen struggling with all sorts of concepts, borrowed from the West, and endeavouring to apply them to an essentially conservative society, thereby straining and distorting the structure thereof.

After all, no one can expect to be wide awake immediately on being aroused, and capable at a moment's notice of forming a clear notion of the road he would like to follow and roads he can follow. Years must elapse before the old ideas, customs and habits have become adapted to the new ideas and practices of modern times, which provide mankind with totally different and in many respects better re-
sources, and present it with more favourable conditions of life, in which every individual, instead of only a privileged class, may participate; although the modern world has not yet found the right road to the achievement of its aims.

The application of modern technology to the riches of the Asiatic soil and to Asiatic labour, opens for Asia possibilities of prosperity and increase of population, which were previously inconceivable; also it enables Asia to mitigate the catastrophic consequences of natural disasters. Asia has put her hand to the plough; here and there the sowing has already begun, but harvest time is yet far off. While the West is in need of connecting bonds, both in national and international relations, Asia yearns for the loosening of the many strong, obsolete ties of tradition, which have until now arrested her development; while in Europe the democratic ideal is passing through difficult times, the idea of democracy is gradually conquering the Asiatic mind.

It is in the Pacific area that Europe and the United States now meet Asia, and it is there that a new equilibrium must be established.

On the Asiatic side it is Japan which has been the first to Westernize the frame of its government and the organisation of its social life, and which has allowed itself to be strongly affected by Western influences. It is, therefore, not astonishing that Japan is the most restless element in the Pacific area. It would be unfair to reproach Japanese statesmen for this; it would be unwise to fail to appreciate the real nature of the impulses involved or to underrate their force. Probably these tensions are of a less transitory character than is often too willingly supposed.

In this connection a lesson may be drawn from the development of the old Russian Empire into a Union of Soviet Republics with a totally different social structure. No less instructive is the rapid evolution from a government directed towards world Revolution (Lenin) to a nationally oriented federation (Stalin). Both phases of the Russian development have been and are of outstanding importance to Asia and give to Russia as a Pacific power a new content and a new significance.

China, too, presents an interesting and thought-provoking picture. For the first time in its history a republic was conceived and brought to birth in this ancient land. But here this idea did not spring from the needs of a nation for a new mode of life; it was introduced by a small group of intellectuals, educated in the U.S.A. and in the West, who have forced on China the materialization of their ideas, trusting that the various strata of the people would, pending the ripening of the popular mind, accept their lead. This has proved to be a miscalculation. There were violent reactions, both abroad and at home, arising less from idealistic than from selfish motives, and these fatally interfered with the process of transformation. No wonder that the "Chinese People" are at present bewildered, and in a dilemma, not knowing how to emerge from the difficulties, in which they have become involved.

In the history of the world drastic reforms, rashly introduced, have always caused violent reactions. When prematurely enforced, they have always led to the disruption of a society, without achieving any lasting success.

Incidentally it may be observed that reactions, in a less marked degree, are apparent in Japan; the ideas underlying the Meiji Restoration do not appear to have sunk so deep into the spirit of the people as many in Japan itself, and well-nigh every one outside Japan, believed. The "restoration" itself may be endangered by this fact and increasing numbers are now advocating a mystical emperorship in combination with a Shogunate regime, as a blessing for Japan.

China has lately lost the stabilising influence which she had exercised for centuries in the Pacific area owing to the continuity of her structure and the concentration of her interest on the Asiatic mainland. Having grown from subject to object, she now forms one of the factors agitating the atmosphere in the Pacific.

In the meantime the course of events in Europe has not come up to the great expectations which had been cherished when the League of Nations was formed. Apparently mankind underestimated the force of dynamics in world events and overrated its own power to cope with it. Collective security has proved to be an ideal which is more easily imagined than felt, and which it is more difficult to put into practice than to devise. Wishes and desires prove to be so heterogeneous, interests so mutually incompatible, conceptions of right and justice so divergent, the interpretation of "vital interests" so subtle, that it has been impossible to arrive in every case at solutions giving general satisfaction. Nations were prepared to meet and discuss but refused to accept definite conclusions; unanimity proved to be unattainable unless resolutions were vaguely formulated and non-binding. But practical politics, on more than one occasion, deviated from ethical principles, and so we see a gradual return to more primitive conceptions and methods in international relations. This development affected in a corresponding manner the Pacific area, where during the last few years tensions have appeared and conflicts have arisen which, though not resulting in "a state of war", cannot be called simple differences of opinion.

It is against this historical background and in the light of these tendencies that New Guinea's special significance comes out clearly.

New Guinea, although occupied "symbolically" by three Western Powers, was, until half a century ago, practically speaking No Man's Land, in which aborigines of a very low cultural type lived an isolated life. The island had never aroused any interest, until it was generally recognized as a natural nodal point of great strategic value in the South Pacific; its status thus became one of great importance, especially so for Australia and the Dutch East Indies.
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The fact that New Guinea is geophysically Oceanic and not Asiatic, has probably contributed to its lack of attractiveness in former years; it seems as if the Wallace-line has been a magic limit, which the old migration from Asia has been unable to pass, and behind which Polynesians, Melanesians and Micronesians continued to live an independent life peculiar to themselves. Also Australia and New Zealand existed in complete isolation until comparatively recently, and it was by Europe that these countries were "discovered" and newly populated. These regions were not brought within the circle of world history from or across the Pacific, but from Europe and across the Indian Ocean. This development shows that the phrase, coined in Japan, "we need a Southern life line", is a mere slogan lacking factual foundation. No tendency towards expansion Southward has ever been apparent there in historical times. No interest was ever shown in the islands West of Australia, to wit, the Philippines and the Indian Archipelago. And for very good reasons, too. For the character of the Japanese people used to be rather self-contained, both mentally and economically, with a marked aversion to a tropical climate and, moreover, Northern Asia has never had any need of these areas for its subsistence. It has been Western peoples who have given these islands and Australia their importance; under Western protection their population has increased in prosperity and numbers. The case is also misrepresented when it is said that North Asia has a natural right to claim these territories, for the reason that the ancestors of the present populations came originally from the (Southern) Asiatic mainland, disregarding the fact that it was only in modern times and under Western patronage that present inhabitants have been able to develop and flourish. It is not reasonable to insist that North Asia and not Australians, who were the first civilized people to settle there, really belong in those regions.

Neither the Archipelago, comprising the Dutch East Indies, nor Australasia belong to the domain of North Asia. On the contrary, have the islands met with a certain appreciation on the part of the Asiatic continent, and then only after sea-traffic was established between East Asia and parts of Southern Asia situated along the Indian Ocean including Arabia. The moment Western navigation made its entry in these regions, they became a place of rendez-vous. No single large Asiatic nation has ever seriously considered permanent colonization of these islands in a political sense. As a result of their activity in the field of commerce, the Dutch, forced by circumstances, accepted the political responsibility. Since then the Dutch nation has been the sentinel on the threshold between the Pacific and the Indian Oceans, and it is as such that she exercises her present sovereign rights without exploiting the Archipelago for selfish ends. Especially since the latter half of the 19th century has Holland's rule accorded remarkably with the ethical principles as propagated for C-mandates. Can it be that League of Nation circles, when formulating the mandatory regulations, have drawn their inspiration from the Netherlands administration and rule in the Dutch East Indies?

It is the political responsibility which Holland took upon herself in this area, which includes the Western part of New Guinea, that causes the development of events in the Pacific to be of vital importance to her. If New Guinea had no strategic significance, the political responsibility for her part of this island would be of no great practical moment to Holland. But as matters stand it is of the utmost importance. Especially so, because her neighbour, the Commonwealth of Australia, politically responsible for the other half of New Guinea and no less interested in the status of this great island, cannot avoid attaching the same strategic significance to this territory.

It is the geographical position of New Guinea which, for the present, determines its real worth; some wrongly exaggerate its economic value, clearly for the purpose of veiling its actual strategic significance. This is undoubtedly a concession to the spirit of the times, which demands that, somehow or other, an economic construction be put on all world-events.

A few years ago, no one thought that strategic considerations with respect to New Guinea would carry practical weight; now this is generally acknowledged to be the case, greatly to the embarrassment of all interested governments, the Japanese included. There is no lack of views from all sides of peaceful intentions, and certainly it would be unjust to suspect any responsible statesman of deliberate intent to disturb the peace. Yet the atmosphere in the Pacific gives rise to feelings of uneasiness, which is due to the growth of popular delusions in Japan. It would be wrong to disregard this phenomenon; we are living in times in which deliberation is often sacrificed to impulsiveness, in which reason is repeatedly defeated by primitive instinct; in which the moderation of a far-seeing statesman must yield to the dogmatism of what is often short-sighted zeal on the part of military authorities. There are instances by the score demonstrating that nowadays many who think that they directly are actually being directed.

According to the popular delusions that have gradually grown up in Japan, she is not a co-partner in maintaining quiet and order in the Pacific, but the sole arbiter in matters concerning these regions; and the West Pacific is depicted as under Japanese hegemony. These phantasies also include penetration towards the South, the so-called "Southern life-line" of Japan. According to this idea the Japanese mandate over Micronesia is metamorphosed; it changes from an observation post to a sallyport, from a line of defence to a line of attack. Such phantasies are a source of danger and threaten quiet and order. Nowhere is this better realised than in Japan itself and many of her citizens make heroic efforts to prevent these illusions from gaining a firm hold on the entire Japanese nation. With more sober judgment than
communication and transportation. No less than sea-going ships the flying-machine, which already plays an important role in modern warfare, requires (air) ports; it is limited in its sphere of action and cannot cover long distances without refuelling and replenishing its supply of oil; the air above each country is considered as belonging to the country under it; there is no lack of causes which might bring about differences of opinion as to whether neutrality has been violated or not.

New Guinea is an important link in this “land barrier”, for it forms, together with the archipelago, not only the threshold between the two oceans, but also the bridge between the continents of Asia and Australia. Without violating “Dutch” neutrality, Australia is inaccessible to flying-machines from Asia.

It is remarkable that greater attention has not been paid to the convergence of the interests of Australia and the Dutch East Indies. There is every reason for these two countries to come to a mutual understanding. It is New Guinea that brings them together. Between them they rule this island, each being responsible for about one half.

In conducting government each follows principles, and adopts measures peculiar to its own traditions, which in many respects differ in the two countries. It is especially in regard to the population question that many problems arise which will have to be discussed and solved, before the time can be considered ripe to determine a definite policy. The problem for Australia differs from that confronting the Dutch East Indies. Australia is accustomed to consider all population questions from the point of view of a “White Australia Policy”. Only recently the extent is Australia prepared to consider the interests of the native races and, therefore, is less handicapped in her decisions with respect to New Guinea. Her immigration policy, which repels the current of Asiatic labour, is based—like that of the United States of America—on protection of the standard of living of the white population.

The Dutch East Indian Government, the policy of which from the very beginning has been to advance the prosperity of the various native communities in the archipelago, must fix its New Guinea policy accordingly. Also the stipulations restricting immigration are based on the interests, economic as well as otherwise, of the indigenous races.

In view of the fact that the Papuans are such a backward race, the Government would overshoot its mark, if for the development of New Guinea a pace were chosen, corresponding to that at which the level of their civilisation rises and their numbers increase.

Undoubtedly the interests of the Papuans are best served if in their self-chosen home ample space is reserved for them to develop in, allowing at the same time the settling of people from other islands in the Indies whose level of civilisation is higher and who would, therefore, constitute a stimulating influence. Natives of New Guinea itself fulfilling these requirements, or natives of similar races in its immediate surroundings, are either wanting or not available in sufficient numbers. But there are
several peoples, in other parts of the Archipelago, whose ideas, standard of life and adaptability are such that they may be considered exception-ally suitable for such association, without there being any fear that the Papuans will be overrun or absorbed by them, an experience undergone by the Kanakas of Micronesia (intensive Japanese immigration and “colonisation”).

The manner in which the population question of desolate New Guinea will be solved in the future, is the principal factor which will determine her place in the Pacific. Therefore special attention must be given to this problem.

One of the possible solutions would obviously be very fortunate.

We saw in the above historical review that the migration of the Malay peoples from South East Asia eastward across the islands was interrupted owing to the fact that the Dutch created circumstances which deprived migration of its natural urge, by making it possible for these peoples to develop within their own territory. The Dutch administration of this area during the 19th century, and still more during the 20th century, accentuated this, with the result that the growth of the population within the Dutch East Indies has been so extensive, that now the districts in Java, occupied by the Javanese (Central Java), may be said to be over-populated.

A well-established and firm form of government has proved to be an obstacle, which prevented the Javanese from ousting his neighbours of other races from Java; now he no longer has the desire to do so. Under Western influence he has learned that other native races have also acquired inalienable rights to earn a living in Java as it were, a fact he has understood better than ever since he has naturally formed contacts with other native peoples in the Legislative Council of the Dutch East Indies (Volksraad).

The circumstances sketched above show that everything possible should be done by the authorities to give the Javanese an opportunity of resuming migration to new regions, and to direct him to virgin territory such as New Guinea, where he will not be feared as an intruder but welcomed as a pioneer. It is to be expected that shortly an urge to emigrate will arise within the Javanese world itself, and this will happen as soon as the Javanese realises the fact that his vitality will be choked, if he remains shut up within his present native land, whereas it will be aroused to new vigour if he undertakes the task of pioneering elsewhere. The first signs of Javanese susceptibility to this idea, are already apparent; whereas some thirty years ago emigration of this people to “empty areas” elsewhere in the Archipelago, even though promoted by the authorities, did not yield satisfactory results, nowadays there are plenty of applicants, as soon as an opportunity is opened for “assisted emigration”. There are indications that this point of view is also penetrating to the well-to-do and cultured Javanese; it would not be surprising if, in a few years, the desire for an opportunity to emigrate accompanied by less well-off compatriots, should arise more particularly among these, as well as among Javanese Christians. This would make it possible for distinctly Javanese communities to arise even long elsewhere in the Archipelago, homogenous in their manners and morals. For the younger sons of those aristocratic families in Java which are hereditary holders of government functions this development would mean new fields for practical careers and at the same time additional scope for working out ideals. Should New Guinea prove sufficiently attractive to the Javanese to make immigration a success, then a future Javanised New Guinea is not only imaginable but even probable. At least as far as the Dutch portion of the island is concerned.

However this may be, a proper solution of the population problem of New Guinea cannot be found before the country has been properly reconnaitred for its economic resources and climatological conditions, and before a framework of government has been set up of sufficient latitude and efficiency to guarantee safety of life and property.

It is not only for a possible immigration of Javanese that these points are of decisive importance. Aspiring colonists, who, owing to their nature and origin, are exposed to extra difficulties, such as is the case with immigrants of European or of Indo-European blood, should also remember this. And in a still higher degree special preparatory measures are necessary if admission is desired by persons, not native to the Dutch East Indies and inexperienced in life in tropical countries, and who, consequently, are specially exposed to disillusionment, to the detriment of themselves but also to the inconvenience and discomfort of their neighbours and of the Administration. The disappointed immigrant is a nuisance.

We will not discuss at length the consequences of the traditional Dutch agrarian policy when applied to New Guinea, obviously, it is just the question of right-to-the-soil which is of supreme importance to any prospective settler wherever he may come from. It must suffice to remind the reader that, in the Dutch East Indies no one but the members of the real native population can give the Javanese an opportunity to claim rights of property to the soil, and, as is generally known, in this lies one of the most tried foundations on which rests the confidence felt by the native population in Holland’s rule. It is undesirable and unnecessary to abandon this funda-mental general principle for the sake of New Guinea. According to circum-
stances an exception might be made in regard to this country. In this case it would be recommendable, however, to effect an administrative division between New Guinea and the rest of the Dutch East Indies, a policy which is also suggested by the primitive economic structure of New Guinea, its Austronesian character and the fact that it is politically connected with two countries.

Whatever direction the immigration to New Guinea may take, each brings its own difficulties and demands its own solution. The solution of the population problem may be possible in this way — or ways — in the Dutch part of New Guinea, but in the Australian part a similar solution is not feasible, unless Australia alters her point of view and renders
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The immigration regulations now in force more elastic by granting admission to immigrants of Malay-Polynesian blood. In any case Australia will certainly not anticipate events. It will undoubtedly await developments in Dutch New Guinea and await whether there comes an urge for emigration to this tropical land from “White Australia” itself.

From the foregoing it may be clear to what extent the future development of New Guinea depends on eventualities which, apart from natural causes, will be determined by the insight of the governments of two countries, namely, the Dutch East Indies and the Commonwealth of Australia. The future will show whether all the eventualities have been foreseen, or whether the fate of New Guinea will be decided by circumstances external to the Dutch East Indies and Australia.

Much will depend on the desire of these two governments to find a satisfactory solution for the New Guinea problem either independently or in concert, and upon the insight and perspicacity evinced in chosing their course of action. To achieve success they must be willing to make spiritual and material sacrifices, since such are always inseparably connected with the development of a vast but thinly populated territory like New Guinea, a territory which, moreover, may possess a certain attraction for others, for reasons external to itself.

From the nature of the case, the result of the investigation of the possibilities which New Guinea can offer as a place of abode for a denser population may also be of far-reaching influence. Elsewhere in this book others, qualified to do so, have expressed their opinions on this subject; in general, expectations do not run high. But the fact must not be overlooked that the material on which an opinion could be based is as yet very limited, that technical science is advancing with rapid strides, and that a thing which is impossible to-day may easily become possible, if not probable, to-morrow.

The manner in which New Guinea will develop in the future is a matter of conjecture; its significance in the framework of the Pacific will automatically change with circumstances, but its political place in the present is fixed: Eastern New Guinea belongs to the domain of the Commonwealth of Australia, Western New Guinea forms part of the Dutch East Indies.

The term “The Realm in Asia”, formerly so much used for “Our Indies”, has factually become an inaccuracy since New Guinea became part of the Dutch East Indies. Such names as Indonesia and Insulinde are equally out of place. If, besides the name “Dutch East Indies”, people desire to use another term to designate this part of Dutch territory, let them draw inspiration from the phrases “Nan Yang” and “Nanpo”, which China and Japan, the two great nations on the West coast of the Pacific, have used respectively since time immemorial, and let them call the Dutch East Indies the “Realm in the Pacific”, in contrast to Holland’s designation as the Realm in Europe.

Amsterdam, May 1936.

POSTSCRIPT.

It was originally intended to publish this volume of New Guinea in 1936, and the above chapter was written in the spring of that year. But publication was postponed and it therefore seems desirable to add a postscript, more especially because, during 1937, many events of political importance have occurred which have traced deep furrows in the Pacific area as elsewhere. In the course of the year 1937 a great obstacle was placed on the road to China’s self-development, and this cannot fail to affect developments in other parts of the Pacific basin as well.

Those trends of public opinion in Japan which envisage that country as the arbiter in East Asiatic questions, have managed to gain the upper hand — at least temporarily — and have led the Japanese government to intervene in China’s internal affairs. Under the motto that Japan does not nurse any territorial ambitions with regard to China but that she does desire to make that country adopt a foreign policy which includes economic co-operation with the Japanese Empire, the Japanese government has made demands upon the Chinese government which the latter regards as an impermissible interference in her national affairs. This controversy has led to an armed conflict, involving many elements that may deeply affect the future development of Eastern Asia. In any case Japan has tried to make plain to the world at large that, as long as the great powers regard her as one of themselves, she will not stand idly by while the Chinese government carries out a policy which fails to show due consideration for Japanese interests — as judged by the Japanese government itself. What Japan desires is co-operation; she professes to expect China to accord this of her own free will; meanwhile she has decided that, in case of unwillingness on China’s part, she will compel her to this co-operation. In the coming years the atmosphere in the West Pacific area will be dominated by the complications arising from these tensions, until some definite result is obtained, whether co-operation by mutual consultation or co-operation by force. Japan meanwhile never for an instant admitting the possibility of her failure to reach the desired goal.

In the interim a certain antagonism between the interests of the Japanese empire and those of Great Britain has become manifest and this also will necessitate a readjustment of the balance of power in the Pacific area. Furthermore the determined behaviour of Japan is disturbing both the government and public opinion in the United States, while in the Philippines it has given rise to a wish not to cut loose from the U.S.A. too soon, nor even to slacken the bonds between the two countries at too rapid a pace.

Before 1937 there was a tendency in the United States to disinterest itself politically in the Pacific area, but this trend has been replaced by actions which show plainly and unequivocally that — for the time being

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at least — the United States does not wish to stand aloof from the affairs in the Pacific. New naval bases are being constructed and old ones reinforced. The American fleet is being enlarged. At the same time Great Britain is strengthening her naval base at Singapore. The Netherlands, too, have seen reason to strengthen their defenses and those of the Netherlands Indies.

Evidently measures are being taken everywhere to localize the conflict between China and Japan.

The Soviet Union has been greatly affected by the latest developments, the more so because Japan has very emphatically shown that she considers the penetration and spread of Soviet ideology into China unacceptable. It would seem as if these differences must at some juncture give rise to disturbances, either in the form of foreign complications or of denunciations at home in Russia itself.

Japanese aspirations in respect to the Southern line have been driven into the background by the press of circumstances, but there are no signs of their having been abandoned.

It is an obvious fact that the struggle which has been carried on of late years between various ideologies and conceptions of life has produced its effects in the Pacific as well as elsewhere, not only on the Asiatic side but also on the American, and particularly in the Central and South American republics.

Since 1936, when the preceeding chapter was written, the development of the political constellation, as far as the South Pacific is concerned, has been towards consolidation of the status quo. The fact that in this very year 1937 aerial navigation, both civil and military, has increased rapidly in the Pacific Basin, is of the greatest importance in this connection. In 1938 regular inter-land traffic is being initiated, permission being granted by various governments to admit — on special conditions — foreign aircraft to national aerodromes.

As regards Netherlands New Guinea, we have witnessed a greatly increased interest on the part of the Netherlands in the development of this country as part of its equatorial territory. Both officially and in the world of private business this island is evidently beginning to be drawn within the sphere of the direct care and direct interest of the people of the Netherlands themselves and of the inhabitants of the Netherlands Indies. It will become less and less possible to regard New Guinea — we refer now to the island as a whole — as a separate territory existing all by itself; more and more will it have to be considered and dealt with as forming an integral part of political and economic interests shared by the Netherlands Realm and the Commonwealth of Australia, a British Dominion.

March 1938.

HOOFSTUK XXV.

DE STRATEGISCHE POSITIE VAN NIEUW GUINEE

DOOR

H. TH. DE BOOY.

Is het niet te ver gezocht om aan het afgelegen, practisch onontgonnen en schaars bewoonde Nieuw Guineë, een „Strategische positie” toe te kennen, zal menigeen zich wellicht afvragen.

Inderdaad, het lijkt op het eerste gezicht wel wat overdreven om het woord „Strategische positie” te gebruiken. Dat hoort meer bij Borneo, met zijn uiterst belangrijke olielaven, of de eilanden nabij Singapore.

Wat voor gevaar brengt ons het eenzame, verlaten Nieuw Guineë? Alvorens een antwoord op deze vraag te kunnen geven, zullen wij in het kort uiteenzetten waar de neutraliteitspolitiek, welke de Nederlandse Regeering 60 in een, helaas niet onmogelijk, Pacific-conflict hoort te kunnen volhouden, op neer komt.

De sombere oorlogswolken boven den Grooten Oceaan hebben langzamerhand ook velen in Nederland tot nadenken doen stemmen, al geeft men er zich over het algemeen nog te weinig rekenschap van, welke gevaren Nederlandse Indië bedreigen.

Uit den toestand van chronische spanning kan ieder oogenduidelijk een conflict geboren worden en het is zeer waarschijnlijk, dat een dergelijk conflict zich niet zal beperken tot het Verre Oosten.

Het standpunt van de Nederlandse Regeering is bekend: „Zelfstandige neutraliteitspolitiek, neerkomend op het zich afzijdig houden van mogelijke conflicten en handhaven van strikte neutraliteit.”

Neutraliteitshandhaving betekent het constateeren en doen beëindigen van schendingen dier neutraliteit: een gewelddige opdracht dus, die in ons uitgestrekte eilandenrijk in de eerste plaats door de zeemacht moet worden vervuld. Van de militaire waarde van de weermacht als zeeh-apparaat hangt het af of onze neutraliteit door de belligerenten zal worden ontzien. Hoe geringer de machtverschillen zijn tusschen de elkaar bestrijdende mogelijkheden, des te meer kans bestaat er dat de preventieve werking onzer weermacht ons buiten den oorlog houdt. Als beslissend gewicht in de balans krijgt zij dus een betekenis ver buiten proportie van haar eigenlijke macht.

Of het mogelijk zal zijn onze neutraliteit te bewaren als den door velen
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SUMMARY
of the Chapter

THE STRATEGICAL POSITION OF NEW GUINEA

BY
H. TH. DE BOOY.

The historical and only possibly policy for a small country like Holland is strict neutrality; this was her attitude in the past and certainly will be her attitude in the future. All hopes are based on the preventive influence of the fighting services. However, it will certainly be very difficult for Holland to keep out of a possible Pacific conflict as the Dutch East Indies offer many points of strategical vantage to belligerents in a Pacific war. For instance New Guinea, which is apt to play a prominent part in the future. It is a well known fact that the enormous distances between the naval bases of the principal Pacific powers, preventing the use of the battleship on the other side of the Ocean, are the main reason that a war against trade will be the most probable character of a Pacific war.

In such a war ships with a large radius of action (cruisers and submarines) and aircraft will play an important part. As the Dutch East Indies are lying athwart the important trade routes from the Far East to Europe and Australia the danger points for the merchant shipping will be near the narrow passages through our Archipelago. In a Pacific war some of these narrow passages will be too risky or shut off altogether (as Strait Singapore for instance). A detour through the passages between Celebes and New Guinea will be unavoidable. Is it necessary to demonstrate the importance of makeshift naval bases, providing a shelter for submarines, aircraft carriers etc. in the neighbourhood of these passages?

It is obvious that for this reason New Guinea is of utmost strategical value. There are more reasons however:
1. The lack of a naval base on the North Coast of New Guinea is the only weak point in Japan's advanced strategical barrage running southwards from Bonin to the Mandated islands;
2. the route South of New Guinea is the only comparatively safe one for shipping in case of war with Japan. Perhaps New Guinea will be an oil producing island in the future. If that becomes a fact, the strategical importance will rise accordingly as liquid fuel is vital food for men of war and aircraft.

That the strategical position of the Dutch East Indies between important spheres of influence obliges the Dutch Government to keep their defence forces as strong as possible, cannot be too strongly emphasized.

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richtingen uitgaat en nationale doeleinden dient, in de eerste jaren door de Regeering worden gestimuleerd, desnoods met subsidies. Of wel het Gouvernement moet met de exploraties geheel zelfstandig voorgaan, in de hoop, dat bij goede resultaten de particuliere gegadigden wel zullen op- dagen. Het politieke belang der zaak wettigt, veel meer dan bijv. bij Suriname, deelname van het moederland in de kosten.

In een Australisch tijdschrift werd een tijd geleden, met het oog op de toestanden in den Pacific, den Australiërs aanbevelen, van hun Nieuw Guinea gebied, dat reeds 3500 Europeseen telt, veel meer werk te gaan maken met het oog op de internationale situatie. Nog veel meer dient Nederland ten opzichte van Nederlandsch Nieuw Guinea een dergelijke koers te kiezen. Samenwerking met Australisch Nieuw Guinea bij de ontwikkeling van het groote eiland, zooals door Dunlop en schrijver dezes bepleit, is daarbij aangewezen.

NASCHRIFT.

Omtrent de achter dit deel gevoegde Kaart van geheel Nieuw Guinea op de schaal 1: 2500000 zijn medegedeeld, dat zij sober gehouden is, doch zoozeer mogelijk alle plaatsen en rivieren bevat, die door de auteurs in hunne hoofdstukken worden genoemd. Voor het Centrale deel van Australisch Nieuw Guinea is gebruik gemaakt van de kaarten van Hides en Champion (Annual Report Territory of Papua 1936—1937), Behmann, Leary, Marshall, enz. Voor het Nederlandsche deel is gebruik gemaakt van de kaart, vervaardigd door de politiepatrouille, die den Waropen—Mamberamo-doorsteek maakte (Van Eechoud) en van de laatste gegevens der Archbodexpeditie ten N. van den Wilhelminatop. De kaart van dit deel III bevat dus vele nieuwe gegevens, die van de Wisselmeren inbegrepen, welke niet voorkomen op de kaart, behorend bij het hoofdstuk van den heer Le Roux in deel I, dat in 1935 verscheen. Zij is bewerkt door Dr. Pannekoek van den Topografischen Dienst te Batavia.

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS ABOUT NETHERLANDS NEW GUINEA.

SUMMARY
of the Chapter
GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS ABOUT NETHERLANDS NEW GUINEA

by
Dr. W. C. KLEIN Mining Engineer

In this chapter the author summarizes the views expressed by the other authors as far as he can agree to them and adds his own opinions, also in connection with the most recent events. The Moluccan Institute of course can not be held responsible for these statements.

It is emphasized in this chapter, that government and private enterprise have done considerable work in the last four years, but equal stress is laid on the desirability of continuing along the same lines. The recent economic depression should not influence the New Guinea programme as this is prescribed by the international circumstances in the Pacific. In so far the New Guinea programme and the Netherlands Indies defence programme are of a similar nature.

As far as the administration is concerned a strong man is considered desirable for New Guinea, who should have great independence and have completed a long term of service in the Molucca’s. This can be realised without making New Guinea independent from the remainder of the Netherlands East Indies. If, however the required change can not be effected for some reason without a change of status, an independent New Guinea should be created. The Civil Service should be strengthened to such an extent, that attacks by natives on exploring European-parties become less numerous than they are now.

A warning is given that the native administration officers (district chiefs) should not be increased in number too much without a corresponding increase in the number of supervising Europeans. Like in the Mandated Territory (in German and Australian time) our native should play a small role in the district-administration and even a big role in the police. Of course he has to be educated for such a task, but this is a matter of only a few years and not of decades, as is often thought.

As to the missions they do not yet enjoy of a sufficiently liberal governmental subsidy policy for their village schools. It is hoped that more Papuan natives will be trained to take the place of the numerous Ambonese or Kei-island-mission teachers. This measure will make the Christian religion still more popular and lead to conservation of more native art and
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customs. The author is a friend of the system of various missions working together, provided a strong government can immediately take drastic measures against the usual frictions. It cannot be denied that mission competition leads to greater activity and inland-penetration and is a benefit for the opening up of the country in this respect. When we see, that mission-activity and schools are very numerous in the Meraroe-Digoei-area as compared to the adjoining Fly-district this must be ascribed to more mission-competition on the Dutch side since 1918. Also in the Wessel lake-area the competition stimulated the mission-activities.

It is expected that on the North and West coasts the Roman Catholic mission will soon take a position beside the old Protestant Utrecht mission.

About the native population and its future share in the development of the country there is no reason to be pessimistic. Sir HUBERT MURRAY and Dr. HAHL are quoted to support this view.

Horticultural and police training, among other things, are considered essential to educate the natives.

Public health. In the newly opened up areas the natives should be protected against infections imported by coolies, recruiters, Chinese traders, etc. The health of the natives can be furthered also by an improvement in their diet by adding cereals and leguminousae thereto. De KROK states that Dutch New Guinea is seriously hampered by malaria but also stresses the point that modern methods can be successfully applied if only doctors are employed who are thoroughly familiar with the malaria problem.

To encourage a longer term of service in New Guinea by Europeans a mountain sanatorium near Manokwari would constitute a great help.

Scientific expeditions were very numerous in Netherland New Guinea in the past. In this connection we were not at all behindhand on the Dutch side, but now that Americans have again started very important investigations (ARCHBOLD, CROCKETT), the Dutch should not stay behind. They have indeed already sent out a biological group to cooperate with the Americans. It is hoped that still greater activity will be developed in the Wessel lake-area. The reader is moreover reminded of the fact that there is still one important snow-summit that has never been climbed, viz. Juliana-top. The Government should explore the recently supposed river, crossing the Snow Range.

As to mining Mr. HÖVIC states that the explorations undertaken in the Snow mountains may give results and he thinks first of all of gold, copper and tin. We recommend the Wessel lake-area being chosen for similar explorations and also advise the authorities to create some additional legislation that will allow the services of prospectors and similar capable explorers to be taken advantage of. The present mining law is not suitable to encourage such miners.

Agriculture. VAN DER VEER recommends teaching the Papuan native to produce a crop suitable for export. However, this seems difficult to achieve, as was experienced also in Australian New Guinea, because these natives are less intelligent than e.g. those of Southern Celebes, which export big quantities of maize. For this purpose the immigration of Javanese as wished by DUNLOP may be helpful. VAN DER VEER likewise advocates agricultural exploration by the government. There is indeed a wide field for these investigations, as e.g. plains close to the coast like those of Kebar and Amaroce have not yet been explored agriculturally.

In order to develop European agricultural enterprise the labour-problem has first to be solved, as there is a labour shortage already now.

Also the freight-problem has to be tackled. For the first period of small agricultural productions, in which we are now and which will continue anyhow a few years, the freight have to be temporarily lowered to make business more attractive. One of the means to achieve this is a government-subsidy for the New Guinea—Macassar lines of the K.P.M.-company. In Macassar big freighters are available for import- and export-goods. Also an export-premium (bounty) could solve the problem. As soon as plantations have grown so much that in a certain harbour 500—1000 tons can be loaded at such short intervals, that the products do not deteriorate (i.e. 1—3 months), ordinary freighters can call at New Guinea ports as they do now at ports in Celebes and Australian New Guinea. Then also the time will have come when New Guinea can export to such potential market countries of temperate climate, as require tropical produce, and are at a reasonable distance. We are thinking of Japan, the United States and Australia and even of S. Africa (timber). For three of
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these territories Netherlands New Guinea has a freight advantage, as compared to the remainder of the Dutch East Indies. One should therefore study first of all the possibilities of growing products that are already being exported to those countries (rubber, coprah, maize, kapok, tea).

No doubt the recently created Netherlands Company for New Guinea will consider these points. As this company certainly will not obtain exploration rights (for agricultural and forest exploitation) for the whole of Dutch New Guinea, it must be appreciated that the Government will supplement the company's activities by actually establishing the government plantation planned some time ago near Manokwari ¹ and also by making its own agricultural explorations. A monoculture should be avoided in Dutch New Guinea, as the Australian part has taught us, that this may lead to a catastrophe in times of depression (coprah).

The above mentioned Dutch company, which has also the national interest in view, should likewise consider small plantations, conducted by one single European. It was this type that long ago made German New Guinea and Papua relatively prosperous. Some eight of these planters went to Dutch New Guinea after the war. They have maintained themselves though in very moderate circumstances until now, notwithstanding the great distance between themselves and the Macassar-market and the lack of financial support. The Netherlands Company for New Guinea should grant loans to similar Dutch persons and also solve the freight-problem for them; under these circumstances a plantation community of some hundreds of Europeans might come to existance on our side. Increase of the European population is highly desirable.

Forest investigation has recently been started by the government on an increased scale. This investigation will be greatly hampered if not entirely stopped as a result of the transfer of the forest officer in question to another area of the Dutch East Indies. We believe, however, that as in the case of agricultural exploration, government forest investigations have to be continued over a long period in addition to those which the Netherlands Company for New Guinea may start.

In Australian New Guinea some fifteen years ago extensive forest investigations were conducted and after some interruptions they are now being actively continued in the Mandated Territory. A much smaller Dutch colony like Surinam has boasted its own forest service for a period of twenty years.

Now that the government penetrates into the interior everywhere, we often read in the reports about forests of guncopal-trees, which are not yet tapped. Van Zon suggests an aerial survey of the forests, as e.g. ironwood (Intsia) and guncopal trees (Agathis) can sometimes be recognised from the air. In our opinion the Government and the Netherlands Company for New Guinea should cooperate to reach a maximum achievement. In East Borneo we have also an example of cooperation between the government and a private forest exploitation company.

¹) For which f.1.000.000 guilders will be spent, a.o. to plant rubber.

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The existing government saw-mills could be operated more commercially. Timber might then be delivered to Australian New Guinea, that now buys in the Philippines, and to South Africa. The government of South Africa runs a steamerline, which imports timber from the Philippines into South Africa. These ships regularly pass Dutch New Guinea (see the chapter by Tissot van Patot in volume II).

Export of marine products will probably never become a big industry on our side. Troca's should be collected and exported to Japan. The fishermen should be a sober class, like the Japanese and the Australians, who fish the New Guinea seas with their own small sampans or schooners; the latter assisted by a few indentured boys. The Netherlands Company could perhaps advance the initial capital, which is required.

Aviation is one of the most important means to open up Netherlands New Guinea. Thanks to the photographic survey work of the K.N.I.L.M. and the N.N.G.P.M. everybody on the island, official as well as private persons, now realize the importance of aviation and air reconnaissance. The Naval Airforce has demonstrated the usefulness of aviation in connection with official trips by various government officials by putting their planes at the disposal of these men. As long as the trips to be made are mostly voyages along the coast, aviation by private persons cannot be expected. In this case the use of small coastal vessels will remain cheaper. Air traffic will be the most economical however, when the far interior is being penetrated by missions and administration, even if this happens without the advent of mining-exploration. The latter gave a good financial stimulus when it initiated aviation to the Mount Hagen area in Australian New Guinea, but this air traffic is now self-supporting, though the mining campaigns have been stopped. On our side the densely populated areas North of the Snow mountains might perhaps show the same development. It is to be hoped, that the gold exploration will render also here its services in the beginning by bearing the expense of the establishment of aerodromes. These will always remain more expensive on our side, because the requirements of the aviation authorities are more stringent and owing to small one-engined planes not being popular with the Dutch. Clearing expenses might be low on our side, too, in the far interior, because grassy areas are numerous there. The development of aviation on the Dutch side will have the drawback of a high excise tax of 13 Dutch cents per litre (19½ d. Austr. p. gal.), which ought to be abolished temporarily.

The semi-systematic government air reconnaissance propagated by the New Guinea Committee has not yet been taken into consideration. In the second half of 1937 however the Naval Airforce made very cursory reconnaissance-flights along the South side of the Snow mountains and in the Wissel lake-area. In a short period of time and for little expense numerous new rivers and lakes were discovered, though they could be put on the map only very roughly.

It is important that the naval airforce should in future years devote
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A few weeks annually to similar cursory reconnaissance flights, as the additions to the map, in which they result, are extremely useful.

The airline New Guinea—Java, which is desired by the government, will bring New Guinea in much closer touch with the leading persons in government and private circles on the island of Java. Economically speaking this airline is not yet justified, at least not beyond Ambon, but from a political and Dutch imperial standpoint it is very important. Economically the line may pay very soon, if and when mining should develop. In future we may have airlines between Eastern Asia and Eastern Australia like those of the Pan American Airways, that link up South and North America. Such lines will pass over New Guinea and the existence of a link between New Guinea and Java will then be very useful.

Immigration and labour. Kepper and Van Sandick rightly wish to maintain for New Guinea the indenture-system, which is being abolished in the remainder of the Dutch East Indies. They are guided by the Australian example, but wish to avoid the undesirable features there. So they are in favour of recruiting families instead of men only and they wish to restrict the number of such recruits to 10% of the total number of able-bodied labourers in the recruiting areas. The Assistant-Resident of Manokwari, Berts, recently already made complaints about the scarcity of natives available for upkeep of villages and statute-labour work in the Geelvinkbay area, to which at present recruiting is confined. 1

1 As a matter of fact 1500 Papuan natives have already been recruited by the oil company and some 1200 by the Japanese plantation company, and these came mostly from these islands!

DUNLOP, who looks far ahead, when considering the labour and immigration question, wishes to promote the migration of Javanese to New Guinea and expects them to gradually become agricultural settlers. But this is only to be done at the same time an additional source of local labour in the future. When the interior is more opened up there will be a certain period during which this can supply the labour wants, but in the long run imported labour will be required. Because the population seems to be smaller than that of the Australian part and recruiting on our side will always be much more restricted, the wants for immigrated labour will sooner become urgent. That coolies are imported already at present from the Moluccas' may be temporary, because the opening up of the interior is in arrear as compared to the actual development of enterprise by companies and the government.

Labour inspector Marijn thinks that agricultural interests will engage Javanese coolies long before the Dutch New Guinea labour reservoir is exhausted. We doubt, however, whether the high cost of recruiting and transport over a distance of 1200 miles will be compensated by the better results to be obtained by employing Javanese.

Colonisation. Now that the ideas of the Colonisation Board and of Assistant-Resident Berts are realised, the immigration of Eurasians and (poor whites of the same social class) will be suspended entirely. As there are now only between 100 and 200 of these so called colonists, who carry on horticulture and agriculture on a small scale, mainly without the help of coolies, this colonisation movement would then be prevented from further expansion while still in its infancy.

To our mind the proposal is sound, as the demand for the products of the colonists at Manokwari is restricted and fully met (vegetables, meat, eggs, etc.). We consider further immigration of a few selected poor whites from Europe or the Dutch East Indies only feasible if they obtain some preliminary training and concentrate on small European-style plantations, where the natives do the manual work. In Australian New Guinea several hundreds of such planters, as stated above, succeed in making a living.

In this class of work the competition by Chinese will play a role. Chinese have coconut plantations in Dutch New Guinea already and there are also many of them in Namatami in the Mandated Territory. Apparently this competition need not be disastrous if the number of Asians going in for such agriculture is restricted and also the size of the areas leased. It seems much more difficult to protect horticulture by Europeans against similar competition by Chinese, Javanese, etc., who want only small plots of land for this typically native type of gardening work. It does not seem possible to give the Europeans an adequate protection in this respect without making Dutch New Guinea a white man's country, an idea which would not be in line with the traditions and ideals of Dutch colonial policy and which would moreover involve concentrating the Papuan natives in reservations, closing of the country against Asiatic immigration,
and high tariff-walls. The latter to protect this white man’s country against import of products, which they grow themselves, and which might be exported from the remainder of the Dutch East Indies and produced there so cheaply by natives that the freight to New Guinea would not be a consideration. In our opinion this colonisation is impossible.

Commerce and traffic. For the existing commerce and traffic the K.P.M.-company provides sufficient tonnage and frequency of service. In the meantime this company’s position, already more or less monopolistic for the whole of the Dutch East Indies, has become still more so in Celebes and the Moluccas, because foreign shipping is practically no more admitted there since 1937. The latter measure was a political one.

As pointed out above, the big freighters can only visit Dutch New Guinea if cargos of 500—1000 tons can be offered. The opportunity will then be very ample. It we look at the map given by Tissot van Patot in volume II, it is striking how many international shipping lines regularly pass along Dutch New Guinea. It comes down to one ship of 6000—7000 tons each week.

During the first difficult period of exporting small agricultural productions, as discussed already under agriculture, Tissot van Patot suggests abolishing most of the harbour-dues. It is also recommended that producers and shippers come together in an organisation which can further the common interests of the planting and trading community with the Government, the K.P.M.-company, etc. This seems indeed logical. There are sufficient planters and shippers to form such an association, if it includes the whole of the Great East (Celebes and Moluccas, including New Guinea). In the more advanced Australian part of New Guinea their number is sufficient to form two planters associations, which all the time stand up for the interests of their members, in those cases, where these conflict with the interests of the shipping companies, the Government, etc.

Considering the political importance of the opening up of Dutch New Guinea, it would even seem justifiable — if the above measures do not materialize — that the Government’s influence on the K.P.M.-company’s freight policy should be extended, if necessary by granting them a special subsidy for their New Guinea lines. In the Mandated Territory in German times the Imperial Government subsidized the New Guinea lines of the Norddeutsche Lloyd. An amount of 200,000 Marks was i.f. allocated in 1913 to the Norddeutsche Lloyd Company for its Singapore—Rabaul line. The guiding idea was that this amount should prevent that the young economic life of this German colony should be hampered by too high freight rates in the initial period of plantation-development.

The international and strategic position of New Guinea requires the establishment of sufficient military garrisons. The Japanese mandated islands have important military forces and also the island of Mindanao has five garrisons. Our exposed North coast of New Guinea had until recently no garrison and now there are only eighty soldiers. The small Dutch possessions of Surinam and Curaçao, situated in less dangerous

areas, have both more than 200 soldiers. In Dutch New Guinea, to reflect the importance of the area, garrisons should be increased. The Mother-country could — as in the case of Surinam — bear part of the expense.

If the latter principle is adopted, an increase of the navy- and army-airforces to such an extent, that also the remote Dutch New Guinea could be well protected, should also enter into consideration.

Summarizing we repeat, that for the making up of the arrears in the remote and big territory of Dutch New Guinea measures of small scale will never suffice. The minimum mentioned above is necessary to extend the interference of the Government and to further all those imports and exports, that are not directly connected with mining. Favourable results of the mining-exploration may be hoped for, but the temporary character of all mining works makes it necessary to promote the various other colonial activities, that might be found possible on the island after a thorough investigation.

The explorations necessary to open up the country should not be looked at from a commercial point of view. Such a policy is obsolete and governments like the Japanese and others spend their money for work of national importance also where there is no possibility of soon expecting compensating revenues. The political importance of the matter justifies, much more than in the Dutch colony of Surinam, participation in the expenses by the Mother-country.

In an Australian periodical some time ago the position in the Pacific was considered in connection with New Guinea and although Australian New Guinea counts already 3500 Europeans, it was strongly recommended to be more active in that territory with a view to the international situation in the Pacific. How much more this holds good for the Netherlands in connection with Netherlands New Guinea! With a view to the mutual interest cooperation between Australian and Netherlands New Guinea as advocated by Duysoph and the writer seems desirable.