

- ART. VI.—1. *New Guinea and Polynesia: Discoveries and Surveys in New Guinea and the D'Entrecasteaux Islands.* By Captain John Moresby, R.N. London, 1876.
2. *The Hawaiian Archipelago: Six Months among the Palm Groves, Coral-reefs, and Volcanoes of the Sandwich Islands.* By Isabella L. Bird. London, 1875.
3. *Two Years in Fiji.* By Litton Forbes, M.D. London, 1875.
4. *Forty Years' Mission-work in Polynesia and New Guinea, from 1835 to 1875.* By the Rev. A. W. Murray. London, 1876.
5. *A Yachting Cruise in the South Seas.* By C. F. Wood. London, 1875.
6. *Cosmos. Comunicazioni sui progressi più recenti e notevoli della Geografia e delle Scienze affini.* Di Guido Cora. Torino, 1875-6.
7. *Die Inseln des Stillen Oceans; eine geographische Monographie.* Von Prof. Dr. Carl E. Meinicke. Leipzig, 1875.
8. *Reis-tochten naar de Geelvinkbaai op Nieuw Guinea in de Jaren 1869 en 1870.* Door C. B. H. von Rosenberg. 's Gravenhage, 1875.
9. *Quatre années en Océanie: Histoire naturelle de l'Homme et des Sociétés qu'il organise.* Par Antoine Edouard Foley. Paris, 1876.
10. *Correspondence respecting New Guinea.* (Presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of her Majesty.) July, 1876.

THERE are few people with any imagination who have not indulged in the refined pleasure of dreaming over a map. And

And to any remonstrance from the 'practical' side of their nature they would at once answer, that the main features of their map being correct, it afforded a sure basis for valuable speculation, geographical or otherwise. They would not expect perfect accuracy of detail in remote and savage countries, but they might fairly assume that all coast lines, except in Arctic or Antarctic regions, had been long ere now correctly laid down.

It will be a surprise, then, to such persons, on looking at the map of New Guinea attached to Captain Moresby's book, to find that the coast line of that great island, as laid down in our Admiralty charts five years ago, was, for hundreds of miles, a purely imaginary line, in one place running far inland over lofty mountains, in another equally far out to seaward. It seems not very creditable to a great maritime power to have remained so long in ignorance of the very outline of a coast within eighty miles of her own territories, and in the heart of a region traversed in all directions by her commerce. We do not undervalue the scientific results, or the human training, to be got from an Arctic expedition, but if the latter should be done, the former should certainly not have been left so long undone.

The first discovery of New Guinea is claimed both by the Portuguese and the Spaniards. Don Jorge de Meneses, the Portuguese Governor of Ternate, was, in 1526, driven by winds and currents upon the coast of 'Papua,' and remained there till the change of the monsoon; and two years later the Spanish Captain Alvaro de Saavedra, returning eastward from the Moluccas, 'cast anchor in a great gulf near certain islands,' presumably on the north coast, which he named *Islas de Oro*. Then comes, perhaps, a more definite notice of the country by the survivors, after mutiny and shipwreck, of Grijalva's company, who being rescued from slavery by the illustrious Antonio Galvano, reported that 'the people of all these lands are black, and have their hair frizzled, whom the people of Maluco do call Papuas. There is here a bird as big as a crane: he flieth not, nor hath any wings wherewith to fly; he runneth on the ground like a deer; of their small feathers they do make hair for their idols,' &c.

The difficulties in the way of geographical discovery in those days were great. Positions were sometimes falsified to bring them on the right side of the meridian which was to divide the Spaniard from the Portuguese. Logs and charts were suppressed, and discoveries concealed, lest they should fall into rival hands, or afford shelter to the terrible Drake, who had now rounded the Horn, and was on the track of his great enemy. The habit, too, of ignoring the native names of places often
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made identification impossible, when the observations of position were inaccurate. Again, the theory of a great Terra Australis, which behoved to balance in the south the accumulation of land in high northern latitudes, was a great stumbling-block to the early navigators. But truth is strangely greater than fiction, and the real Australia vastly transcends in importance the old explorer's dream, of which geographically it is only a fragment.

All this helps to explain why the early navigators profited so little by the work of those who went before them. The Dutch voyager Keyts, for instance, whose account of New Guinea, though dating from 1678, is still worth reading, says, 'it is believed that New Guinea is separated from New Holland in about 10° S. lat. ;' and yet Torres had sailed through the intricate channel which bears his name three-quarters of a century before. The fame of this exploit was posthumous indeed. His voyage was performed in 1606, but it was not till 1762, when Manilla was taken by the British, that his letter to the King of Spain, describing his discovery, was found by Dalrymple, who named the straits accordingly. The passage through them was first surveyed by Cook in 1770.

The Dutch, who had entered on the inheritance of their Portuguese rivals, were the chief explorers of the 17th century. Besides the achievements of Tasman, and of the good ship 'Duyfken,' a classic name among the early navigators, we have the long and daring voyage, by Magellan Straits to the north coast of New Guinea, of the 'interlopers' Lemaire and Schouten, in 1616, whose vessel was confiscated by their jealous and exclusive countrymen.

Towards the end of the 17th century, Dampier, perhaps the greatest of English explorers before Cook, coming from the eastwards, closed the land in about 148° E. (some two degrees further down the coast than any who had preceded him), and coasted thence westwards, laying down several points and islands. His observations would have been more valuable had he been trained in a humaner school, for his free use of fire-arms to 'scare' the savages who 'could not, or perhaps would not, understand' him, naturally shortened his intercourse with them.

In 1774 Thomas Forrest was sent by the East India Company to discover whether spices were to be found on any of the Moluccas or other islands to the east of the Dutch possessions. He sailed (chiefly to escape the interference of the Dutch) in the 'Tartar Galley,' a vessel of only ten tons and twenty-five feet in length, and landing at Dorey on the north-west coast, spent some time in friendly intercourse with the people.

The sum of our knowledge up to recent times may be said to have

have been completed by D'Entrecasteaux, who, in 1793, sailed within five leagues of the islands at the eastern extremity of New Guinea, but keeping outside them, was unable to close the coast farther east than 147°. On the south-west coasts important observations were made in 1826 by the Dutch Lieutenant Kolff, and towards the south-east valuable surveying work was done in 1843-5 by Captain Blackwood in the 'Fly,' and in 1849 by Captain Owen Stanley, in the 'Rattlesnake.' The last as well as the most important and extensive survey is that of Captain Moresby, who carried a running survey along the hitherto unknown part of the north coast from the eastern extremity of the island for 278 miles as the crow flies, to the point where D'Entrecasteaux's observations began, and ascertained its actual eastern limits, though these were more than guessed at by Dumont D'Urville thirty years before. Captain Moresby also made a triangulated survey of this and of the adjacent islands, including a surface of some 60 by 75 miles. This work, though a good deal still remains to be done, was certainly the most important piece of marine survey remaining uncompleted in any part of the globe.

The name of 'New Guinea' was probably given to the island by Ortez de Retes, in 1546, from the resemblance of the inhabitants to those of the Guinea coast. The modern name 'Papua,' perhaps derived from the Malay word *pua-pua*, 'frizzled,' in allusion to the hair of the inhabitants, is applied by their Malay and other neighbours not only to New Guinea, but to several of the adjacent islands. The natives themselves, differing in race and language, could hardly have a common name for their country, of whose extent, besides, they are entirely ignorant. Various great districts are known to the natives, and to the traders who frequent the coast, by special names, and local terms meaning 'big land,' are used here and there.*

New Guinea is in close geological connection with Australia. The shallow waters which separate their shores, and extend some distance beyond them to the westward, cover an area which in recent tertiary times must have been dry land. The two countries are, in fact, almost united by outliers of the great barrier reef which for more than 1200 miles runs along the north-east coast of Australia. The waters of Torres Straits,

* Mr. Gill says the people of Torres Straits call New Guinea 'Little Daudai,' and Australia 'Great Daudai;' but the Rev. W. Ridley, in his work on the 'Languages of Australia,' says that the people of Cape York, comparing their narrow peninsula with the great mountain ranges of New Guinea, call the latter 'great' and Australia 'little Daudai.' Daudai is, perhaps, a variation of 'towrai,' country.

besides being encumbered with reefs and shoals, are studded with islands, many of them, especially towards the west, of igneous origin, while others are simply upheaved, the strata dipping every way from the centre seawards. In short, although 80 miles in width, the straits afford but two channels available for navigation.

Few travellers have as yet penetrated the country for any distance, and a great part of the interior is still unknown, and consequently undescribed, except by Captain Lawson, whose 'Wanderings,' even viewed as a work of fiction, hardly merited the attention they received in some quarters. Fortunately, the few modern travellers whose observations are available are men of more than ordinary intelligence. They represent nearly every country in Europe. Among others, Italy sends two naturalists, Signori D'Albertis and Beccari; Russia, Dr. Miklukho Maklay; Germany, the learned Dr. A. B. Meyer; Holland, Mr. Von Rosenberg. Among our own countrymen, Mr. A. R. Wallace, the distinguished naturalist, resided for some time on the coast; and much information has been supplied more recently by Captain Moresby, Mr. Octavius Stone, and by the Rev. S. Macfarlane; also by the Rev. W. Gill, the author of some excellent papers. But few of these gentlemen have written at any length, and we have only scattered records of their doings. A series of these have appeared in 'Cosmos,' a journal which, in the hands of Signor Guido Cora, stands in the first rank as a geographical authority. England, however, ought in these matters to be *nulli secundus*, not even to the veteran 'Petermann'; and we hope to see our own 'Geographical Magazine' take this place under the management of its present accomplished editor.

We need hardly, perhaps, apologise if we now take a rapid survey of shores so little known, dipping here and there into the mysterious interior. Our voyage must be a rapid one, for the island is 1400 miles in length, or, in other words, extends as far as from the coast of Brittany to the mouths of the Danube, while its maximum width is equal to that of France. The southern coast from its eastern extremity to Redscar Head, a point on the east side of the great Gulf of Papua, is protected by a series of reefs, forming several land-locked harbours, to which, however, the access, through openings in the reefs, is not always simple. To the westward of Redscar Head the coral reefs cease, and the character of the country entirely changes; the coast becoming low, flat, and swampy, and the sea so shallow that a vessel cannot approach within several miles of the land. Dense forests of tall mangroves fringe the shore, which for many miles inland is only a few feet above the surface of the
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water, and is, in fact, a vast delta, half submerged, and intersected by numerous and wide channels. These bring down great volumes of fresh water, which extends at low tide many miles to seaward, and might be taken for large navigable rivers, affording an easy road into the interior. Most of the rivers hitherto explored diminish rapidly landwards, their channels, even when otherwise navigable by boats, being found choked by fallen trees and other obstacles. Captain Moresby was disposed to think that all the rivers will prove to have this character, or to be mere tidal creeks; but the Fly River, on the west side of the Gulf of Papua, is certainly an exception, for Signor D'Albertis has recently, in a steam-launch provided for him at Sydney, ascended this river to a point 500 miles from its mouth, and nearly half that distance in a straight line from the sea. For the last seventy miles he was beyond the swampy plains of the coast region, in an undulating country, with mountains in sight to the N.W. Here his further progress was checked by the character of the stream, which had become too shallow, except after rains, and the current was then too strong to admit of steaming. That this is the true road to the interior was suggested thirty years ago by Mr. Jukes, the narrator of the voyage of the 'Fly,' who felt sure that some large river must flow between the great mountain ranges which run parallel to the length of the island. Captain Evans, the Hydrographer of the Navy, who himself served in the 'Fly,' has always advocated this view, and must be gratified by its realisation. The mangrove swamps and shallow waters extend hence along the coast westwards, for hundreds of miles, while all traces of mountains disappear until opposite the Aru Islands, where again a lofty range comes in sight, not less than 16,000 feet high, and, according to some observers, capped with snow. The Aru Islands, about 150 miles from New Guinea, lie on the western limits of the surrounding shallow sea, and a proof of the depression of this area was noticed here by that acute observer, Mr. Wallace. He remarked that these islands are traversed by winding channels—the courses, no doubt, of former rivers which must have had their source in the lofty mountains on the opposite mainland of New Guinea, and flowed in this direction over the district now submerged. From this point westwards high mountains are always in sight, and the N.W. peninsula, or Papua Onim, which is almost severed from the island by the deep inlet of MacCluer Gulf, is for the most part of a mountainous character. This peninsula, and especially the district about Geelvink Bay on the north coast, is one of the very few parts where the interior is at all well known. Von Rosenberg's work contains a good deal of information about
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this region, which, with the large adjacent islands, has also been partially explored by Meyer, Beccari and other travellers. The mountains, which are mostly clothed with forests to a height of several thousand feet, are chiefly of granite and mica-schist, flanked by limestone strata; in the inner ranges, judging from the pebbles in the torrents, the rocks are volcanic.

The general appearance of the northern coast differs greatly from that of the southern. This may be partly due to the belt of volcanic action which extends parallel to this coast and at no great distance from it. The mountains generally rise abruptly from the sea, but sometimes a narrow beach or plain of moderate extent intervenes. Few harbours are to be found, and the depth of the water close in-shore makes anchorage difficult.

Towards the eastern extremity of the island a series of wide bays extends, the hills rising, range upon range, towards the interior, save where some loftier chain at once intercepts the view; while groups of islands, with more than one active volcano, fringe the shore. The existence of great rivers on this side of the island is attested by vast floating masses of timber, met with far out to sea.

Of the whole island, the part most likely to become of interest to ourselves is the southern coast from the Gulf of Papua to its eastern extremity. The country around Redscar Bay and Port Moresby, on the eastern side of the Gulf, has been explored by the English and Polynesian missionaries settled there, whose reports do not bear out the expectations formed of its resources. The soil seems generally poor. Low, rounded, grassy hills, with higher ranges behind them, sparsely timbered with Eucalyptus, Pandanus, and other vegetation of an Australian type, rise from the white coral beach. In the valleys, however, and further inland, the vegetation is of a more tropical luxuriance. The hills are of a recent limestone formation, strewn with fragments of red flint, and of a non-auriferous quartz, and shells of existing species were found by Mr. Stone at a height of 600 feet. From the higher ridges a grand view is obtained of endless ranges of mountains clothed with dense jungle and high forest trees, above which tower the great volcanic peaks of Mount Owen Stanley, 13,200 feet in height. The whole of the coast eastward from Port Moresby has recently been visited by Mr. Macfarlane. Steaming down between the barrier-reef and the shore, in waters hitherto unknown, he discovered two valuable harbours, besides many safe anchorages, and two rivers, by which the hill country, a few miles inland, may be reached. The country eastwards becomes much more fertile and more varied in character. It is highly cultivated; carefully-tended flower-beds were

were actually seen in the gardens; and the numerous population is in many places a fine healthy race, friendly and eager to trade.

The islands at the extremity of the peninsula, with the adjacent mainland, have been glowingly described by Captain Moresby. With no affectation of literary art, he yet brings before us the transparent coral sea with its glittering beach, dotted with the picturesque huts of the natives, and backed by hills and mountain ranges of every form, clothed with luxuriant forest or breezy downs (on which, however, the grass proved to be twelve feet high), or terraced with careful cultivation. In truth, his powers of description are very considerable. We see the boat anchored in the river for the night in the heart of the forest, with the 'extemporised penny readings' and the songs, the torments from mosquitoes almost driving the men into the water among the crocodiles; and then daylight comes, and 'the usual morning prayers,' and to work again. The intercourse with the natives is often amusing, sometimes critical; but everything goes well, thanks partly perhaps to 'luck,' but mainly to the wise precautions and fine temper of the commander, and to the good humour and admirable discipline of the crew, imbued with a portion of his own spirit. We venture to think he is sanguine in supposing that, because he found a clear passage northwards between the islands, he has necessarily discovered the best route between Australia and China. Even the part surveyed by him is more intricate than either of the routes now in use, and, as Captain Evans has pointed out, many unknown impediments may exist in the unsurveyed waters to the northward. Besides, the atmospheric conditions of the area to the north of New Guinea are imperfectly known. It is not improbably a region of calms, the trade-wind and monsoon being intercepted or deflected by the high lands on either side. It may be doubtful whether such drawbacks do not more than outweigh the alleged gain of 300 miles in a voyage of 5000.

We may here enter a protest against the system pursued by many discoverers of ignoring the native names of localities. The memory of a discoverer should always be perpetuated, but it is unnecessary, if not confusing, to find a harbour, a strait, and an island, in different parts of New Guinea, all bearing the name of Moresby. A bay or headland may often be nameless, but rivers, mountains, and inhabited islands have their native names. Many of those in New Guinea are already known, and though Captain Moresby may be inclined to do battle for the bevy of Ediths, and Janes, and Hildas, and Ethels, who adorn
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his map, we hope their darker rivals will be exclusively adopted by future geographers. Dr. Meinicke gives everywhere the names applied either by the natives themselves, or by their Moluccan and other neighbours, to the various districts, as well as to the natural features of the island. His work, under the modest title, 'Eine geographische Monographie,' contains not only a minute geographical description, but a compendium of information about the inhabitants of the various groups of islands in the Pacific, with an introductory chapter on Ethnology and other matters, to which his life-long study of the subject gives much value.

The fauna of New Guinea is classified by Mr. Wallace * as a subdivision of the Australian. It extends to the immediately adjacent islands, and, with certain modifications, as far as the Moluccas on the west, and the Solomon Islands on the east. Its close resemblance, both positive and negative, to that of Australia, viewed in connection with the great dissimilarity of the climate of the two countries, is another proof that the intervening tract has been but recently submerged. It differs from that of the islands further to the westward, the respective limits of the two fauna coinciding remarkably with the deep sea channel which separates the two regions, whose depth suggests that they were severed at a comparatively remote period. The New Guinea, or, as Mr. Wallace styles it, the 'Austro-Malayan' fauna, is remarkable for the absence of any mammalia larger than the pig and the dog, and even these may have been introduced by the earlier immigrants. As to the rhinoceros of Captain Moresby, and the buffaloes of Mr. Stone, we do not like to dogmatise, but we fear we must relegate them, provisionally, to the company of the terrible 'moolla' of Captain Lawson. The dendrolagus, a tree kangaroo peculiar to the island, is a curious partial adaptation of that animal to the necessities of a forest life. In striking contrast to the poverty of the mammalia, are the variety and splendour of the birds. These are pre-eminently of a type of their own, with, as might be expected, an infusion of a western Malay element. Among the most characteristic are the splendid group of birds-of-paradise,† found only in New Guinea and in some of the nearest islands, the megapodida, or mound builders, and the cassowaries. The richness and specialisation of the pigeons, parrots, and kingfishers, are remarkable, as is the absence of finches, woodpeckers, vultures, and pheasants.

* 'Geographical Distribution of Animals,' i. 409.

† It is to be hoped that Mr. Wallace's forebodings as to the probable disappearance of these beautiful birds may not be realised, but they are eagerly hunted down, their skins fetching, on the spot, from 10s. to 20s.

Mr. Wallace found that the proportion of 'beautiful' birds was 50 per cent. of the whole, the same as in the Amazon region, while the proportion in the Moluccas was only one-third. This is due, he says, in New Guinea, mainly to the number of parrots, lorries, cockatoos, pigeons, and kingfishers; and to the absence of thrushes, shrikes, warblers, and other dull-coloured groups. The character of the reptilia, as far as we know, is partly Australian, partly of a western origin; many of the snakes especially, which are easily transported on floating timber, or even by canoes, being of the latter type.

The flora is mainly that of the Indian Archipelago; and though there is a certain infusion of the Australian element, the former predominates even in the islands of Torres Straits. On the more barren and open country to the east of the Gulf of Papua, Australian vegetation is represented by varieties of Eucalyptus, Acacia, and Pandanus; and even as far as Humboldt's Bay, on the north coast, plants of Australian type are found. A striking feature of the forest vegetation is the enormous height of the trees, though the species are fewer than in the large islands of the Archipelago. Its great density often makes the herbaceous vegetation poor; ferns, grasses, orchids, and aroids perhaps predominate; then Myrtaceæ, aloes, Urticeæ, Lorantheæ, and Apocynæ. Tobacco is indigenous in the interior, and tradition ascribes to it an illustrious antiquity, the seeds of the first plant being the miraculous fruit of a woman named Heva. The sugar-cane grows luxuriantly, the edible part, Dr. Maklay says, being 14 feet high. Many kinds of *Ficus* are abundant, and several new kinds of palm are found. The sago-palm, if not indigenous, must have been early introduced. It grows freely in a wild state, and even in cultivation requires little care. It matures in twelve to fifteen years, and produces from 2 to 4 cwt. of flour;* a sort of biscuit made from this lasts for years, while the branches make a better thatch than those of other palms. The nutmeg seems indigenous, and the Massoi bark, a very old article of export to China, is supplied by one of the Laurineæ. Among the principal fruits and vegetables in use, but which are said not to be truly indigenous, are the cocoa-nut, the banana, the durian, and the breadfruit; the *Macropiper methysticum*, from whose root the intoxicating 'kava,' the national drink of the Pacific, is made; the yam, the taro (*Arum esculentum*), the sweet potato, and the melon. A fine variety of jute grows wild, and other valuable fibres are in use. Of the mineral productions of the country little is known. They

* In Sumatra it matures in half the time, and the produce is twice as great.

may be numerous, for the geological formations seem to be of various ages. On the south-east coast, Mr. Stone observed a vein of plumbago two miles in length; and Captain Moresby a fine steel sand. His reported discovery of gold in this quarter has not been authenticated, but it is said that there are gold washings in the streams of Papua Onim, and a tertiary coal of inferior quality in the island of Lakahia, off the south-west coast; and there are also traces of this in the islets of Galevo Straits.

The climate of New Guinea is, according to the general verdict, very unhealthy, though Beccari and Von Rosenberg consider this accusation too indiscriminate. The mortality, chiefly from fever and ague, among the native missionaries on the south coast, has been enormous. The explorers of the Fly River all suffered from dropsy, and even in vessels off the coast, with every precaution taken, fever is common, slight sores or injuries do not heal, and the vital energies are greatly depressed. The plateaux of the interior may have a healthier climate, but in the dry, rocky hill-country about Redscar Bay, little improvement is found. There must be a heavy rainfall, extending over a great part of the year. Von Rosenberg says that at Dorey rain fell on 130 days in the first six months of 1869, and the amount of vapour in the atmosphere is said to moderate the temperature. The action of the monsoons, deflected by the high land, is irregular. The north-west monsoon discharges its moisture chiefly at the western end of the island, and the south-east trade wind, intensified into a monsoon by the radiation from the land and confinement between the shores of Torres Straits, on the eastern and southern ranges. The transition between the monsoons is long and irregular, and these are the most unhealthy seasons of the year. On the other hand, at Somerset, on the extreme northern point of Australia, the climate, though of course tropical, is fairly good; there is no fever, and the heat is tempered by constant light breezes. Even the climate of Torres Straits is not unhealthy, although it is much hotter, and the extent to which the atmosphere is impregnated with salt renders it trying to many.*

New Guinea may be called the stronghold of the black Papuan race, which also forms the bulk of the population in the chain of great islands extending eastward as far as, and including, Fiji. To the westward they are found in gradually decreasing numbers in the islands of the Malay Archipelago as far as Flores (usually

* See Paper by Alexander Rattray, M.D., in 'Journal of Geographical Society,' 1868.

in the more inaccessible parts), while among their kindred may be classed the Negritos of the Philippines, the Andaman Islanders, and certain tribes in the highlands of Sumatra, in Java, and in the peninsula of Malacca. At the eastern end of New Guinea, however, the coast for some 150 miles, and the interior for a further unknown distance westward, are occupied by a people of very different appearance, an offset, it is thought, of the fair Polynesian race which inhabits all the other islands of the Pacific.

The origin of these two races, and their relation to each other and to the Malays proper, have been the subject of much speculation. Among each we find many divergencies both of physical type and of manners and customs. But too much stress has sometimes been laid on these, and sufficient consideration has not always been given to the powerful effect, acting through long ages, of varieties of climate and of food, and the different habits which these engender; of isolation and interbreeding; of the degree of civilisation possessed by a migrating tribe, and the means, or absence of means, of maintaining it in the new domicile. And to these may be added the great facility for distant migrations, voluntary or involuntary, among island communities.

The majority of eminent writers on the subject have maintained that there is a great 'Malayo-Polynesian' race, of Asiatic origin, and comprising, as the name implies, the Malays of the Indian Archipelago, and all the fair Polynesian tribes of the Pacific; and further, that these two branches of the race are sharply separated, as by a wedge, by the dark races of Australia, New Guinea, and the adjacent islands. But later investigations have somewhat complicated the question. The relationship of the Malays and Polynesians is disputed by no less an authority than Mr. Wallace. He gives an exhaustive description, as from long residence among them he is so well fitted to do, of the appearance, character, and habits of the Malays, and—having first assumed that the Polynesians and Papuans are nearly related to each other—points out the great difference between these and the Malays. The Rev. S. Whitmee, however, writing* from a long acquaintance with the Polynesians, applies to them, *seriatim*, every part of Mr. Wallace's description of the Malays, and argues with much force that the resemblances are so great as to prove a close relationship.

The difference is certainly great between the present state of Polynesian civilisation and that of the Malays; but the former has retrograded, as it could hardly fail to do in small isolated

* 'Contemporary Review,' Feb. 1873.

communities, destitute for the most part of iron and other metals, as well as of cattle, and nearly all the domestic animals. The peoples of the Indian Archipelago, on the other hand, have been in a position to profit by the growing civilisation of Asia, and perhaps by Phœnician and other influences from the more distant west. Mr. Wallace contrasts the tendency of the Polynesian to dwindle away before the European with the greater toughness, in this respect, of the Malay; but the latter was gradually hardened and prepared to stand the contact with Europeans by centuries of intercourse with the higher races of Asia. He admits the large infusion of Malayan words in the Polynesian language, and (probably) of Malayan blood in the race, but denies that the former is due to the latter. Whatever the structural differences between the two languages, the *onus probandi* here would seem to lie with Mr. Wallace. Dr. Meinicke remarks, as a curious proof of the relationship between them, that while the Micronesian branch of the Polynesian race resembles the Northern Malays of the neighbouring Philippines, the Southern Polynesians resemble rather the Southern or main branch of the Malay race.

The differences observable between the New Guinea Papuan and the Australian may be due, in part, to the deterioration of the latter, who is also, perhaps, a purer specimen of a primitive black race, sent, in the expressive phrase of Professor Rolleston, 'to air the world.' But the nearest affinity of the Australian seems to be with the Dravidian races of Southern India, and the languages of this section of mankind indicate rather a northern than a tropical origin. The Papuan forms of speech, on the other hand, are clearly, according to Dr. Bleek,* allied to those of the tropical negro races of Africa, and he finds traces of the same connection in the languages of Polynesia. The presumption from this would be that the Papuan race once extended much farther eastward than at present, and that a Papuan element still forms the base both of the language and of the population of Polynesia. It is dangerous to lay much stress on the argument from language, when we know nothing of the circumstances under which contact with other races may have taken place, but physiologists also trace a negroid element far east in the Pacific, and Mr. Wallace distinctly holds the Polynesians to be merely a transitional, though well-established variety of the Papuan race. The outward resemblance of the Papuan to the African negro was long ago remarked, and the linguistic evidence of a connection between them justifies those who have always

* 'Journal of the Anthropological Institute,' 1871.

maintained this relationship, whether the intercourse lay by way of India or by a now submerged 'Lemuria.'

It was at one time generally believed that not only in New Guinea, but in all the larger islands of the Indian Archipelago, the savage population of the interior was of a distinct race from that of the coast, and they were known as 'Alfuros.*' This apparent difference of race may generally be referred to the very different conditions of their existence; during Dr. Beccari's last journey in New Guinea, however, he found in the remoter districts in the north of the island a perfectly black race, with short woolly hair, prominent brows, the root of the nose much depressed, a wide chest, and protuberant, pendulous belly. Some of the features of this degraded type suggest a connection with Australia, but rather, perhaps, with the Aëtas of the Philippine Islands, a savage negrito people who live scattered among the Malay population, and in general habits resemble the Papuan. Their origin is a question of much interest. They are, so far as is known, unlike the African negro, usually brachycephalic; whereas, Dr. Beccari says, "the more the Papuan approaches the negro type, the more decidedly is he dolichocephalic." But the form of the skull, taken alone, is not an unfailing test of race, and Dr. Beccari has found examples of the short, round head also among the New Guinea 'negroes.' It has been suggested that the Philippine negrito may have been modified in this direction by admixture with a brachycephalic 'Mongol' type from the neighbouring continent; but this brachycephalism seems to be generally characteristic of the Oriental negroid type wherever its remnants are found, from India to Japan.†

Considering the vast interval of time and distance which must separate the 'Oceanic negro' from his African brother, he has many striking points of resemblance, both as to physical appearance and temperament, with that well-known personage. He shows the artistic tastes which characterise even the degraded Bushman. He has the grin and hearty laugh of the African, and, though fierce and cruel, is capable of improvement by discipline. Many of his customs, too, are identical with those of Eastern Africa: such as the various elaborate ways of dressing and of dyeing the hair; the boring of the septum of the nose, and filing of the teeth; the raised cicatrices

* This name, which also occurs in the 'Harafura' Sea, to the north-west of Australia, has been the subject of much speculation. Mr. Windsor Earl traces it in the Portuguese word *Alforria*, 'enfranchisement,' pointing to the fact that these mountain people were habitually used as slaves by their more civilised neighbours.

† It may be added that Signor D'Albertis reports the fairer—and, as he considers, superior—race on the upper waters of the Fly river to be of a dolichocephalic, and the darker 'Papuan' at the mouth of the river of a brachycephalic type.

which take the place of the tattooing of fairer races; the belief in sorcery, omens and witchcraft; the extracting of diseases in the forms of animals, pieces of wood, &c.; and the various practices—also found in Australia—for testing the courage of their youths. The peculiar appearance of the Papuan hair (the long separate spiral curls trained into a huge mop) has long been remarked, and was supposed—we believe erroneously—to be due to irregular aggregations of the follicles; and it is curious that Marion in the seventeenth century, and Bligh after him, noticed the same in Tasmania, where the natives, if allied to the Australian race, had also a large infusion of ‘Papuan’ blood, received probably from New Caledonia; and they are said to have strongly resembled the Andaman islanders. Mr. Wallace seems inclined to think the ‘mop’ head is a sign of a mixed race; it is seen among the half-negro tribes who frequent Aden; and a close resemblance to the Papuan ‘mop’ is described and pictured by Prichard* as belonging to the Cabusos of Brazil, who are a cross between the native American and the African negro. The race is clearly a very mixed one. Dr. Müller † observed not only many shades of colour, but various forms of skull and of features, recalling the Malay, the European, and the negro; often too the high, hooked nose, and strongly Jewish cast of features, remarked by many observers, and which is the typical form seen in their ‘karwars,’ or ancestral images. We may at all events assume with Dr. Beccari that upon the negro element in the Papuan has been engrafted another, connecting him, like the Australian, more immediately with Asia. Indeed, he detects in the Papuan of northern New Guinea a large infusion of Indian blood, due to an immigration many ages anterior to the Hindoo occupation of Java and the neighbouring islands. It travelled, he thinks, by the Moluccas, where he traces it in various names, customs, and traditions. This bears curiously on a theory recently revived that this district was the starting-point of a great Polynesian migration. Mr. J. R. Logan ‡ twenty-five years ago argued from the identity of many names in the islands of Timor and Ceram with those of Polynesia, that at least one wave of emigration issued from the island of Halmahera or Gilolo, carrying thence the name of Sawaii (meaning ‘little Java’), which reappears in that or the allied forms of Hawaii or Hawaiki, in the Samoan Islands, the Sandwich Islands, and New Zealand. It is certainly more

* ‘Natural History of Man,’ vol. i. p. 18.

† ‘Anthropologische Mittheilungen über die Papuas von Neu-Guinea. Von Dr. A. B. Meyer.’ Wien, 1874.

‡ ‘Journal of the Indian Archipelago,’ vol. iv.

satisfactory to believe that the population, as well as the ancient civilisation of Polynesia, followed this route, than to believe, as some would have us do, that the Sanskrit language—and therefore, we suppose, the Aryan nations—had their origin on the now submerged Pacific continent, and this conclusion is strengthened by the probable derivation also from Asia of the early inhabitants of Western America.

The general belief in a broad distinction between the Papuan and the Polynesian does not practically differ much from Mr. Wallace's view that they are varieties of the same race, with a large infusion in either case of a foreign element, and at a very different stage of culture. They certainly differ very markedly both in physiognomy and in character; and at the various points where they are in contact, as in the New Hebrides, they are in fierce hostility to each other.* At the same time there are many striking points of resemblance, and even the differences are often more suggestive of very unequal degrees of civilisation than of true race distinctions. The remarkable sameness in the dialects of the Polynesian language, in islands scattered over a vast area, compared with the great number and diversity of languages among the Papuans—amounting, it is said, to one for every five thousand people—only shows a higher state of civilisation. The hospitality of the Polynesian, contrasted with the barbarous treatment of strangers by the Papuan, proves no more; we ourselves are not removed by many ages from the Cornish wrecker, and the "rude Carinthian boor." The Papuan is usually devoid of the instinct of shame; on the other hand, his women are more modest than the Polynesian, to whom in their natural state this sentiment, as a virtue, is hardly known. The skilful navigation of the Polynesians, and their fondness for the sea, is often quoted as distinguishing them from the Papuans, and it has even been remarked that the Papuan race is only found in those islands which can easily be reached from Asia by timid sailors; and yet the Fijians and the Papuan inhabitants of the Kei islands are alike famous among their non-Papuan neighbours as boat-builders.

The practice of cannibalism, though more prevalent—indeed almost universal—among the Papuans, has not been uncommon among the Polynesians. It seems usually to retain traces of a religious origin, even when indulged, as in Fiji, from mere preference; on the other hand, it has sometimes been unknown, even where, as in the Sandwich Islands, the practice of human sacrifice

* The relations between the Fijians and the Tongans are exceptional, as the former have, at some early time, received a considerable infusion of Polynesian blood.

has been most extensive. It has sometimes originated, as probably in New Zealand, in the scarcity of food; but to maintain, as Dr. Foley does (i. 196), that it was the universal practice among the early races of Europe before the introduction of cattle, is, to say the least, a great exaggeration. It is often practised as a sign of triumph over an enemy, and sometimes, in Australia, out of respect to a near relative; but accusations of cannibalism have often been founded on the practice of cooking the head of an enemy, or preparing the body of a friend, merely to preserve them. The political and social organisation of the Polynesian is far in advance of the Papuan, and strongly suggests an Asiatic source, and the practice of circumcision, which is confined generally to the Polynesians, and to a few of the Papuans within their influence, is a striking mark of difference. The great Polynesian institution of 'tabu' is found among the other race, and they have, besides, many customs in common which coincide remarkably with those of various tribes in India, Assam, and Burmah. The head-hunting of the Papuan finds a parallel among the Dyaks of the Archipelago and the Kukis of the Burmese frontier. Like the Mishmis of North-eastern India, who sacrifice to the spirits of the mountain and the forest, the Papuan dreads the Narwoje—a sort of Erl-König who lives in the clouds above the trees, and carries off children—and other spirits of the forest and of the rocks in the sea; and, like the Nagas of Assam, he is a slave to omens and to signs.* In artistic and poetic taste, and generally in mental activity, the Papuan is perhaps the more advanced of the two—in New Guinea, indeed, he is often far from being an absolute savage. The Torres Straits islanders now work readily for the pearl-shell fishers, and are much liked by their employers. On the western coast they have for centuries held intercourse with Malay and other traders,† and Mohammedan teachers have had some influence. In some of the neighbouring Kei and Aru islands, there are orderly Christian communities under Dutch or native missionaries. The island of Salvatti is governed by a Malay rajah, whose troops are enlisted from the adjacent coasts of New Guinea. His slaves, as well as those of other rajahs in the neighbouring islands,

* Mr. Windsor Earl ('Journal of the Indian Archipelago,' vol. iv.) quotes in proof of the Asiatic origin of the Servatti islanders, the use of elephants' tusks (the animal being unknown to them) at their funeral rites, a practice perhaps answering to the sacrifice of a tusker on similar occasions by some Assam tribes. And both preserve their dead in the same way, i.e. by exposing them till the body ceases to be offensive.

† Von Rosenberg gives the value of the trade with Ternate as nearly 200,000 gulden, the principal exports from New Guinea being tortoise-shell, trepang, and Massoi-bark.

are habitually kidnapped on the south-west coast, which, coupled with the tyrannous exactions of their suzerain, the Sultan of Tidore, may partly explain the 'irreclaimable ferocity' shown to foreigners attempting to land.* In all that concerns agriculture the Papuans of New Guinea are often on a level with the Polynesians. They have the same sense of rights in the soil, even the more savage tribes who live on the produce of the wild sago-palm having the forest strictly partitioned among them. Each village cultivates a portion of the land around it; the hillsides are terraced often to the height of many hundred feet, and the low-lying gardens are carefully drained and fenced.

In some villages on the south-east coast, part of the population are fishermen and the rest cultivate the soil, interchanging their produce, but neither interfering with the labour of the other; and there is a certain amount of trade with the interior in vegetable produce, shells, &c., and also coastwise, carried in canoes. The ancestors of the Papuan may have brought the traditions of agriculture from Asia, or they may have got them from some early Polynesian migration, but its original source may be deduced from the fact that nearly all the fruits and vegetables cultivated are indigenous to Asia, and not to the Pacific.

From the Russian traveller Miklukho Maklay, who spent fifteen months at Astrolabe Bay, on a hitherto unknown part of the northern coast, we learn some curious particulars of Papuan life. He writes enthusiastically of their simple and amiable ways, and declares that they improve on acquaintance. He has named the islands in the bay the 'Archipelago of the Contented,' and in short has restored (for himself) the ideal of the noble savage, so sadly at a discount in these prosaic days. But we fail to see any poetry in the daily life of a Papuan gentleman. He rises early, and shivers in his scanty covering till sunrise. He then 'lingers late over his breakfast and cigar,' and—what is more difficult to understand—over his toilette; in short, he kills time somehow till evening, when his womenkind return weary from their day's work in his plantation. His dinner consists chiefly of vegetables, varied on occasions by the flesh of the dog and the pig, with fish, lizards, beetles, and every kind of insect; a third part of sea-water being added to the *pot au feu* in place of salt. Being an epicure, he usually cooks the dinner himself, and after serving out the worst morsels to his wife and children, eats the re-

* Captain Count Loversa, of the Italian Navy, asserts that these islanders also kidnap natives from the N.W. coasts of Australia—*British subjects!*

mainder with his male friends apart. The women, we are told, though they do all the hard work, and are altogether on a lower footing than among the fairer race, are not badly treated. They are carefully instructed in the art of wagging the body from the hips in walking, and especially practise it when men are present: 'one touch of Nature makes the whole world kin.' The children are petted, chiefly by the father, who carves toys for them—not a common trait among savages. They begin early to take part in the day's work, and it is a common sight to see a little fellow of four years old occupying himself with household matters, and running, when his mother comes in, to take the breast. Owing to this late nursing, and the hard life led by the women, the families are very small.

Two types of houses are found; one is a large barn-like erection, sometimes 500 feet long, containing several families. It has a wide verandah on which they spend much of their time, and is decorated with carvings and other ornamentation, and with the skulls of enemies and other trophies. This type of house is found in Borneo, and also among the Mishmis of India. Other houses are built in the Malay fashion, on piles, over the water when on the coast, but also, in the interior, on dry ground, while some are built in trees, as much as 60 feet from the ground. The villages in the Eastern peninsula are well laid out, and the street is kept scrupulously clean, as is the case, however, also among the savage Solomon islanders. The wooden houses are substantially built, sometimes with two stories, the roof in the form of an inverted boat, made of the leaves of the Nipa palm, surmounted by a baldacchino; they are painted and decorated with drawings of animals, and hung around with weapons, and the teeth of crocodiles and boars. A fire is lighted below the sleeping-places, as a protection against damp, and the smoke keeps off the mosquitoes. The marea, or public building for ceremonies and reception of guests, is found here as in the Pacific; no women or mourners are allowed to enter it.

The use of the betel-nut is confined chiefly, but not exclusively, to the fair race, as that of tobacco is to the dark. The natives whom Torres in 1606 described as 'blowing lime from a pipe to blind their enemies,' and those whom Cook saw 'throwing something out from a short stick which burned like gunpowder,' were, Mr. Gill thinks, only smoking tobacco; but Lieut. Modera says it is a mixture of lime, ashes, and wood, and used for signalling purposes.

It is curious how little intercourse exists even between neighbouring

bouring tribes. Captain Moresby tells us that the use of the bow and arrow, which is general to the westward, ceases suddenly to the east of Redscar Bay, near the point where the territory of the fair race begins, and is not found on either side of the Eastern peninsula till it reappears on the north coast to the west of Astrolabe Bay in about latitude 146°. Many tribes, again, whose neighbours have long been in possession of iron implements, are totally unacquainted with that metal.

Their tools are wonderfully efficient. They make knives from cassowary or sometimes from human bones, and from the bamboo. With their axes, made of a hard stone, or of a thick clam shell (*Tridacna*) they cut down trees, and hew and smooth great planks 40 inches wide. To the ethnologist this opportunity of studying a living example of the Age of Stone is of great interest. They are eager to possess bits of hoop-iron, but their axes are superior to the average hatchet of the trader. If the Iron Age was an advance on that of Stone, the Brummagem Age apparently takes us more than one step backwards!

It is clearly difficult to draw a hard and fast line between the Papuan and the Polynesian; and some even of those who, like Dr. Meinicke, see strong physical differences between them, maintain that there are not two races in New Guinea. Most of those who have come in contact with the fair people of the Eastern peninsula believe they are immigrants who have driven the aborigines far into the interior; but Signor D'Albertis well remarks that we are not yet in a position to dogmatise on this point, and that this fair race may even, possibly, have been driven into their present position from the westward. As far as his observations went, he believes the fair people whom he found in the interior to be practically identical with those of the Eastern coasts, and very superior to the darker 'Papuan.' On the coast, however, the fairer race seems to be, in some respects, degraded, as if by some previous contact with a Papuan population. Their languages are many and distinct; the men are often naked; they have the septum of the nose bored; and they are uncircumcised—all Papuan peculiarities, though some Polynesians have *given up* circumcision. They have the strange custom of sacrificing a dog in ratification of friendship—a custom which prevails also on the northern (Papuan) coast. On the other hand, their women are more independent than is usual among Papuans. The scientific instinct, too, is not dormant, for a party came with ropes of fibre and measured one of our surveying vessels, carrying off the wonderful record with them! Captain Moresby says they are cannibals, but the jaw-bones he saw may

have

have been family relics, for the jaw-bone is treasured among the Papuans not only as the trophy of an enemy, but as the memento of a friend. This degradation of the Polynesian race when in contact with the Papuan is very observable in the Solomon and New Hebrides groups, where the two races impinge on each other; yet even here the Polynesians are generally found distinct, and with their usual abhorrence of their Papuan neighbours. These fine islands have hitherto been little known. The labour traffic, now that it is on a sounder footing, will probably be of great advantage to them, for the frequent return of labourers who have resided in our colonies will mitigate the native savagery of the people, aggravated by the atrocities of which they have been the victims. Not only in these islands, but far to the northward and westward throughout the Radack and Caroline groups, the demeanour of the natives shows too well the treatment they expect from Europeans. But they can quite appreciate a different treatment, and the example of a well-ordered vessel and crew does a good service to the country they represent. This is clearly shown in Mr. C. F. Wood's pleasant volume, which contains some curious jottings of a state of life and manners now rapidly passing away, and therefore, as he rightly thinks, quite worth recording.

The author of 'Two Years in Fiji' is evidently somewhat of a philosopher and citizen of the world, not unduly burthened with respect for the conventional, but with an observant turn of mind. His facts, therefore, cannot fail to be instructive, whatever we may think of his conclusions. The universal necessity for work has, he tells us, begun to pervade even the dreamy isles of the Pacific, leaving no room in the new order of things for the vagrant 'beach combers' and loafers of the past. But there is still many an opening for Englishmen wearied by the trammels of society. In the island of Rotuma the king was suffering from illness, and had offered his sister, with the half of his kingdom, to any one who would cure him. Dr. Forbes did this, and the king stood to his word. The doctor hesitated a little, but the country was pleasant to dwell in, the people amiable, and the bride young and attractive. One morning, however, an alarm was raised that his vessel had slipped from her moorings. The doctor, with the officers, went on board to secure her, but they were carried away far to leeward, and unable to return. The denouement is very disappointing, but a man who can thus reject a princess and a kingdom must have considerable faith in his own resources. His narrative of the events which preceded the annexation of Fiji is clear and impartial. This step might, he thinks, have been avoided by adopting at the time the

the suggestion made in 1860 by General Smythe, viz. to vest magisterial power in the British consul, and much mischief would undoubtedly have been thus prevented.

The resources of the islands are considerable, and although they may not pay their way for some time, the burthen on England is not a heavy one. Unfortunately, although the course through the group is plain and direct, the local navigation is perhaps the most dangerous in the whole Pacific. The significance of the acquisition lies, first, in the inference which may be drawn, that England has not yet closed the door against all future admission to her empire, and, secondly, in the control thereby acquired over the 'labour traffic.' The importance of the acquisition, from this point of view, is obvious enough. Much of the labour is drawn from the islands lying between Fiji and Queensland, and it is in these two places that, as far as our control extends, it is mainly employed. As regards this traffic, Government, while leaving no doubt as to its intention to put down abuses with a firm hand, has acted fairly and deliberately. The Pacific Islanders Protection Act (1875), besides confirming and amending the Act of 1872, also provides for the appointment of a High Commissioner, whose authority is to extend to British subjects residing in every island which is not under the jurisdiction of a civilised power. This seems a practical and workmanlike arrangement, and to ensure greater unity of action, the appointment has been vested in the Governor of Fiji. As, however, his duties will not permit of his being much away from headquarters, and a modified ubiquity is essential to the success of the scheme, he is to have deputies who will cruise about, with full magisterial powers. The moral effect of the knowledge that such officials exist will of itself be considerable, and the innocent trader will escape much hardship and practical injustice by having his case tried on the spot, instead of, as heretofore, at Sydney. But it is necessary for the effective working of the measure that the officers employed be men of discretion, and of a cast of mind at least as much judicial as philanthropic.

The Fijians, who occupy the most easterly limits of Papuan territory, though in appearance and culture far surpassing any other member of the race—an advantage due, seemingly, to some early admixture of the neighbouring Polynesian blood—are yet both in *physique* and in language distinctly Papuan. Their nearest neighbours to the east are the Tongans, a strong handsome Polynesian people. From their better political organisation they have great influence in Fiji, and, being Christians, have often exerted it in favour of their fellow religionists there in a
very

very high-handed and oppressive manner. It was hoped by many of those who urged the annexation of Fiji that this step would lead to the acquisition of the Tongan (Friendly) and Samoan (Navigator) Islands. Dr. Forbes has elsewhere* called attention to the geographical connection between these groups, which form a triangle whose points are only about 300 miles apart: they have already many common interests connecting them with Australia, and their inhabitants are perhaps the finest members of the Polynesian race; but the footing recently acquired by the German Government in Tonga, as well as certain undefined claims of the Americans on Samoa, might be an obstacle to a British protectorate.

In speaking of missionary work, Dr. Forbes says that 'a plain man is apt to be surprised and disappointed' when he compares the actual results with what the missionaries claim to have effected. He protests against the idea that the revolution, within the last two generations, in feelings and practices, is only, or mainly, to be ascribed to their efforts. To form a correct opinion on this subject, we must consider what the condition of Polynesia would now be if no missionary action had taken place there. As Dr. Meinicke has well pointed out, society was in a state of disintegration. The abominations and social tyranny, everywhere existent, had their sanction in religion, but the beliefs, of which they were the symbols, had mostly died out. The mind of the people was thus in a peculiar degree amenable to any new influence, and readily admitted the superiority of European civilisation. But it was also, if unconsciously, craving for some new moral stand-point, and this indispensable condition of existence for any people which has reached a certain stage of culture, the religious teaching of the missionary—but not the moral influence of the trader, or the loafer—was competent to satisfy.† The Rev. A. W. Murray may fairly say that 'it is surely a thing not to be lightly accounted of' that over the vast extent of the Pacific 'the principal groups are really Christian countries, fast becoming independent of foreign aid;' with churches and native pastors, schools and training institutions, and with the Scriptures and other literature in the vernacular. The type of Christianity taught has not, generally speaking, been a high one, but this has perhaps brought it the more readily within the mental grasp of the hearers. Still, a larger share of general culture than is commonly found is especially desirable in men who, besides being religious teachers, should be pioneers of

* 'Proceedings of the Royal Geographical Society,' 6th March, 1877.

† This argument is eloquently enforced by Professor Rolleston in his address to the Anthropological department of the British Association at Bristol. 1875.

civilisation, and are often advisers in weighty political and social questions. Meanwhile we need not despair if ecclesiastical like other history repeats itself. We read of a Fijian tribe beaten in war agreeing to accept Christianity, and of others lapsing in despair into cannibalism after the late fatal introduction of measles. At Rotuma, Dr. Forbes tells us, the Wesleyan missionaries decided (against the well-known text) that it was unlawful to pay tribute to a heathen king. The latter then, aided by the Roman Catholics, declared war; but the question was decided against him, and he lost his crown in a pitched battle. But darker events than these would find a parallel in our own early Christian annals, and we must hope that to the bystanders they have not been a greater stumbling-block in these times than they seem to have been to our ancestors. It is difficult not to judge severely, in such cases, the missionary leaders who have so misconceived the spirit of the Gospel which they profess to teach. But their difficulties and temptations are often great; they have been blamed for possessing lands, and for trading, and the objections are obvious; but if a mission is to be thoroughly equipped, not only as a school for preachers, but also as a centre of European culture, it cannot in these days dispense with material resources. The system of 'voluntary offerings,' especially when large sums are raised in a locality in excess of its own needs,* and of fines levied (often for conventional offences) from the converts, is liable to much abuse. Effective supervision might do much to prevent all such scandals, and the wider sympathies and knowledge of men which are the fruits of 'sound learning' would do more. Both of these might most fitly be supplied by the Church of England. It must not, however, be supposed that 'other denominations' have not furnished men of large views and cultivated intellects. The American Board of Missions at Boston have sent many of this class; and of those who now represent the London Missionary Society we have already alluded to Mr. Macfarlane, who has given valuable help towards exploration in New Guinea; Mr. Gill, whose work on the Myths and Songs of the Pacific, which we noticed in a recent number of this 'Review,' shows him to be a man of culture and observation; and Mr. Whitmee, who has encountered Mr. Wallace, *haud impar congressus*, on the Ethnology of Polynesia.

The services of such men are especially needed now, for in many of the islands the continued existence of the race depends, pro-

* The total amount contributed in 1869 by the Friendly Islanders amounted to 5689*l.* 6*s.* 2*d.*, or, in excess of the expenses of the mission, upwards of 3000*l.*—'Two Years in Fiji,' p. 262.

bably, on the treatment they receive from Europeans, and on the introduction of sound hygienic practices. We doubt there being any 'mysterious law' by which they must necessarily dwindle away before a civilised race. Such 'necessity' may exist in a temperate climate where the natives, unable to adapt themselves to new conditions, fail in the battle of life, and are crowded out, like weeds from cultivated ground, by an increasing European immigration; but this does not apply to the greater part of the regions in question. The law, however, by which drink and gunpowder and debauchery act in diminishing the people is far from 'mysterious.' Dr. Foley says that 'les trois poisons' employed against the natives are 'les Jésuites, la Bible et l'opium.' Of these agents the exterminating action is more mysterious. When a man writes in this way we are disposed to rate his judgment on a par with his good taste, and this writer is somewhat apt, besides, to be picturesque when he should be matter-of-fact, and epigrammatic when he should be logical. That the Polynesians were declining before they ever came in contact with Europeans, is proved not only by their traditions, but by abundant traces of more extended occupation. But it is a mistake, though a common one, to suppose that they are still decreasing everywhere. The balance, no doubt, is against them, but in many islands the decline has been arrested, and in some, even where, as in Samoa, there is considerable foreign intercourse, the population is slightly on the increase. Their late attack, with breech-loaders and a *mitrailleuse*, upon a British force, suggests some curious reflections, but not any failing spirit in the race. A listless apathy, however, the sure precursor of decline, is not uncommon among the converts, and is attributed by Mr. Wood (no unfriendly critic) to the prohibition of their old national sports, and the frequent absence of all instruction in the useful arts of life. Much harm, too, has probably been done—to say nothing of violence to the picturesque—by the capricious adoption of unsuitable clothing. Common-sense, apparently, is the remedy wanted in these cases. The people are very sensitive to European diseases, such as influenza, measles, &c., when first introduced; but this sensitiveness, or the virulence of the diseases, may be modified with time.

Meanwhile, many serious causes of decline are gradually ceasing to operate. Cannibalism and human sacrifices have disappeared over a vast area, and war and infanticide are far less common. But many remediable evils remain; although the labour trade is under stringent regulation the mortality caused by it is still considerable, and we cannot estimate, any more than we can check, the losses from kidnapping by Peruvian and

and other foreign vessels, or from emigration, voluntary or otherwise, to the islands under French protection, where philanthropic ideas have not been highly developed, and the morality is in strict harmony with the *couleur locale*. The complaints made by the missionaries of the loss of their *protégés* from the latter cause are not so unreasonable as might be supposed. The people cannot as yet hold their own in dealing with Europeans, and if they are to prosper must be kept for a time in leading-strings. This fact must be recognised freely, whatever deductions we may choose to draw from it. As matters now stand, it is difficult to say which of the two classes of influence we have described will win the day. The collision between the races, if unregulated, is like that between the earthen and the iron vessel. But we believe that if their intercourse could be placed for a season under strict supervision, the softer race might become hardened, and its energies restored by the stimulating power of their new faith, and by a gradual adoption of civilised habits.

And yet in some of the islands where such influences have been long in operation, it would seem that the battle is being lost. This is notably the case in perhaps the most remarkable of all the groups, and to which the memory of Captain Cook lends a classic interest. The population of the Sandwich Islands, which a century ago was probably over a quarter of a million, is now under fifty thousand, and, what is worse, is diminishing by about one thousand yearly; and this under a fairly enlightened, though perhaps not sufficiently despotic government, and where the white population is friendly and sympathetic. The fact adds a terrible pathos to the charming pictures of life and scenery given us by Miss Bird, whose enthusiastic appreciation of natural beauty is happily matched by her brilliant powers of description. The pleasant, friendly, refined, and often gifted people, laughing away existence amid scenes of unimagined loveliness, seem unsubstantial as a dissolving view. The graceful wreaths of flowers, with which they are ever bedecking themselves, appear like an adornment for the tomb, while the solemn music of the everlasting surf sounds like a dirge over the departing race. Their political capacities are considerable, but they seem as if paralysed by contact with the European mind, and many useful provisions of their old laws have fallen into desuetude. An attempt is being made to extirpate leprosy, one of the chief scourges of the country, by deporting the victims to a separate island; but the utter recklessness of the people, and their gregarious ways, make it difficult to enforce any precautions. Although friendly and affectionate, and with a strong feeling for
their

their race, the women, from mere dislike to trouble, entirely neglect their children, and often give them away. Hence the mortality among them is hardly less than in the days of open infanticide, and any Government must be helpless in presence of such indifference. Their energies seem to be reserved for their amusements. They are fearless riders, and their devotion to riding as a pastime is curious, considering how short a time they have known it. They are equally at home in the roughest water, riding the surf on a plank being the national sport at all ages.

The whole group of islands has been the scene of volcanic action. At the western end of the chain, indeed, the action was submarine, and the islands are due to upheaval only; but in Hawaii eruptions and earthquakes of terrific violence have taken place within these very few years, and at the crater of Kilauea, 13,000 feet high, volcanic action may now be seen on a grander scale than anywhere else in the world. The ascent of the mountain is no small feat, especially for a lady; but it was successfully accomplished by Miss Bird, and her eloquent description of the scene has additional interest from its clearness and precision of detail. Nor do 'moving accidents by flood and field' lose anything by her treatment of them. When we read of a delicate Englishwoman, travelling for health, riding cavalier fashion over mountain precipices, scrambling from boulder to boulder in the raging torrent, or swept away by the rising flood, we hold our breath, and marvel at the restorative power of the Hawaiian climate—or the versatility of the feminine constitution. The authoress gives a curious account of the little island court, deferentially treated by the great powers of the earth, and yet only existing by the sufferance of the United States, and we heartily echo her wishes for the prosperity of this singular and amiable people.

The question arises, what is the duty of England towards these races, with whom the rapid increase of commerce and of emigration is bringing us yearly into closer contact? There are many, in Australia and elsewhere, who call on us, as the heirs of the anti-slavery crusaders, and the natural protectors of all the weaker races of the earth, to annex the whole of Polynesia, and to undertake the education of its inhabitants. To Australians, the prospect of this vast extension of their future Empire—to say nothing of their present markets—is naturally very attractive. The task might worthily occupy the energies of a great power; but to perform the task successfully that power must be supreme within the sphere of action. It would be unfair to infer from the recent appointment of a 'High Commissioner'

missioner' for the Pacific, that any more direct and exclusive protectorate is contemplated; but if such a policy were ever resolved on, the first step taken would probably be only a slight extension of the machinery of the Act. The subject of further annexation in the Pacific has lately been much discussed in connection with New Guinea. Recent discoveries in the island, followed by rumours of its probable occupation by some foreign power, caused great excitement in Australia. There was a general demand for annexation, and petitions to this effect were forwarded by the different Colonial Governments. People seemed to become suddenly aware that a vast territory, presumably of boundless resources, lay within eighty miles of their coasts. Now the Australian is a man of large ideas. No Highland laird was ever more jealous of possible encroachment on his marches, or more anxious to extend them. In England we are satisfied to claim jurisdiction for three miles beyond our coasts; in Queensland they extend it to sixty. They still resent the intrusion of the French in New Caledonia, and it was they chiefly who urged the incorporation of the even more distant Fiji. The feeling seems instinctive, and in one sense, at least, natural, for the establishment of other powers as neighbours would alter the conditions of her political existence, and political existence, for Australia, has hitherto meant prosperity. The arguments for the annexation of New Guinea are by no means to be dismissed lightly. It is urged that things cannot remain as they are, now that the country is becoming known. Adventurers from Australia and elsewhere will certainly establish themselves there; disputes with the natives will follow, and we shall eventually have to interfere, as in Fiji, amid complications of land, and other questions, which we might avoid by holding the country from the beginning. The expense of annexation, it is argued, would not equal the outlay needed for the defence of Australia if New Guinea were in the occupation of a foreign power. It is assumed that if we do not annex it some other power will do so, whose possession of the northern shores of Torres Straits would imperil the great and increasing traffic by that route between Australia and India; and the late diminution of our influence in the Malacca Straits by the abandonment of our protectorate of Acheen makes it the more desirable that we should command the other part of the route. The pearl-shell fishery, now an important branch of trade, and the trepang, or *bêche de mer*, fisheries extend from the Australian waters along the banks which line the southern coast of New Guinea, and unpleasant complications, such as those we are familiar with in Newfoundland, may arise if these fisheries fall

fall into the hands of another power. It is also urged that every additional holding in these seas gives us an increased control over the labour traffic.

We must not be held to undervalue any of these arguments if we say that expectations have perhaps been unduly raised by a certain want of sobriety and caution in recent accounts of the resources of the country, and in the conclusions drawn therefrom. Even Captain Moresby's very attractive volume has something to answer for in this respect. While sympathising with the lofty view he takes of the responsibilities of this country in his eloquent plea for annexation, we are bound to say that he does not give sufficient weight to the practical difficulties in the way. He does not ignore the difficulties and hardships encountered on his cruise, and which were so gallantly shared by officers and men,* but all is, unconsciously, softened down by the very sanguine spirit of the writer. We must not forget that his uniformly pleasant intercourse with the natives of the eastern part of New Guinea has not always been experienced by others. His actual knowledge of its resources, again, is limited and superficial, and hardly warrants his confident assertion that all the elements of successful colonisation are to be found there. The hero of Locksley Hall might have found a congenial retreat amid the gorgeous beauties of nature so eloquently described, but we are slow to believe that islands ten degrees from the equator could in any true sense 'become English homes.' Many of these, besides, are already inhabited and carefully cultivated, perhaps to their available limit—and this seems to be the case also, as far as is known, throughout the Eastern peninsula, the only part which it has been seriously proposed to occupy. The natives of the numerous villages will certainly not part with the lands which they use, and the forest, which is exceptionally dense, would have to be cleared by imported labour. We may dismiss the notion that European labour would be possible in such a climate, and we have no reason to suppose that the natives would be induced to work, even if, which is unlikely, they refrained from molesting a new-comer. It is not probable either, that they have much surplus produce to dispose of, or that they could be easily persuaded to cultivate any particular staple with a view to foreign trade. The planter, then, would find greater obstacles to success here than in parts of Queensland or in Fiji, or in many of the smaller Pacific islands, while the question of transport for his produce would be

* Seven hundred tons of firewood were cut down and brought on board during the eight months' cruise.

more serious still. Though geographically a seeming appendage to Australia, and on the highway of traffic thence to India and to China, the south-eastern part of New Guinea is, for commercial purposes, singularly isolated. For more than half the year the S.E. trade-wind renders it difficult for sailing-vessels leaving the Gulf of Papua to make the ports of Eastern Australia, and in the height of that monsoon even a steamer cannot always make its way eastward through Torres Straits against wind and current combined; and during the rest of the year it is hardly less difficult to beat through the Straits against the N.W. monsoon.* The distances from the south-east coast of New Guinea to the nearest British port available for coaling or provisioning are considerable—Brisbane being not less than 1000 miles off, and Singapore or Hong Kong three times as far—but there would be no very serious difficulty in establishing a coaling or wooding station in a secure harbour of the fine district lately visited by Mr. Macfarlane. If such a post were chosen with judgment, it might become valuable not only as a port of call, but also as the *entrepôt* of a well-regulated trade with the surrounding districts; and a gradual increase of friendly relations with the people might pave the way to a further advance, if that should become advisable. Mr. Macfarlane, while dilating on the attractions of the country, earnestly deprecates immigration as premature. But though any attempt of the kind would probably end in failure, it is by no means improbable that such an attempt may be made, either in the form of a rush of diggers ‘prospecting’ for gold, or in the more ambitious form of the ‘New Guinea Colonising Association.’ The prospectus of this Company is a curiosity, and its scheme somewhat startling. It is proposed to send out a party of some two hundred and fifty armed men to form a settlement. They are to be under military discipline, with chaplains and doctors, and the self-elected officers will, it is hoped, be appointed by her Majesty as ‘Justices of the Peace for the island of New Guinea.’ There is to be Divine service on Sunday, by which, and by the abstinence from work on that day, it is expected that the natives will be much impressed. The money required to maintain the scheme till it becomes self-supporting is to be raised by debentures on the land, failing which there remain always the ‘utensils of gold’ described by

* But for this, and for the great difficulty of access through the reefs and islands to the eastward, New Guinea could hardly have remained so long a *terra incognita*; and to these causes may be added, first, the exclusiveness of the Dutch, who for so long suppressed all intercourse with places to the east of the Moluccas, and, secondly, the fact that the stream of enterprise has latterly been attracted to the more temperate regions to the southward.

the promoter (Lieut. R. H. Armit, R.N.) as in use among the natives, but which other travellers have somehow not observed. They are to negotiate with the natives for the sale of land, which if they will grant, so— The alternative is obvious, and suggested to the Aborigines Protection Society an application to the Colonial Office, where they were assured that if any acts of violence were committed, the strong arm of the High Commissioner of the Pacific was competent to deal even with the justices of the peace, and the chaplains, and the doctors. The Association, which had been scheming to commit the Colonial Office to a support of this thinly veiled piece of filibustering, will therefore do well to proceed with caution. It is quite possible that a large body of men, well disciplined and ably led, and backed by plenty of money, might establish themselves on the island with very important results. But any such proceeding, however well-devised, would obviously be premature until the interior has in some measure been explored, and we hope this may be undertaken before long by a responsible expedition. The unfinished survey of the coast, too, could not be put into better hands than those of Captain Moresby, aided by a scientific staff, and with a well-found ship. If the present friendly relations with the natives can be maintained, many of the difficulties of former days may be averted, and it will be little to our credit if they are not averted.

In all this we seem to assume that there will be no intrusion on the part of any foreign power. This contingency is, we think, much less imminent than has been supposed. But there is one thing we should certainly resist, viz., the formation of any more foreign convict establishments, even as near as New Caledonia. The occupation by a foreign power of any point on the southern coast opposite to Australia would, after the recent discussion of the subject, have the appearance of a menace, and we could hardly permit it. The passage of Torres Straits, however, would be secured by our holding the Prince of Wales Islands, and the opposite coast commanded by the occupation of one or two of the islands adjacent. It is difficult to see how a foreign station on the north coast could appreciably affect the interests of Australia; but it is always wise to consider such a question from the sentimental as well as from the material side, and the occupation of the eastern half of New Guinea by a foreign power would cause not only serious and, we must admit, natural disappointment, but also ill-will towards England among a large party in Australia. Their views, however, are by no means bounded by New Guinea. *Crescit amor terræ quantum ipsa Australia crescit*; and their 'Australian dominion' would

Vol. 144.—No. 287. include

include at least the whole series of great island groups extending eastwards from New Guinea as far as Fiji. We should be more inclined to sympathise with this spirit if it were accompanied by a willingness to share the burthens involved in such a policy; but when it was suggested at the time of the annexation of Fiji that, as a general principle, a colony ought to contribute towards the cost of any measure passed solely or mainly for its own benefit, or at its own request, the principle was repudiated by the Australian authorities, on the ground that they would have no control over the expenditure. But it is obvious that such control must practically lie with the central power; and the reasonableness of the suggestion, as well as the considerate and courteous tone in which it was made by Lord Carnarvon, has since been admitted by the leading Australian papers.

With regard to New Guinea, it is clearly desirable not to precipitate matters, but to leave them *in statu quo* as long as possible; to encourage scientific exploration, and to repress filibustering; to avoid for the present the responsibilities of a formal annexation, but to enter a *caveat* against annexation by any other power. It has been argued that we ought to take possession of the island, because by no other power would the interests of the people be so carefully studied. We believe that in no other country would the sentiment of responsibility be stronger, but it is doubtful whether, in the management of such races, we have not something to learn from the Dutch. The traveller visiting Java from India is often struck by the superior cleanliness and order of the villages, and the more skilful cultivation. Of course there are no inconvenient questions about liberty, or any affectation of equality between the European and the native. In some of the smaller islands the system, while still 'paternal,' seems more philanthropic and disinterested. Opinions will differ on the question, whether the compulsory education of a savage race by the introduction of law and order, and the discipline of forced labour, could ever be justifiably undertaken. Many persons will answer that such a system is repugnant to the genius of Englishmen. We are not concerned to speculate on the matter. No such responsibility should ever be lightly undertaken, but in the not improbable case of its being forced upon us, we should certainly stand condemned if, with all our own accumulated experience, and that of other nations, to guide us, and with our unequalled command of material resources, of political skill,—and of good intentions, we failed to solve the problem.