

*ANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE
HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 139*

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DISCOVERIES AND ACQUISITIONS
IN THE PACIFIC

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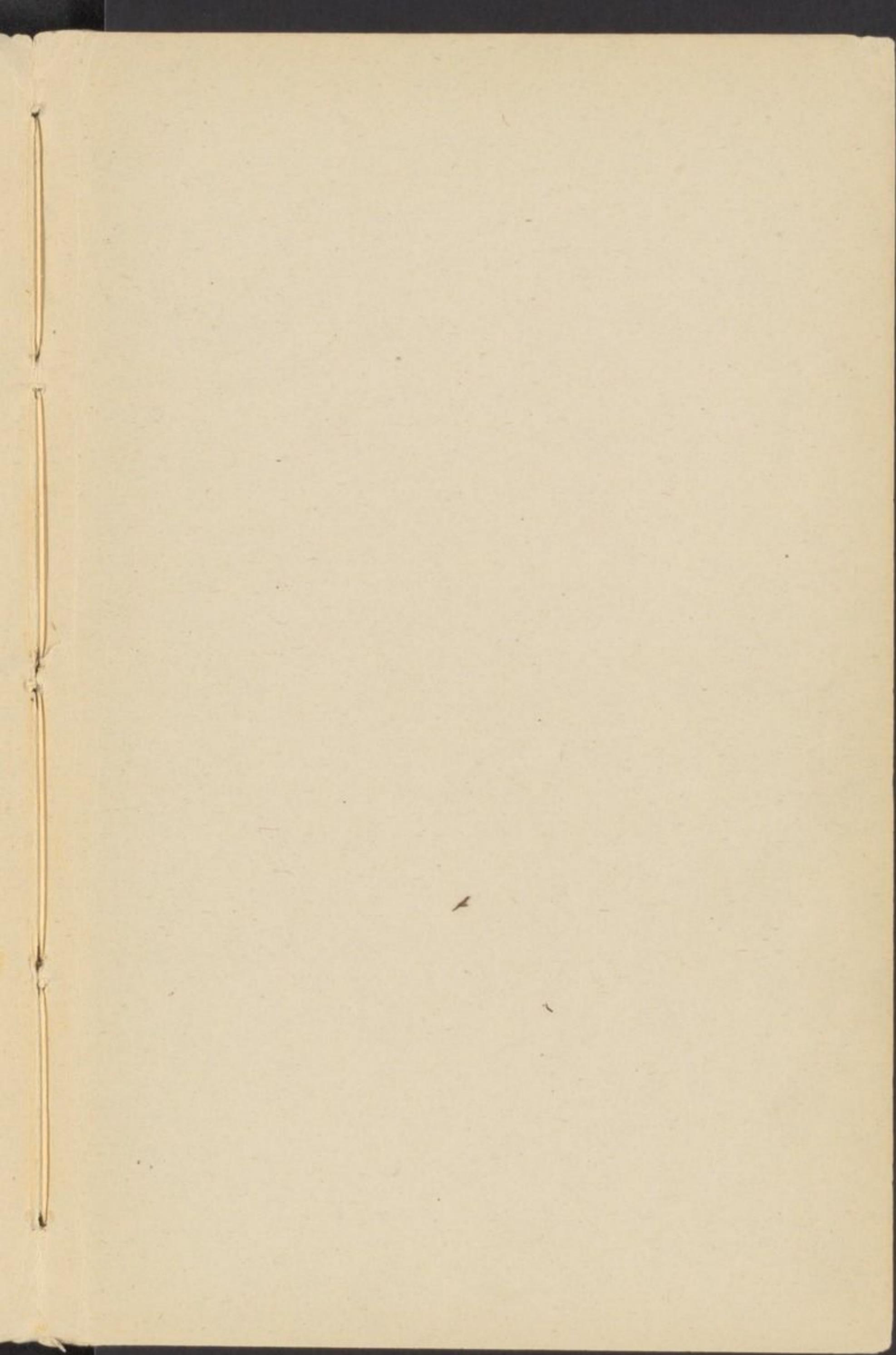


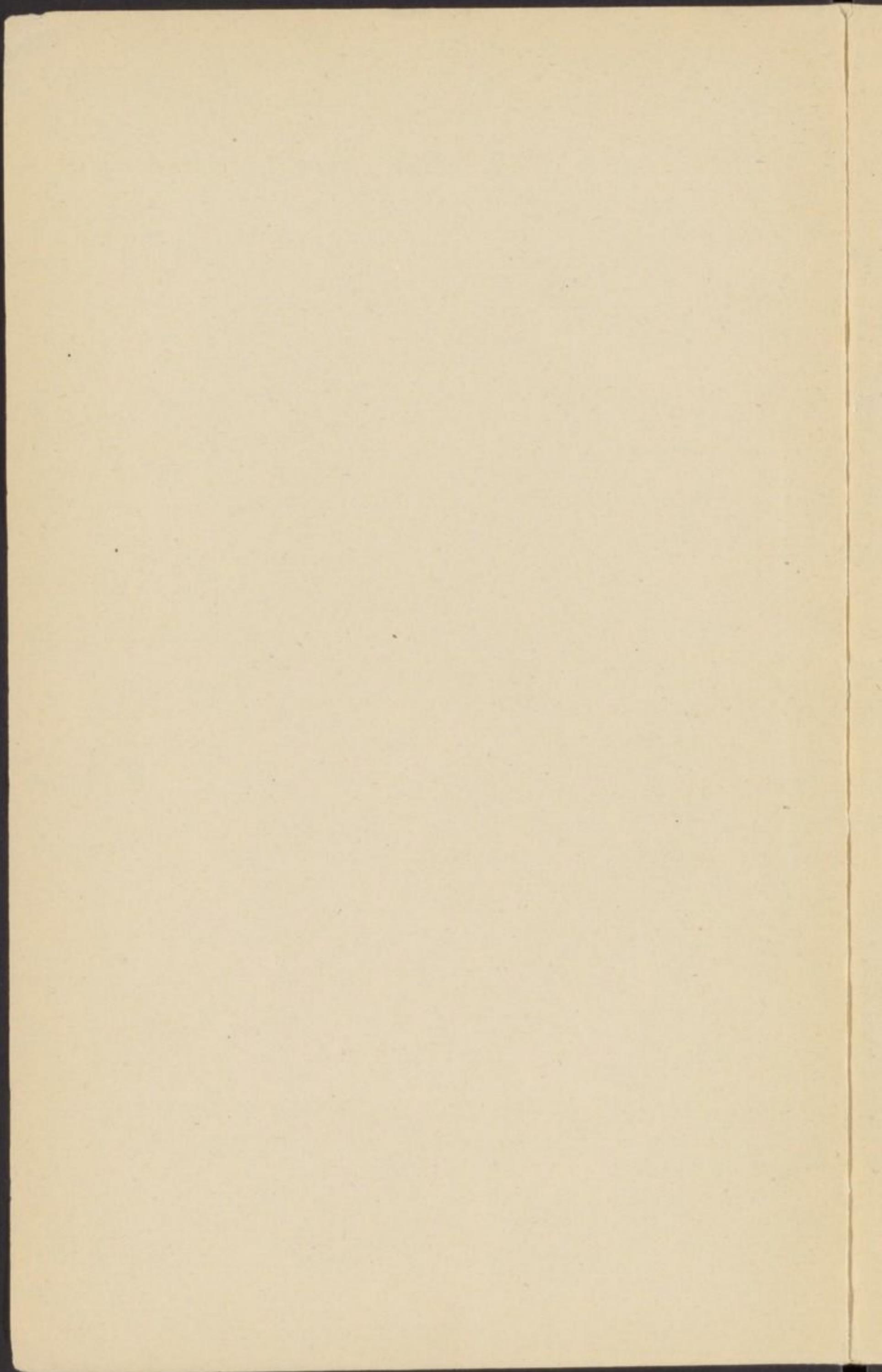
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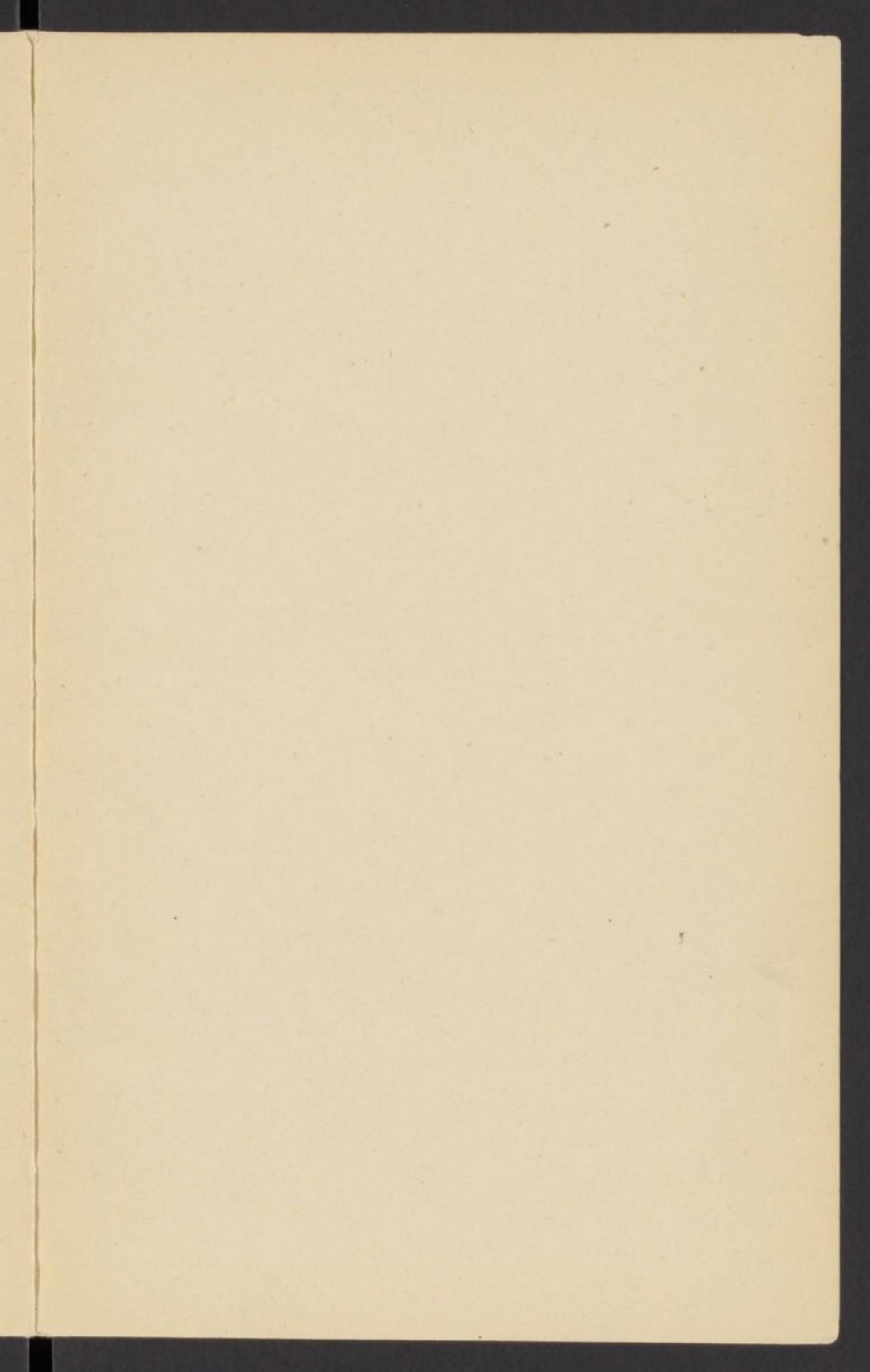


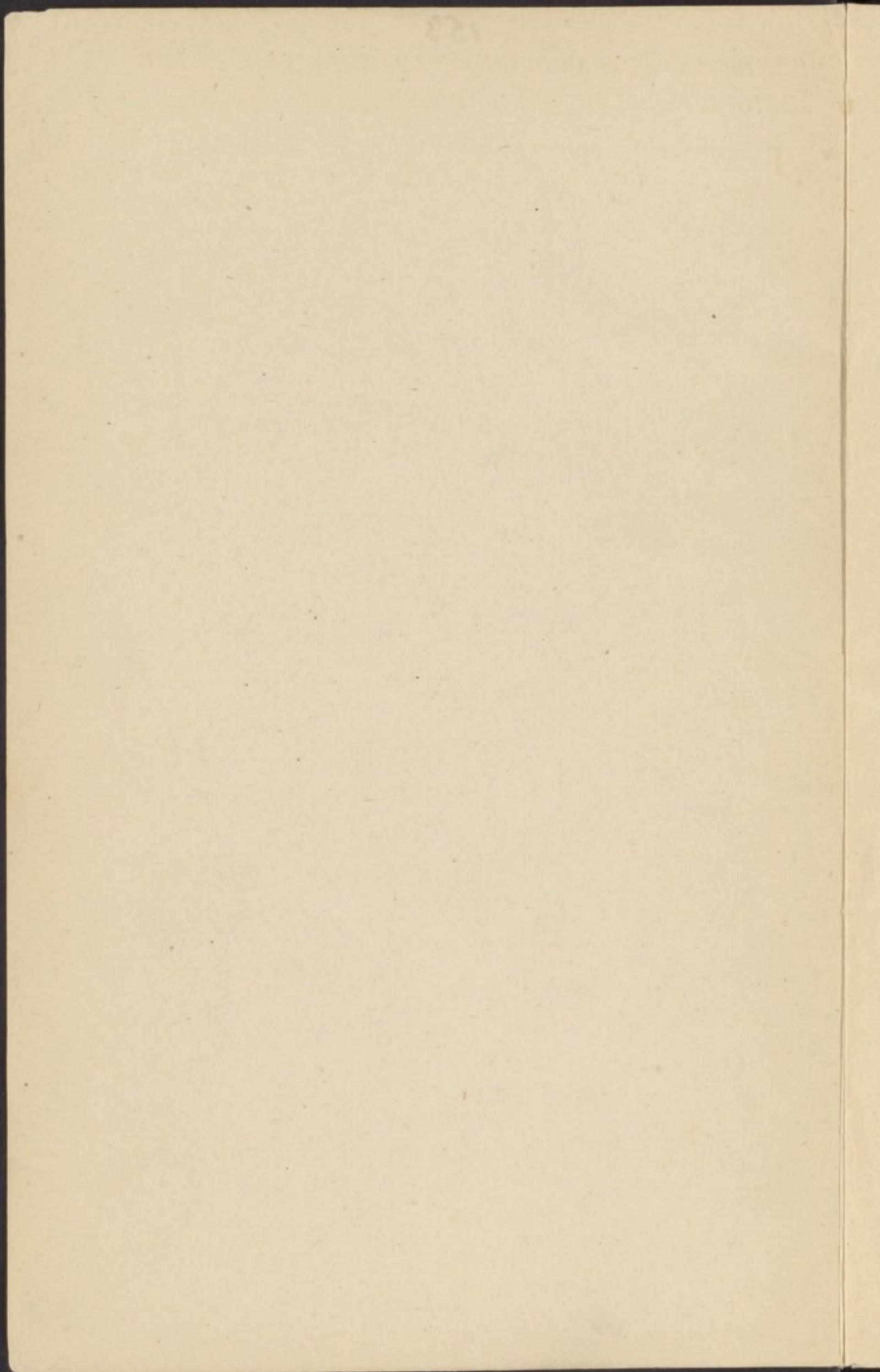
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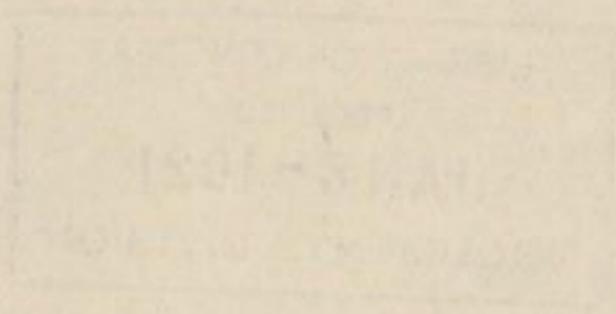
HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE
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Abstract

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DISCOVERIES AND ACQUISITIONS
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EDITORIAL NOTE

IN the spring of 1917 the Foreign Office, in connexion with the preparation which they were making for the work of the Peace Conference, established a special section whose duty it should be to provide the British Delegates to the Peace Conference with information in the most convenient form—geographical, economic, historical, social, religious, and political—respecting the different countries, districts, islands, &c., with which they might have to deal. In addition, volumes were prepared on certain general subjects, mostly of an historical nature, concerning which it appeared that a special study would be useful.

The historical information was compiled by trained writers on historical subjects, who (in most cases) gave their services without any remuneration. For the geographical sections valuable assistance was given by the Intelligence Division (Naval Staff) of the Admiralty; and for the economic sections, by the War Trade Intelligence Department, which had been established by the Foreign Office. Of the maps accompanying the series, some were prepared by the above-mentioned department of the Admiralty, but the bulk of them were the work of the Geographical Section of the General Staff (Military Intelligence Division) of the War Office.

Now that the Conference has nearly completed its task, the Foreign Office, in response to numerous inquiries and requests, has decided to issue the books for public use, believing that they will be useful to students of history, politics, economics, and foreign affairs, to publicists generally and to business men and travellers. It is hardly necessary to say that some of the subjects dealt with in the series have not in fact come under discussion at the Peace Conference; but, as the books treating of them contain valuable information, it has been thought advisable to include them.

It must be understood that, although the series of volumes was prepared under the authority, and is now issued with the sanction, of the Foreign Office, that Office is not to be regarded as guaranteeing the accuracy of every statement which they contain or as identifying itself with all the opinions expressed in the several volumes ; the books were not prepared in the Foreign Office itself, but are in the nature of information provided for the Foreign Office and the British Delegation.

The books are now published, with a few exceptions, substantially as they were issued for the use of the Delegates. No attempt has been made to bring them up to date, for, in the first place, such a process would have entailed a great loss of time and a prohibitive expense ; and, in the second, the political and other conditions of a great part of Europe and of the Nearer and Middle East are still unsettled and in such a state of flux that any attempt to describe them would have been incorrect or misleading. The books are therefore to be taken as describing, in general, *ante-bellum* conditions, though in a few cases, where it seemed specially desirable, the account has been brought down to a later date.

G. W. PROTHERO,

*General Editor and formerly
Director of the Historical Section.*

January 1920.

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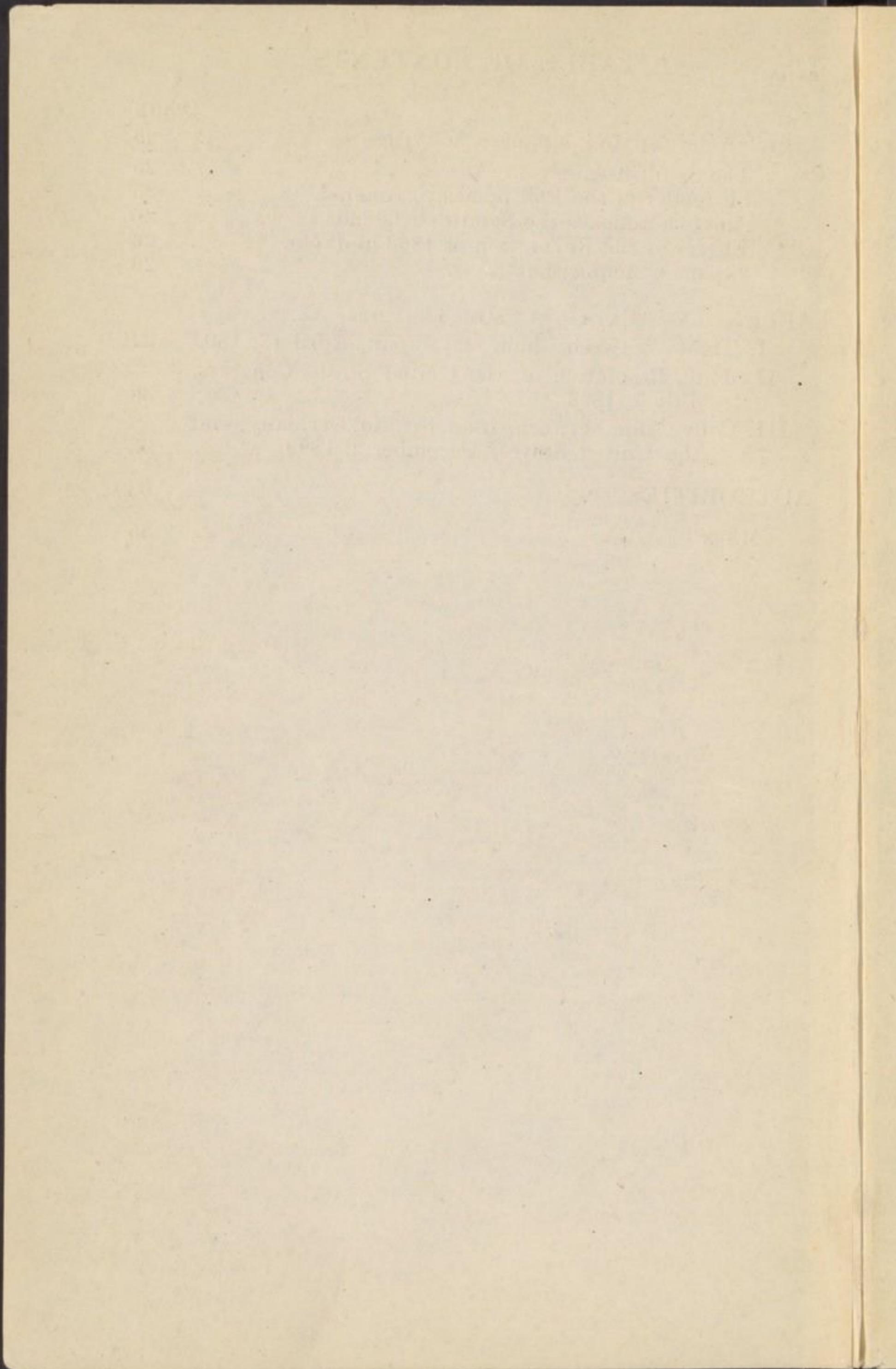
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DISCOVERIES AND ACQUISITIONS IN THE PACIFIC

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

1513. Balboa crosses the Isthmus of Darien and first sees the Pacific.
- 1519-21. Spanish Conquest of Mexico.
- 1520-21. Magellan crosses the Pacific.
- 1525-27. Francisco Pizarro explores part of the Pacific Coast of South America.
1526. Alvaro de Saavedra's Voyage to the Moluccas, Carolines, and Papua.
Jorge de Menezes discovers Papua.
1528. Garcia de Loaysa's Expedition to the Philippines and Pacific Coast of Mexico. First 'circumnavigation' of South America.
- 1531-32. Conquest of Peru.
1535. Spanish attack on Chile.
1536. Appearance of North-West Australia in Dieppe Maps.
- 1537-42. Further exploration of the Pacific Coast of South America.
Discovery of Lower California. Exploration of the Pacific Coast of North America as far as San Francisco.
- 1542-45. Ruy López de Villalobos and Juan Gaetano sight the Caroline and Hawaiian Islands.
1555. Gaetano revisits the Hawaiian Islands.
- 1564-65. Foundation of first Spanish Colony in the Philippines by Miguel López de Legaspi.
1565. Andres de Urdañeta crosses Pacific from Asia to America.
1567. Alvaro de Mendaña de Neyra discovers the Ellice and Lord Howe Islands, and the Solomon Archipelago (Ysabel Island, San Christoval, and Guadalcanar, &c.)
- 1577-80. Drake in the Pacific; claim to annex Northern California. Beginnings of English exploration in Pacific.
1580. Pedro Sarmiento's Expedition.
- 1586-88. Cavendish in the Pacific.
1595. Mendaña's Second Pacific Expedition; he discovers the Marquesas and New Hebrides; Queiros rediscovers the Caroline Islands.

- 1598-1601. Oliver van Noort. Beginnings of Dutch exploration in the Pacific.
 Dirck Gerritsz reaches 64° south.
- 1605-6. Queiros and Vaez de Torres sail from Peru, and explore certain atolls of the Low Archipelago, and the New Hebrides.
1607. Torres makes his way to the East Indies through Torres Straits.
- 1605-6. Saris
1616. Dirck Hartog
1619. Edel and Houtman
- 1622-27. Other Dutch explorers
- } explore north-western, western,
 and south-western shores of
 'New Holland' (Australia).
- 1614-17. Joris van Speilbergen in the Pacific.
- 1615-17. Voyage of Lemaire and Schouten : Discovery of Cape Horn Route.
- 1639 (*circa*). { Russian explorers reach Sea of Okhotsk.
 Tasman explores North Western Pacific.
- 1642-43. Tasman discovers Tasmania and New Zealand (West Coast), Tonga, Fiji, New Britain, New Ireland, &c.
 Australia proved to be an island.
1644. Tasman's Voyage in Gulf of Carpentaria.
- 1648-49. Russian Discovery of Bering Straits (Simon Dejnev).
- 1650-1700, &c. Russians open up Kamtchatka.
- 1690-1705. Dampier's visits to Australia and New Guinea.
1700. Dampier rediscovers New Britain and New Ireland.
- 1721-22. Roggeveen in the Pacific.
1728. Bering's rediscovery of Bering Straits.
1741. Bering explores coast of Alaska.
1763. Peace of Paris. Destruction of the older French Colonial Empire. Predominance of Britain in the Colonial field.
- 1764-66. Byron's Voyage.
1767. Wallis's Voyage.
1768. Bougainville's Voyage.
- 1768-79. Cook's Voyages { 1st, 1768-71.
 2nd, 1772-75.
 3rd, 1776-79.
- 1785-88. La Pérouse's Voyages.
1787. First British Settlement in Australia.
 Foundation of Sydney (Port Jackson).
- 1792-93. D'Entrecasteaux's Voyage.
1797. London Missionary Society establishes stations in Tahiti and Tongatábu.
1799. Russia in the Alaskan islands. Foundation of Russian-American Fur Company.

1802. Foundation of New Archangel at Sitka.
1803. Colony started in Tasmania.
1803-6. Krusenstern's Voyage.
1807-12. Attempted Russian Settlement in California.
1815-18. } Kotzebue's Voyages.
1823-26. }
1819-21. Bellingshausen's Voyage.
1821. Furthest advance of Russian Claims on the Pacific Coast
of North America.
1824-25. Conventions limiting Russian Claims.
1825. First Settlement in New Zealand.
1825-27. Colonization of West Australia started.
1826-28. Lütke's Voyage.
1835. Melbourne (Port Philip) founded.
British Missionaries go to the Fiji Islands.
1835-37. Colonization of South Australia started.
1840. British Sovereignty in New Zealand proclaimed.
1842-44. French Protectorate over the Society and Marquesas
Islands (Tabiti, &c.) and elsewhere.
1853. France takes possession of New Caledonia.
1868. The Japanese Revolution.
1868-80. Operations of the Hamburg firm of Godeffroy in
Samoa.
1872. German Government vessels visit the Fiji Islands.
1874. Britain annexes the Fiji Islands.
1880. Bankruptcy of the Godeffroy firm.
Rejection of Bismarck's Samoa Subsidy Bill by the
German Reichstag.
1883. Lord Derby repudiates the action of the Queensland
Government in Papua.
1884. Bismarck adopts a definite Colonial Policy in the Pacific.
The Steamship Subsidy Bill opposed in the Reichstag.
German annexation of New Britain, New Ireland, and the
North-East Coast of New Guinea.
Britain declares Protectorate over South-East New
Guinea.
1894. Republic set up in Hawaii.
1895. Treaty of Shimonoseki. Japan acquires Formosa and
the Pescadores.
1898. War declared between Spain and U.S.A.
Philippines and Guahán ceded to U.S.A.
U.S.A. annexes the Hawaiian (Sandwich) Islands.
1899. Remaining Spanish Possessions in the Pacific sold to
Germany.
Germany acquires Samoa.
1905. Japanese acquisitions on the East Asiatic Coast.

I. THE GREAT AGE OF EXPLORATION (TO ABOUT 1648)

§ i. *Earliest Explorers*

THIS period commences with Núñez de Balboa's arrival on the Pacific coast of the Isthmus of Darien in 1513. It includes all the pioneer work which made clear the chief facts about this ocean and its shores (except in the extreme south and in certain island groups, some of which were, however, of great importance); and it ends with that pause in the history of exploration about the middle of the seventeenth century which curiously corresponds to the pause in General European history, marked by the end of the Thirty Years' War. In this period there was abundance of discovery, but hardly any settlement, away from the coasts of the main land-masses of America and Asia which border the Pacific. Not even the great island-continent of Australia was yet touched by European or other civilized colonization; and many of the earliest discoveries, being kept as far as possible close national secrets, tended to become obscure, and in some cases to be actually forgotten, even by the fellow-countrymen of the original discoverers.

The China Sea, that westernmost compartment of the Pacific, more or less enclosed by fringing islands and islets, was entered and navigated (along the shores of the Celestial Empire) by the Polos and other European agents of overland expansion in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. But the Pacific, as we understand it, was first disclosed to Europe by Vasco Nuñez de Balboa, the Spanish conquistador, when, twenty-one years after the discovery of the New World, he forced his way across the slender but mountainous isthmus separating the 'Great South Sea' from the Atlantic.

Columbus, before the end of his life (perhaps by 1505), had become convinced that the lands he had found were not (as he had formerly believed) parts of Asia, or an East Asian Archipelago, but new-found regions

between which and Eastern Asia there lay, in all probability, another sea. The truth of this suspicion was proved by Balboa.

§ ii. *Magellan and his Successors*

This new *Mar del Sur* or Sea of the South, was first explored and traversed, neither by Colon nor by Balboa, but by Ferdinand Magellan (Fernão de Magalhães), the chief, except Columbus, of all explorers (1519–22).¹ Like Columbus he was by origin a stranger in Spain, though one of the greatest of Spanish Empire-builders; like Queiros, after him, Magellan was 'a Portugal in all save loyalty'. Discovering in Magellan's Straits (the 'Straits of the Eleven Thousand Virgins') that south-west passage from the Atlantic to the waters beyond, which Spanish enterprise had already for some time been seeking, and entering the South Sea on November 28, 1520, he crossed the ocean, which he named the Pacific, 'for during this time we met with no storm'²—a journey of full 4,000 leagues, accomplished in three months and twenty days. His course was from the far south-east, almost 53° S. lat. (at the western outlet of Magellan's Straits), to the tropical north-west where he struck the Ladrões and Philippines between 10° and 20° N. In this first crossing of the sea, 'beyond reach of man's mind for vastness', no land was discovered, except two uninhabited islets. The course must have been close to several of the famous Pacific groups, but none were sighted; or, if so, no account was allowed to appear.

Pizarro, Saavedra, Loaysa

Meanwhile the Spanish conquest of Mexico (1519–21) gave to Europe a new and extensive seaboard on

¹ The first circumnavigator was J. Sebastian del Cano, one of Magellan's captains, who, after Magellan's death, brought one of his ships, the *Vitoria*, back to Seville.

² According to other authorities the name 'Pacific' was applied to the Ocean in consequence of the account of it given to Balboa by the son of the Chief of Camogre, who described it as singularly free from storms.

the Pacific ; and from this base much of the subsequent Spanish exploration was planned and conducted. In 1525–27 the Pacific coast of South America was explored for a considerable distance to the south of the Darien Isthmus by Francisco Pizarro—in preparation for the subsequent attempt at conquest which resulted in the subjugation of Peru (1531–32). Four years after the reappearance at Seville of Magellan's *Vitoria*, the first ship which 'had girdled earth in one continuous round', fresh Pacific explorations were organized by Hernando Cortez, the conqueror of Mexico. Alvaro de Saavedra was sent in 1526 from Mexico to the Moluccas. To some extent he 'followed Magellan's track'. He discovered the Carolines and a part of the coast of New Guinea, another section of which had been already found in the same year by the Portuguese, Jorge de Menezes, who perhaps named it New Guinea.¹

The unlucky but important expedition of Garcia de Loaysa two years later, was expressly ordered by the Emperor-King whom we call Charles V (but who was Charles I of Spain, and who in this was acting as King of Spain) to pursue the course of its predecessor. Loaysa made his way from the Atlantic to the Pacific by Magellan's Straits. His fleet was then dispersed by storms ; but one of the vessels reached the Pacific coast of Mexico, another the Philippines ; thus the first 'circumnavigation' of South America was made (1528).

The Spanish attack on Chile in 1535, though as an attempt at further colonial expansion from the Peruvian base it was unsuccessful, extended Spanish (and European) knowledge of the American Pacific coast a long way farther south ; and continual steady advance was made in this field in the next few years (1537–42).

¹ To say nothing of the possibility of an earlier Portuguese discovery, by Antonio d'Abreu in 1511. The name of New Guinea is often thought to have been given by Ortiz de Roda, or de Retez, in 1546.

§ iii. *First Records of Australia*

But now we get the first certain glimpse of Australia. It was about 1536 that the north-western corner of that continent began to appear in French maps of the Dieppe school of Cartography under the name of Great Java (*Java la Grande*). The earliest discovery of the *Terra Australis* was not necessarily French; the Portuguese are perhaps even more plausible claimants. The Dieppe map-makers of the fourth decade of the sixteenth century were among the foremost exponents of new geographical knowledge at this time, and recorded Spanish and Portuguese results more extensively than any other. France had only just begun (from about 1520) to take an active part in the new oceanic expansion of Europe. But this matter cannot at present be decided, and in any case it may be excluded from any intimate part in Pacific exploration and history.

§ iv. *Further Spanish Exploration*

Between 1537 and 1542 Lower California was discovered; the western coast of South America was again surveyed, and more carefully examined, in two expeditions; and the Pacific seaboard of North America was explored as far as San Francisco and some way beyond (to 44° N.) by a series of energetic ventures, all due to Spanish initiative.

It was also perhaps in 1542-45 that the Spanish sea-captain Ruy López de Villalobos and his pilot, Juan Gaetano, sighted the Carolines and some of the Hawaiian Islands, to which Gaetano apparently returned in 1555. This leading island-group of the North Pacific was probably visited in later times by Gaetano's countrymen; and the Spanish Government at home and its lieutenants in America may have been acquainted with the 'Sandwich' archipelago centuries before Cook. But the secret, if such there was, was kept (with unusual success) by Spanish seamen and officials, and until Cook's day the world, as a whole, did not share in this knowledge.

From about 1555 we come to a time of marked advance and valuable results in Pacific exploration, and to the earliest attempts at settlement in the island groups. This, like all that had preceded east of Australia, was the work of Spanish pioneers. First, as noticed above, Juan Gaetano more fully discovered the Hawaiian Islands, which he named *Islas de Mesa*, in 1555. Next, in 1564-65, Miguel López de Legaspi, crossing from America, founded the first Spanish colony in the Philippines. Again, in 1565, a Spanish Franciscan friar, Andres de Urdañeta, first traversed the Pacific from Asia to America. He sailed from the Philippines, by way of Japan, to Mexico. This was apparently the earliest European opening of this valuable route; and it proved the beginning of a regular, though slender, traffic from Eastern Asia (including the East Indies) to Spanish America, answering to that already established in the reverse direction. Lastly, in 1567, Alvaro de Mendaña de Neyra discovered portions of several island-groups in the tropical Pacific (the Ellice Islands, the Lord Howe Islands, and others, and he even explored some of the chief islands of the Solomon Archipelago (e. g. Ysabel Island, San Christoval, and Guadalcanar).¹ He wished to plant a permanent settlement in the Solomons (which might have led, if it could have survived, to a Spanish discovery and colonization of Queensland); but he could not carry his followers with him.

§ v. *British Explorations*

So far, all Pacific exploration had been Spanish. England entered the Pacific field with Drake (1577-80), and revisited it with Cavendish (1586-88); but neither of these famous circumnavigators really added new ground to what Spanish mariners and conquerors had already opened up. Drake, however, considered him-

¹ Mendaña, or at least popular Spanish opinion, wished to suggest boundless wealth for his chief discovery; hence the name *Solomon*.

self the first explorer of what we know as Northern California; he proclaimed an English annexation of that country, and founded the first English claims in that part of America. But all his ground in this region had already been surveyed by his Spanish predecessors. It was far more important that his expedition ascertained that Tierra del Fuego was no part of a vast continent, but a small archipelago of islands, south of which 'the Atlantic and the South Sea meet in a most large and free scope'. The same fact was clearly recognized by the Spanish Governments of Peru and Mexico; Pedro Sarmiento's expedition brought further assurance on this point in 1580. But no rounding of Cape Horn was yet accomplished.

§ vi. *Dutch Explorations*

Holland, the new 'Dutch Republic', made its first Pacific appearance with the circumnavigator Oliver van Noort (1598-1601). At the same time the Hollander Dirck Gerritsz, after passing through Magellan's Straits, was driven by storm into high Antarctic latitudes, reaching 64° south, and seeing portions of Antarctica. Gerritsz thus reached slightly beyond Cook's farthest south.

It is worth notice, perhaps, that the straits separating Australia from New Guinea, which we call after Torres, are marked upon Abraham Ortelius' (Flemish) *Orbis Terrarum* of 1589, eighteen years before Torres passed through them. With Ortelius Dutch cartography came to the front, as in his lifetime Netherland exploration and colonial expansion became prominent.

§ vii. *Mendaña, Queiros, and Torres*

Mendaña (cf. § iv) endeavoured to return to the Solomon Islands with a larger force, properly provided, in order to colonize them. He had failed to discover, as he had hoped, a rich continent at no impracticable distance from Peru; but he rightly believed his new-found lands to be the outposts of the Austral

Continent; only, like others, he magnified that Australia far beyond the truth. Mendaña obtained his colonizing licences in 1574; but a series of unlucky chances delayed his second Pacific venture until 1595. On this disastrous expedition he discovered the Marquesas and missed the Solomons, but found the Santa Cruz group, where he tried to establish his colony. Within two months he died here; and the settlement was abandoned. His chief pilot, Pedro Fernandes de Queiros (by origin a Portuguese, like Magellan), set out with the remnant of the expedition for the Philippines (where Manila had already made a beginning), seeking in vain for the Solomons on the way, but succeeding in rediscovering some of the Carolines.

Queiros convinced Philip II of the probability of a great southern land screened by the islands found by Mendaña and himself, and lying not far behind them. Of this Australian conception Mendaña and he were perhaps the first clear exponents. In 1605 he sailed from Peru with Luis Vaez de Torres as his chief pilot. He discovered a number of the islands of the Low Archipelago, east of Tahiti; he has been credited, but wrongly, with the earliest European landfall at Tahiti itself (supposed to answer to Queiros' *Sagittaria*); and he made important discoveries in the New Hebrides, especially the islands of Espiritu Santo, Aurora, and Pentecost. This *Australia del Espiritu Santo* he believed to be the southern continent of his theories (1606). Queiros' pilot, Torres, struck off to the west, coasted along the south of the Louisiade group and the south of New Guinea, threaded the straits now named after him between New Guinea and Australia, saw a little of the north of Australia, and thence made his way to the East Indies (1607).

§ viii. Dutch Exploration of Australia

At this very time began Dutch exploration of Australia from the north-west. Saris in 1605-6, Dirck Hartog in 1616, Edel and Houtman in 1619, and other

explorers of the same nationality in 1622 and 1627 in the *Leeuwin* and the *Guld Zeepard*, opened up part of the northern and southern shores, and the whole of the west and south-west of New Holland—as far as the Great Australian Bight of present geography. The names of Dirk Hartog Island, Edel Land, Cape Leeuwin, Houtman Rocks, and Nuyts' Archipelago still preserve the memory of these advances.

The Netherlanders' expedition of 1605–6, however, had the unfortunate effect of favouring the misconception of a land connexion between New Guinea and the main Australian land. Torres Straits were missed by Saris; and, although Torres made his great discovery in the next year, the meaning of this was not generally understood. Until Cook's more detailed exploration the old error continued to exist.¹

§ ix. *Speilbergen, Lemaire, and Schouten*

Joris van Speilbergen, in his able and successful circumnavigation of 1614–17, achieved no Pacific discoveries, though he won brilliant naval and other successes. But the famous voyage of Lemaire and Schouten (1615–17), which was both a Pacific enterprise and a circumnavigation, did unquestionably affect the knowledge of the Pacific and advance Dutch claims therein. By this expedition the way round Cape Horn²—a route already recognized as existing and feasible from the time of Drake and Sarmiento (1579–80)—was actually sailed over and so properly 'discovered'. Outlying islands to the northward of the Tonga group were also sighted; and New Ireland was entered as a Dutch discovery, but only as a supposed promontory of New Guinea, whose north coast was reached at much the same points where Spanish explorers had reached it in 1544–46.

¹ All this perhaps does not belong to Pacific exploration proper, although it leads on to important Pacific developments.

² Properly *Hoorn*, after the town in North Holland.

§ x. *Van Diemen and Tasman*

Dutch Pacific exploration, like Dutch colonial expansion in general, reached its highest point in the organizing enterprise of Antony van Diemen, and in the voyages of Abel Janszoon Tasman, who shares with Hudson the claim to be the greatest of the maritime explorers of the seventeenth century. In his first 'South-Land' expedition of 1642-43, starting from Batavia in Java, the head-centre of Dutch power in the East Indies, Tasman discovered the south-west, south, and south-east coasts of Tasmania and the west shore of New Zealand, and coasted this 'Staaten-Land' (which he perhaps imagined as joined to the Staaten-Land of Lemaire and Schouten near Cape Horn) almost from lat. 42° S. in the South Island to the extreme north of the North Island (Cape Maria van Diemen, as he named it) in $34\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ S. He passed the western opening of Cook Straits, but did not realize the full importance of this passage. Thence he worked north-east to the Tongas, and sighted some of the Fijian Islands, none of which had been previously visited by Europeans. Finally, Tasman returned to Java by the north of Australia, coasting part of New Ireland and New Britain, both of which he took for outlying parts of New Guinea. The insular nature of the main Australian land-mass was thus proved. Van Diemen organized North Pacific exploration, with a view both to its scientific value and to the prospects of Dutch colonial empire, trade, and influence in the East. In 1639 he despatched Tasman to explore for 'islands of gold and silver', supposed to lie east of Japan. On this expedition the navigator improved Dutch and general European knowledge of the Philippines, rediscovered and mapped the Bonin Islands, ranged much of the North Pacific, and touched at Japan and Formosa. Tasman's second 'South-Land' voyage in 1644 led to a more careful exploration of the Gulf of Carpentaria and to other work, but not to Pacific exploration proper. Knowledge of the south-west Pacific and of

Australia remained as Tasman left it till Cook's first voyage in 1768-79.

De Bries and Schaep, sent out by Van Diemen from Batavia, explored the North Japanese island of Yezo, discovered the Kuriles and Sakhalin, examined a great part of the eastern coast of the latter (to 49° N.), and navigated the Sea of Okhotsk.

§ xi. *Russian Enterprise*

The arrival of the first Russian pioneers on the shores of Eastern Asia, about 1639, certainly belongs to Pacific history, though often neglected in this connexion. The Russian advance across Northern Asia was wonderfully rapid; they only began to push far into 'Sibir' about 1581; fifty-eight years later they had reached the Sea of Okhotsk, and painfully explored much of the north-east of the Old World eastward of the Lena. In 1648-9 Russian enterprise achieved its most brilliant Pacific success. The Cossack leader, Simon Dejnev, then discovered the strait to which Vitus Bering in the next century gave his name. Dejnev's work, like so much of the early Russian pioneer work, was almost totally ignored at the time; a tardy and partial justice has lately bestowed his name upon the eastern extremity of Siberia, of Asia, and of the Old World.

II. TRANSITION, 1648-1787

(a) *The Pause, 1648-1763*

From the middle of the seventeenth century there was, in exploration as in many other fields, a notable slackening of energy for a time, until the modern scientific period of discovery opened, and the recent developments of colonial expansion and acquisition began. The era of the Puritan Revolution and of the Peace of Westphalia marked a certain satiety in those European outward movements which had accomplished so much since the days of Prince Henry of Portugal.

It seemed enough to develop the enormous fields which had been won—at least in the Oceanic world.

Both the French and the Russians, however, continued their colonial advances in North America and Northern Asia; it is only with the latter that Pacific history in this period (1648–1763) has any concern. From about 1650 Russian pioneers began to open up the Kamchatka Peninsula, with its important Pacific sea-board; and from the end of the century (*circa* 1697), with the expedition of Atlasov, this region, as large as Britain and exactly in the same latitudes, began to be effectively penetrated by Russian enterprise. It formed one end of a North Pacific bridge or ferry to America, now first used by a civilized race, but perhaps utilized in prehistoric time by that migration which brought the first 'American Indians' from 'Tartary'. Vitus Bering, a Dane in the service of Peter the Great and his successors, examined the coast of Kamchatka on various occasions, especially in 1728; and from this work of Bering's dates our scientific knowledge of the country.

It was in 1728 also that Bering rediscovered the straits between Old World and New which have since borne his name. The discoverer and his contemporaries, despising and ignoring the early Russian pioneers, regarded this as an absolutely fresh discovery; Dejnev was forgotten or unknown. Both at this time and later, especially in his last fatal expedition of 1741, Bering made valuable explorations on both sides of the extreme North Pacific. Alaska had been noticed by the Russians somewhat earlier. Dejnev, for instance, had seen it; and the 'land opposite' is noticed in Russian sources in 1711; but Bering and his companion, Chirikov, are the first true explorers (1741). Soon after this a slender Russian colonization, mainly occupied with fisheries and seal-hunting, began on the coasts of what now became for a time American Russia.

At the close of the seventeenth and the beginning of the eighteenth century, the buccaneers were active

in some parts of the Pacific; and William Dampier, who was a buccaneer in earlier life, though later a respectable servant of the British Government, advanced British knowledge of some Pacific coasts. Between 1690 and 1705 he revisited considerable parts of the shore-line of Australia and New Guinea, and in 1700 rediscovered New Britain and New Ireland, whose division he missed, giving the name of *Nova Britannia* to both the islands.

The Dutch resumed their Pacific explorations (for a brief period only) with Jacob Roggeveen's circumnavigating voyage of 1721-22. On this expedition Roggeveen crossed the Pacific from east to west, to the south of 'the Line'—a course which makes this voyage unique among all voyages between 1615 and 1764—and discovered Easter Island, Makatea, and a portion of the Samoan group, as well as rediscovering some of the Tuamotu atolls.

(b) *The Pacific Discoveries of the later Eighteenth and early Nineteenth Centuries (1763-87; 1787-1825)*

At the close, and partly as a result, of the great colonial struggle between France and Britain, there opens a period of fresh scientific exploration and close survey, with a view to annexation and colonization. By the Peace of Paris (1763) Great Britain absorbed nearly the whole of the French Colonial Empire; and British navigators began to show a more marked activity in the Pacific. In 1764-6 the Hon. John Byron's trans-Pacific voyage led to the discovery of some of the Gilbert Islands, and in 1767 Samuel Wallis visited the Tuamotus, Ladrões, and Tahiti, of which last he was unquestionably the first discoverer, as he also was the first true revealer. Wallis's colleague and companion, William Carteret, discovered Pitcairn Island, and visited Santa Cruz, the Solomons, and New Britain, being the first to sail through the St. George's Channel between New Britain and New Ireland. In 1768, despite French Colonial disasters, the Frenchman Louis Antoine de Bougainville again explored the

Tuamotus, Tahiti, the Samoan group, part of the New Hebrides, the coast of New Guinea, and the Louisiade and New Britain Archipelagos.

Finally, in 1768–79, James Cook completed the main lines of our Pacific knowledge, and laid far and wide new and permanent bases for British expansion in the South Seas. His work forms the transition to the recent age of European acquisition. On his first voyage (1768–71) he passed round South America to Tahiti, and thence sailed west to New Zealand, which had been unvisited by Europeans since Tasman (1643). For nearly a year he explored the North and South Islands, examining their coasts with a thoroughness new in their history, and leaving little, in main lines, to his successors.¹ Then, again sailing westwards, he reached the eastern coast of New Holland. Ignorance of this coast formed the main gap in the Dutch knowledge of the Australian sea-board; practically the whole of it, from Tasmania to Torres Straits, was examined by Cook with the same sedulous and exhaustive attention he had already given to New Zealand. Possession was taken of this region for Britain under the name of New South Wales. By Torres Straits, whose existence he finally cleared of all doubt (thus establishing the fact of the separation of Papua and New Holland), Cook sailed to Batavia, and thence returned to Europe by the Cape route, completing his first circumnavigation.

On his second voyage (1772–75) Cook finally disproved the idea of a vast and valuable Antarctic continent stretching far out into the Southern Ocean from the Pole. He examined the Antarctic regions from every side of the globe, which he thus circumnavigated in high southern latitudes, discovered and named Sandwich Land, or the Southern Thule, and conclusively proved that no land of value existed around the Southern Pole between 50° and 70° S. He again visited New Zealand and the Society Islands, traversed the Pacific along nearly the whole length

¹ The discovery of the division by Cook's Straits of the two land-masses was one of his achievements.

of the Southern Tropic from Easter Island to the New Hebrides, and discovered and named New Caledonia.

On his third and last voyage (1776-79), Cook revisited the Tonga or Friendly Isles, and rediscovered the Hawaiian group. This he named Sandwich Islands (like Sandwich Land in the Far South after Lord Sandwich). Like other men of his time, Cook had probably no knowledge of the earlier claims of Spain in the Hawaiian Archipelago. On this expedition he was especially commissioned to explore as far as possible, on the Pacific side, the still hoped-for North-West Passage from Bering Straits; and he examined these parts of easternmost Asia and North-West America with his usual thoroughness, reaching 70° N. lat. (Icy Cape in Alaska), and satisfying himself that there was no practicable passage. Thence he returned to the Hawaiian Islands, where he was killed (February 1779).

In order of time the French Pacific explorations of La Pérouse and D'Entrecasteaux, like the Russian Pacific expeditions of Kotzebue and others, fall actually within the next period—that of recent European acquisition and exploitation, beginning with the British settlement at Botany Bay in 1787-88; but in spirit they belong to the later eighteenth-century period of transition—the age of Cook—and we may briefly refer to them here.

In 1785-88 Jean François Galoup de la Pérouse, searching primarily (like Cook on his last voyage) for a North-West Passage from the Bering Straits side, made a decided advance in the survey of the coasts of Japan and the adjacent portions of Pacific Asia. He was the first thoroughly to discover Sakhalin Island for non-Russian Christendom; he was also the first properly to explore the straits separating Sakhalin from Yezo (N. Japan), and from Siberia or Manchuria, as well as the passage between Japan and Korea—thus clearing up the last important problems in Pacific coast knowledge, and correcting the chief misconcep-

tions of the early Dutch pioneers. In more southern waters he revisited Easter Island and the Samoan group (where he enlarged previous knowledge of Savaii, Dec. 1787), and touched at the Tongas and at Botany Bay. After this his expedition disappeared (Feb. 1788). It perished by shipwreck on the reef of Vanikoro (Santa Cruz group).

In 1792 the Constituent Assembly of Revolutionary France sent out Antoine Joseph d'Entrecasteaux to search for La Pérouse. Though he did not ascertain the fate of La Pérouse, he added considerably to knowledge, tracing the eastern coast of New Caledonia, discovering many good roadsteads and harbours on the south coast of Tasmania, and touching at more than 300 points on the south and west coasts of Australia proper. D'Entrecasteaux also coasted much of New Guinea and the New Hebrides (near to which he passed the scene of La Pérouse's fate without knowing it) and visited the Tongas and Solomons (1792-93).

The last period of Pacific exploration (overlapping the first stage of present-day colonization and partition) is also marked by the early nineteenth-century voyages of the Russians (or Germans in Russian service), Adam Ivan Krusenstern (1803-6), Otto Kotzebue (1815-18, 1823-26), Fabian Gottlieb Bellingshausen (1819-21), and Fedor Petrovich, Count Lütke (1826-28). With these expeditions, Russia, which had already played so great a part in the opening of the Northern Pacific, entered on the exploration of the south and east of the ocean. Russia, after the accession of Alexander I, was at the height of her power; and these ventures were an outcome of her international position. The chief work of these explorers was done in the Antarctic.

Krusenstern, in execution of his project of promoting maritime communication between Russia and China by the Cape of Good Hope, and by Cape Horn, was the first Russian circumnavigator (1803-6). Kotzebue's voyage for the purpose of exploring a North-East Passage in 1815-18 added a number of minor Pacific discoveries to knowledge, and considerably raised

Russia's position as an exploring nation. The Krusenstern group, the Kutusov and Suvarov Islands in the east of the Marshalls, the Kotzebue Gulf or Sound on the American coast north of Bering Straits (a valuable addition), and New Year Island in the Central Pacific, were discovered on this expedition. Kotzebue's *New Voyage round the World in 1823-6* made many useful corrections in the details of the Pacific map.

Between 1799 and 1815 Russia developed her American Pacific sphere rapidly and effectively. The Emperor Paul sanctioned a Russian-American Fur Company (1799); under Alexander I, various Russian explorers, including Davidov and Krusenstern (1802-4, &c.) conducted scientific missions; Novo-Arkhangelsk was founded at Sitka in 1802; and, a little later, (1807-12) the Russians attempted to establish themselves in California—at the mouth of the Colombia river, the present Pacific frontier of Oregon and Washington States in the U.S.A., and near the site of San Francisco, then of course Spanish, like all this coast up to Cape Mendocino (north of 40° N. Lat.). Thus, nearly forty years before the United States acquired its great western port, and American pioneers founded the present city, Russians had reached this point and were endeavouring, though in vain, to acquire it.

In 1821 Alexander declared all the Pacific coast of America north of 51° N. lat. to be Russian territory. This brought matters to an issue. Britain and the United States protested, to say nothing of Spain; and by the Conventions of April 17, 1824, and February 28, 1825, Russia limited herself, below the Alaskan territory,¹ to a coastal strip only 10 miles wide, not reaching south of $54^{\circ} 40'$ N. lat. (i.e. to the north of Queen Charlotte Island).

¹ At the same time Alaska, the main block of Russian America, was defined by a boundary line reaching north-east from Mount St. Elias to the Arctic Ocean somewhat west of the Mackenzie estuary.

III. RECENT COLONIZATION AND PARTITION, FROM ABOUT 1787 TO THE PRESENT DAY

§ i. *British Activities*

The age of recent Pacific colonization and partition really opens with the earliest British settlement in Australia. The revolt of the American colonies had deprived Britain of her American bases for convict settlements; and Commodore Philip was commissioned in 1787 to found a penal colony at Botany Bay. Considering Botany Bay unsuitable, Philip moved slightly north to Sydney Harbour, where he founded (under the name of Port Jackson) the city of Sydney, the real 'metropolis' of New South Wales. The colony in Tasmania began in 1803 as an auxiliary penal station; and the other British colonies in Australia grew up soon after. Thus in 1825-27 we have the beginnings of Western Australia; in 1835 of Victoria, with the foundation of Port Philip (now Melbourne); in 1835-37 of South Australia.

From the time of Cook's first visit, in 1770, the mainland of Australia (New Holland) may be regarded as quite clearly within British claims and sphere of influence. New Zealand, rather less definitely, was included from about the same time; but the long delay in planting a proper settlement (1825), still more in proclaiming British sovereignty (1840), and the considerable distance from the Australian mainland, caused hopes of acquisition to be entertained in France. These led to a definite exchange of views between London and Paris, and an assertion of British claims, before which France yielded.

In the islands of the Pacific, east of Australia, the British voyages of the eighteenth century, especially those of Cook, created vague British claims over most of the important groups. The disappearance of France as a Colonial Power in the revolutionary and Napoleonic Wars, and the non-appearance of any fresh rival in the ocean, left Britain a practical monopoly of

the Pacific field, as of so many others. But the apparent security of her colonial position, the ease of acquisition whenever and wherever thought suitable, resulted in a much less active policy than might otherwise have developed. As a result, the Hawaiian, Society (Tahiti), Gambier, Samoan, Marquesas, New Caledonian, and other leading groups, have fallen under the influence of other Powers. At the time of the fall of Napoleon, the British Government could probably have proclaimed its sovereignty over all the Pacific.

British missionaries and merchants strengthened for a time the general feeling and appearance of British superintendence created by predominant naval power, by recent leadership in exploration, and by colonial position (especially from the first voyage of Cook). Thus in 1797 the (London) Missionary Society established its earliest important Pacific stations (in Tahiti and Tonga); in 1804 the discovery of sandalwood in the Fiji Islands attracted British traders; and in 1835 British missionaries entered this group. Elsewhere British influence seemed inevitably dominant.

§ ii. *French Activities*

But, before the middle of the nineteenth century, France began to move again in the colonial world. In 1830-40 she began to replace her lost colonies of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries by the conquest of Algeria. She entered the Pacific as a possessor with the establishment of her protectorate in 1842 over Tahiti and the Society Islands, over the Marquesas, and over a number of smaller groups in the south-east of Oceania (Tuamotu or Low Archipelago and Tubuai or Austral Islands), as well as over the less important Wallis and Futuna Islands near Samoa. The Gambier group was placed under the same protectorate in 1844; and in 1853 France took possession of New Caledonia, her largest, and now her most populous, possession in the Pacific, together with its dependencies of the Loyalty, Chesterfield, and Huon Islands, and the Isle of Pines.

Britain, secure in the possession of Australia, and more lately in that of New Zealand, and in her undisputed control of the sea and the colonial world in general for so many years after the Congress of Vienna, did not in these years take much share in the partition of the Pacific islands.

§ iii. *German Activities*

The formation of the German Empire in 1871, and the uncertainty as to the colonial intentions of its rulers, brought about a change. Vast possibilities in the colonial world were open to the new Germanic power, and Britain made haste to define her claims in various regions where they had been left unfixed. Thus, in October 1874, Britain annexed the Fiji Islands which German Government vessels had begun to visit in 1872. This was her first important political acquisition in the central Pacific. But it was already difficult to take such a step without friction. German private commercial claims confronted British; and Bismarck declared that,

‘if German subjects should be deprived by the British . . . without judicial sentence of the property acquired before the . . . annexation of Fiji,’

it would shake all confidence in foreign security of justice under British rule. German subjects would feel themselves ‘threatened’ in their proprietary rights on England

‘taking possession of independent territories . . . For the Imperial Government it cannot be a matter of indifference if the German trading community be shaken in its confidence, and if it should appeal to the German Empire for the maintenance of its rights.’

German colonial designs were more real than most people in England supposed. Bismarck in earlier days (and even for a decade after the proclamation of the Empire) had officially scoffed at colonization, or at least at colonial dominion, for the German people. When he began to change his view, he showed especial favour to

German propaganda in Samoa; and, if his will had prevailed, Germany's latest colonial possession would have been her earliest.¹ The Hamburg firm of Godeffroy, even before 1870, had acquired considerable tracts of land in this group, much of it fertile plateau country with a climate fairly suitable to Europeans. The years that followed the triumphs of 1870-71 saw many financial crashes in Germany, and her great Pacific firm shared in these troubles. In 1880 the Godeffroys were bankrupt. A South Sea Company tried to raise itself on the ruins of their enterprise; and it was to enable this company to act as the bulwark of German interests in Polynesia that the Chancellor, in his Samoa Subsidy Bill, asked the Reichstag to guarantee its dividends by an annual grant of 300,000 marks (£15,000) for twenty years. But by a majority of sixteen his demand was refused.

When the German colonial movement had really begun to bear fruit—some months after the first practical steps had been taken in Africa, and four years after the Samoa subsidy scheme had failed—Bismarck in 1884 again took up Pacific questions. He now presented to the Reichstag a Bill for subsidizing steamship lines to Australia and the Far East, and proclaimed a modest colonial policy.²

But the Steamship Subsidy Bill was only passed by the Reichstag after much delay and in an amended form; and many thought that with this the last had been heard for some time of German action in Pacific waters. But soon the world was startled by the German annexation of New Britain, New Ireland, and the north-east coast of New Guinea (December 1884). British opinion was both alarmed and irritated. Australia was indignant; for the attempt of the Queensland Government to appropriate all the eastern or non-Dutch part of Papua a little earlier (April 1883) had been repudiated by Lord Derby, who, however,

¹ See also the *German Colonization*, No. 42 of this series.

² Bismarck to Count Münster, June 10, 1884, and in the Reichstag Committee, June 23, 1884.

assured the House of Lords in the summer of that year (July 2) that any attempt of a foreign Power to settle in New Guinea would be regarded by the British Government as an unfriendly act.

The refusal of Lord Derby to ratify the Queensland annexations in Papua had produced disappointment and anger in Australia. But his assurances to the British Parliament somewhat calmed these feelings; and his suggestions for a policy of common action by the colonists were at once taken up, Australians 'thinking the New Guinea question so pressing as to admit of no delay'¹. The Sydney Conference followed at the close of 1883, and federation was warmly advocated. In May 1884 the British Colonial Office repeated its soothing assurances in still more positive form—'no foreign Power contemplated any interference in New Guinea'; in August it was announced in the British Parliament that Britain meditated a protectorate over Southern New Guinea, east of the Dutch claims, but not including the islands north and east; and on October 24 a negative reply was given in the House of Commons regarding the reported understanding with Germany.

Already, a fortnight before, British action had at last been taken in regard to South-Eastern New Guinea. All the Australian colonies had joined in offering a subsidy to extend the jurisdiction of the High Commissioner of the Western Pacific over this region; and on October 8 accordingly, Great Britain declared its protectorate over the same from 141° E. long. to East Cape. The original British project of a still wider protectorate—over the whole of Eastern New Guinea, except that portion of the north coast comprised between 141° and 145° E. long.—had been abandoned a month earlier (September 1884).

In 1885 Germany took possession of the Marshall Islands, including the Brown and Providence Atolls, and in the same year of the Solomon Islands. By the

¹ Memorandum from the Premier of Victoria to the Governor of Victoria, December 20, 1884.

important Anglo-German Agreement of 1899, Germany transferred to Great Britain the Northern Solomons with the exception of Bougainville and Buka. After a disputed claim (1885) between Germany and Spain for the possession of the Caroline, Pelew, and Marianne Islands had been settled in favour of Spain (the old possessor), by the arbitration of Pope Leo XIII, the German sphere of influence in the Western Pacific was not again extended until 1899.

The last extension of German Pacific 'colonization' was in Samoa. By agreements made in November 1899, Great Britain, in return for concessions in the Northern Solomons, and for German rights in the Tonga Islands, including Vavau and Savage Island, withdrew altogether from Samoan waters; while Germany, more or less realizing at last a very early colonial ambition and Bismarck's first scheme of acquisition beyond the seas, gained the two larger islands (which together form what is usually meant by Samoa), Upolu and Savaii, with Apia, the chief town of the archipelago (in Upolu).

In the same year (1899) Germany gained by purchase the islands which remained in Spanish possession after the war of 1898, viz. the remnant of the Ladrones (including Anson's Tinian or Happy Island), with the Caroline and Pelew groups.

§ iv. *American and Japanese Activities*

The Spanish-American war of 1898 had great results in the Pacific; for the American Pacific Fleet destroyed the Spanish squadron off Manila; the American forces brought about the surrender of that town; and, by the Peace Treaty of December 12, 1898, the whole of the Philippine group, together with Guahán, the largest of the Ladrones or Marianne Islands, were ceded to the United States.

The long outstanding question of the Hawaiian or Sandwich Islands was also settled in 1898, the group being formally annexed to the United States of America

in July of that year.¹ Before 1890 a British protectorate had been expected by many ; and for many years after Cook and Vancouver the group was distinctly in the British sphere, if in any European connexion. In 1893, however, the native dynasty was deposed in Hawaii, and a republic was proclaimed in 1894. This Commonwealth prepared the way for definite American rule. Lastly, by the Agreement of December 2, 1899, between Britain, Germany, and the United States, America secured final recognition of the privileges she had acquired in the Samoan group by the Treaties of 1878 (with Samoan chiefs) and of 1889 (with Britain). By these conventions the island of Tutuila (with its excellent harbour of Pago-Pago), and all the Samoan islets east of 171' W. long., came into the possession of the United States.

The Japanese Revolution of 1868 was a decisive event in the history of the Pacific, for its ulterior consequences have made Japan a Pacific Power of the first rank. In 1895, as the result of the successful war of 1894-95 with China, Japan acquired Formosa and the Pescadores² (if these may be reckoned in the Pacific area). In 1905, as the result of the struggle of 1904-5 with Russia, she gained not only immense concessions on the Pacific coast of Asia, but also half of the island of Sakhalin. Finally, as a result of the recent war, Japan has acquired an important part of the former German possessions in the Central Pacific.

¹ Joint Resolution of both Houses of Congress, July 7, 1898.

² By the Treaty of Shimonoseki, April 17, 1895.

APPENDIX

EXTRACTS FROM TREATIES, &c.

I

TREATY BETWEEN CHINA AND JAPAN OF APRIL 17, 1895

ART. I. China recognizes definitely the full and complete independence and autonomy of Corea, and, in consequence, the payment of tribute and the performance of ceremonies and formalities by Corea to China in derogation of such independence and autonomy shall wholly cease for the future.

II. China cedes to Japan in perpetuity and full sovereignty the following territories, together with all fortifications, arsenals, and public property thereon :

(a) The southern portion of the Province of Fêng Tien, within the following boundaries :

The line of demarcation begins at the mouth of the River Yalu, and ascends that stream to the mouth of the River An-ping; from thence the line runs to Fêng Huang, from thence to Haicheng; from thence to Ying Kow, forming a line which describes the southern portion of the territory. The places above named are included in the ceded territory. When the line reaches the River Liao at Ying Kow it follows the course of that stream to its mouth, where it terminates. The mid-channel of the River Liao shall be taken as the line of demarcation.

This cession also includes all islands appertaining or belonging to the Province of Fêng Tien situated in the eastern portion of the Bay of Liao Tung, and in the northern part of the Yellow Sea.

(b) The Island of Formosa, together with all islands appertaining or belonging to the said Island of Formosa.

(c) The Pescadores Group, that is to say, all islands lying between the 119th and 120th degrees of longitude east of Greenwich and the 23rd and 24th degrees of north latitude.

IV. China agrees to pay to Japan as a war indemnity the sum of 200,000,000 Kuping taels. The said sum to be paid in eight instalments. The first instalment of 50,000,000 taels to be paid within six months, and the second instalment of

50,000,000 taels to be paid within twelve months after the exchange of the ratifications of this Act. The remaining sum to be paid in six equal annual instalments as follows: the first of such equal annual instalments to be paid within two years, the second within three years, the third within four years, the fourth within five years, the fifth within six years, and the sixth within seven years after the exchange of the ratifications of this Act. Interest at the rate of 5 per cent. per annum shall begin to run on all unpaid portions of the said indemnity from the date the first instalment falls due.

China shall, however, have the right to pay by anticipation at any time any or all of said instalments. In case the whole amount of the said indemnity is paid within three years after the exchange of the ratifications of the present Act, all interest shall be waived, and the interest for two years and a half, or for any less period if then already paid, shall be included as a part of the principal amount of the indemnity.

V. The inhabitants of the territories ceded to Japan who wish to take up their residence outside the ceded districts shall be at liberty to sell their real property and retire. For this purpose a period of two years from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of the present Act shall be granted. At the expiration of that period those of the inhabitants who shall not have left such territories shall, at the option of Japan, be deemed to be Japanese subjects.

Each of the two Governments shall, immediately upon the exchange of the ratifications of the present Act, send one or more Commissioners to Formosa to effect a final transfer of that province, and within the space of two months after the exchange of the ratifications of this Act such transfer shall be completed.

VI. All treaties between Japan and China having come to an end in consequence of war, China engages, immediately upon the exchange of the ratifications of this Act, to appoint Plenipotentiaries to conclude with the Japanese Plenipotentiaries a Treaty of Commerce and Navigation, and a Convention to regulate frontier intercourse and trade. The Treaties, Conventions, and Regulations now subsisting between China and European Powers shall serve as a basis for the said Treaty and Convention between Japan and China. From the date of the exchange of the ratifications of this Act until the said Treaty and Convention are brought into actual operation the Japanese Government, its officials, commerce, navigation, frontier intercourse and trade, industries, ships, and subjects, shall in every respect be accorded by China most-favoured-nation treatment.

China makes, in addition, the following concessions, to take effect six months after the date of the present Act :

1. The following cities, towns and ports, in addition to those already opened, shall be opened to the trade, residence, industries, and manufactures of Japanese subjects under the same conditions, and with the same privileges and facilities as exist at the present open cities, towns, and ports of China.

- (i) Shashih, in the Province of Hupeh.
- (ii) Chungking, in the Province of Szechuan.
- (iii) Suchow, in the Province of Kiang Su.
- (iv) Hangchow, in the Province of Chêkiang.

The Japanese Government shall have the right to station Consuls at any or all of the above-named places.

2. Steam navigation for vessels under the Japanese flag for the conveyance of passengers and cargo shall be extended to the following places :

- (1) On the Upper Yang-tsze River, from Ichang to Chungking.
- (2) On the Woosung River and the Canal, from Shanghai to Suchow and Hangchow.

The Rules and Regulations which now govern the navigation of the inland waters of China by foreign vessels, shall, so far as applicable, be enforced in respect of the above-named routes, until new Rules and Regulations are conjointly agreed to.

3. Japanese subjects purchasing goods or produce in the interior of China, shall have the right temporarily to rent or hire warehouses for the storage of the articles so purchased or transported, without the payment of any taxes or exactions whatever.

4. Japanese subjects shall be free to engage in all kinds of manufacturing industries in all the open cities, towns, and ports of China, and shall be at liberty to import into China all kinds of machinery, paying only the stipulated import duties thereon.

All articles manufactured by Japanese subjects in China, shall in respect of inland transit and internal taxes, duties, charges, and exactions of all kinds, and also in respect of warehousing and storage facilities in the interior of China, stand upon the same footing and enjoy the same privileges and exemptions as merchandise imported by Japanese subjects into China.

In the event additional Rules and Regulations are necessary in connexion with these concessions, they shall be embodied in the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation provided for by this Article.

VII. Subject to the provisions of the next Article, the

evacuation of China by the armies of Japan shall be completely effected within three months after the exchange of the ratifications of the present Act.

VIII. As a guarantee of the faithful performance of the stipulations of this Act, China consents to the temporary occupation by the military forces of Japan, of Wei-hai Wei, in the Province of Shantung.

Upon the payment of the first two instalments of the war indemnity herein stipulated for, and the exchange of the ratifications of the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation, the said place shall be evacuated by the Japanese forces : provided the Chinese Government consents to pledge, under suitable and sufficient arrangements, the customs revenue of China as security for the payment of the principal and interest of the remaining instalments of the said indemnity. In the event no such arrangements are concluded, such evacuation shall only take place upon the payment of the final instalment of said indemnity.

It is, however, expressly understood that no such evacuation shall take place until after the exchange of the ratifications of the Treaty of Commerce and Navigation.

IX. Immediately upon the exchange of the ratifications of this Act all prisoners of war then held shall be restored, and China undertakes not to ill-treat or punish prisoners of war so restored to her by Japan. China also engages to at once release all Japanese subjects accused of being military spies or charged with any other military offences. China further engages not to punish in any manner, nor allow to be punished, those Chinese subjects who have in any manner been compromised in their relations with the Japanese army during the war.

X. All offensive military operations shall cease upon the exchange of the ratifications of this Act.

II

JOINT RESOLUTION OF THE UNITED STATES CONGRESS, JULY 7, 1898

Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled :

That said Cession is accepted, ratified, and confirmed, and that the said Hawaiian Islands and their dependencies be, and they are hereby, annexed as a part of the territory of the United States, and are subject to the sovereign dominion thereof, and that all and singular the property and rights

hereinbefore mentioned are vested in the United States of America.

The existing laws of the United States relative to public lands shall not apply to such lands in the Hawaiian Islands; but the Congress of the United States shall enact special laws for their management and disposition: Provided that all revenue from or proceeds of the same, except as regards such part thereof as may be used or occupied for the civil, military, or naval purposes of the United States, or may be assigned for the use of the Local Government, shall be used solely for the benefit of the inhabitants of the Hawaiian Islands for educational and other public purposes.

Until Congress shall provide for the government of such islands all the civil, judicial, and military powers exercised by the officers of the existing Government in said islands shall be vested in such person or persons, and shall be exercised in such manner as the President of the United States shall direct; and the President shall have power to remove said officers and fill the vacancies so occasioned.

The existing Treaties of the Hawaiian Islands with foreign nations shall forthwith cease and determine, being replaced by such Treaties as may exist, or may be hereafter concluded, between the United States and such foreign nations. The municipal legislation of the Hawaiian Islands, not enacted for the fulfilment of the Treaties so extinguished, and not inconsistent with this Joint Resolution, nor contrary to the Constitution of the United States nor to any existing Treaty of the United States, shall remain in force until the Congress of the United States shall otherwise determine.

Until legislation shall be enacted extending the United States' customs laws and regulations to the Hawaiian Islands, the existing customs relations of the Hawaiian Islands with the United States and other countries shall remain unchanged.

The Public Debt of the Republic of Hawaii lawfully existing at the date of the passage of this Joint Resolution, including the amounts due to depositors in the Hawaiian Postal Savings Bank, is hereby assumed by the Government of the United States; but the liability of the United States in this regard shall in no case exceed 4,000,000 dollars. So long, however, as the existing Government and the present commercial relations of the Hawaiian Islands are continued as hereinbefore provided, said Government shall continue to pay the interest on said debt.

There shall be no further immigration of Chinese into the Hawaiian Islands, except upon such conditions as are now or may hereafter be allowed by the laws of the United States;

and no Chinese, by reason of anything herein contained, shall be allowed to enter the United States from the Hawaiian Islands.

The President shall appoint five Commissioners, at least two of whom shall be residents of the Hawaiian Islands, who shall, as soon as reasonably practicable, recommend to Congress such legislation concerning the Hawaiian Islands as they shall deem necessary or proper.

Sec. 2. That the Commissioners hereinbefore provided for shall be appointed by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate.

Sec. 3. That the sum of 100,000 dollars, or so much thereof as may be necessary, is hereby appropriated out of any money in the Treasury, not otherwise appropriated, and to be immediately available, to be expended at the discretion of the President of the United States of America, for the purpose of carrying this Joint Resolution into effect.

Approved, July 7, 1898.

III

CONVENTION BETWEEN GREAT BRITAIN, GERMANY, AND THE UNITED STATES, DECEMBER 2, 1899

ART. I. The General Act concluded and signed by the aforesaid Powers at Berlin on the 14th day of June, A.D. 1889, and all previous Treaties, Conventions, and Agreements relating to Samoa, are annulled.

II. Great Britain renounces in favour of the United States of America all her rights and claims over and in respect to the Island of Tutuila and all other islands of the Samoan group east of longitude 171° west of Greenwich.

Germany in like manner renounces in favour of the United States of America all her rights and claims over and in respect to the Island of Tutuila and all other islands of the Samoan group east of longitude 171° west of Greenwich.

Reciprocally, the United States of America renounce in favour of Germany all their rights and claims over and in respect to the Islands of Upolu and Savaii, and all other islands of the Samoan group west of longitude 171° west of Greenwich.

III. It is understood and agreed that each of the three Signatory Powers shall continue to enjoy, in respect to their commerce and commercial vessels, in all the islands of the Samoan group, privileges and conditions equal to those enjoyed by the Sovereign Power in all ports which may be open to the commerce of either of them.

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MAPS

Messrs. Stanford have published a map of the Pacific Islands in the London Atlas series. British possessions, as before the War, are marked in red.

The Admiralty War Staff Intelligence Division have issued, in connexion with this series, a map showing the 'Distribution of the French and German islands in the Pacific'. (Scale and date not given.)

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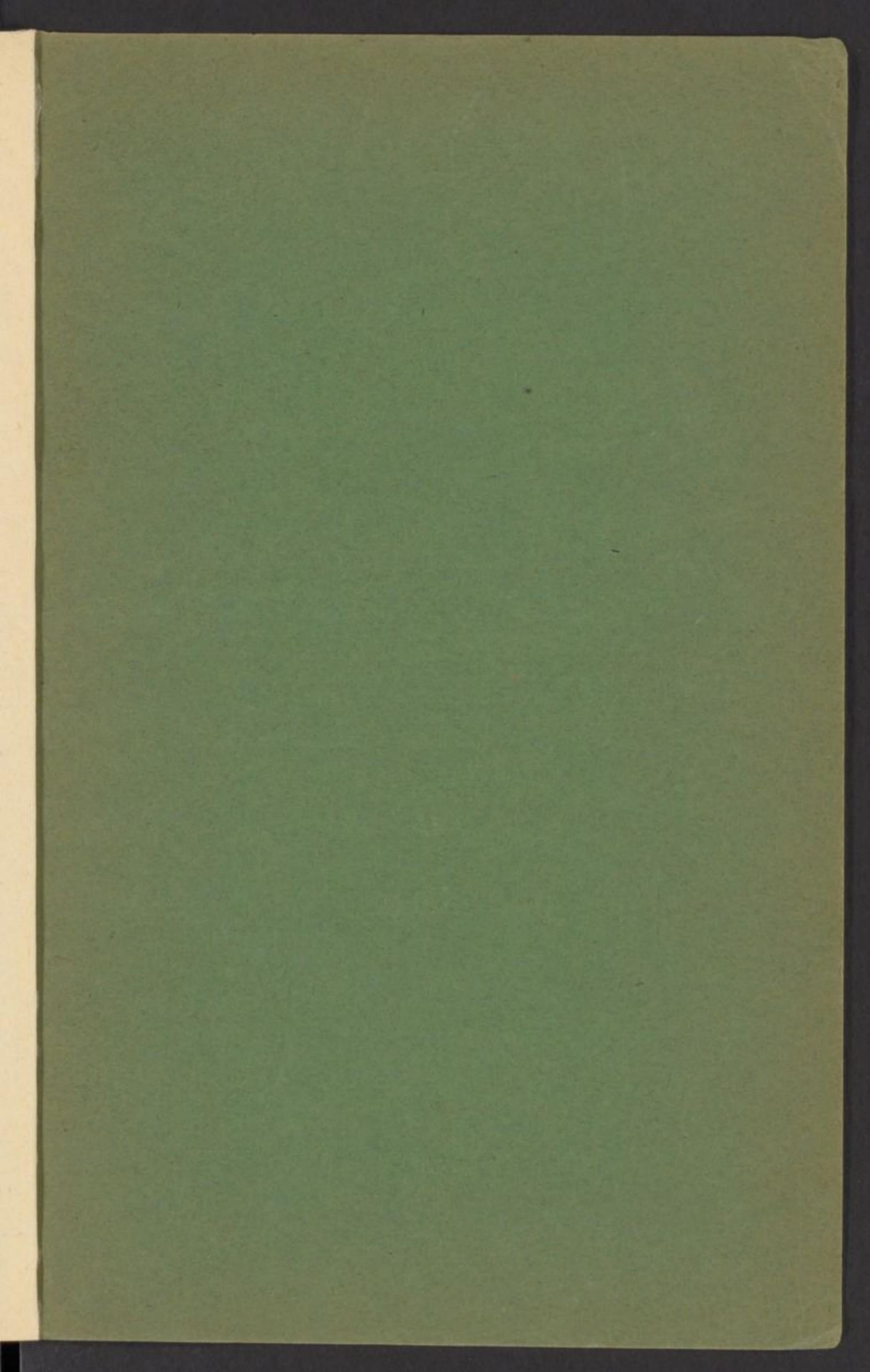
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