

HANDBOOKS PREPARED UNDER THE DIRECTION OF THE
HISTORICAL SECTION OF THE FOREIGN OFFICE.—No. 145

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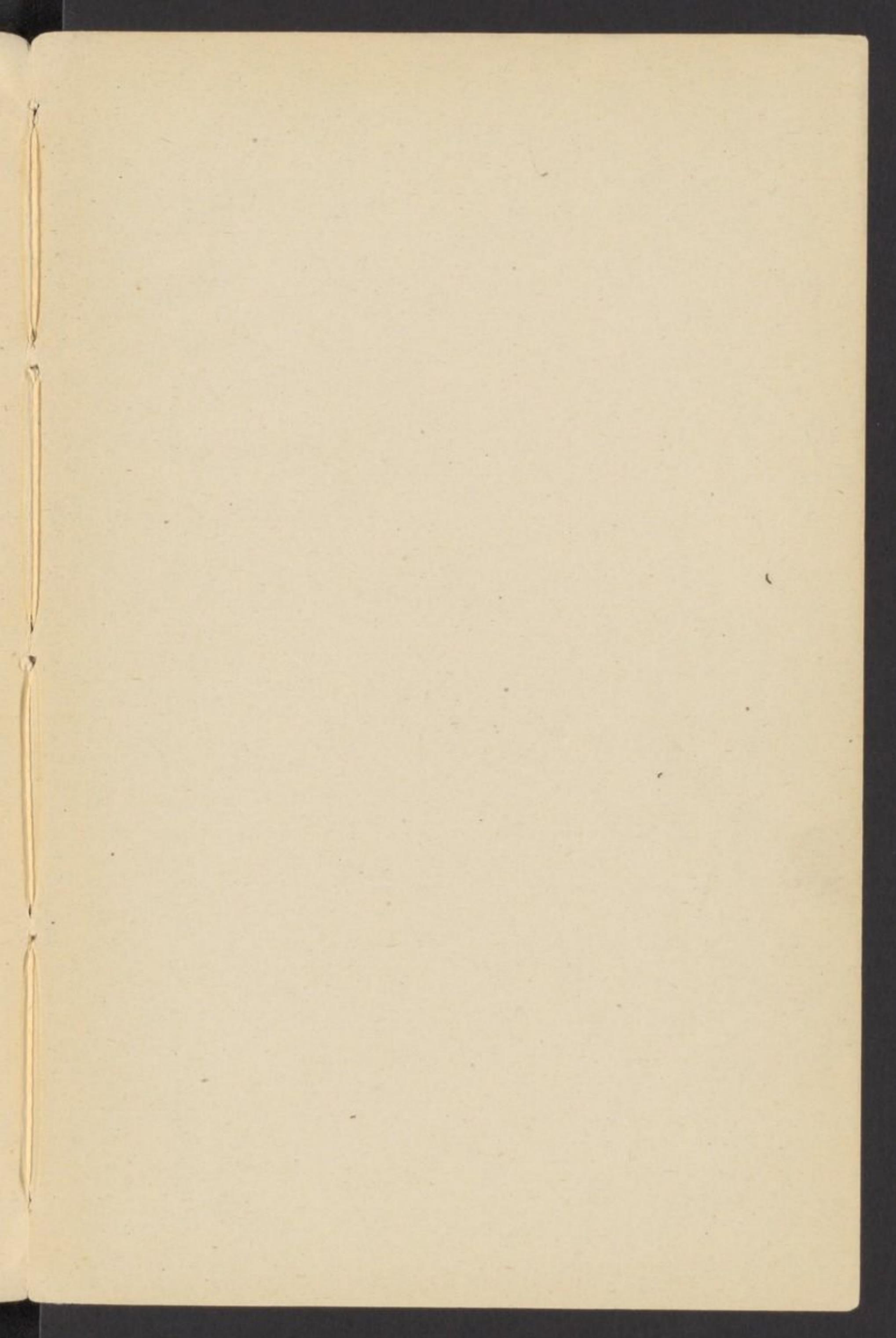


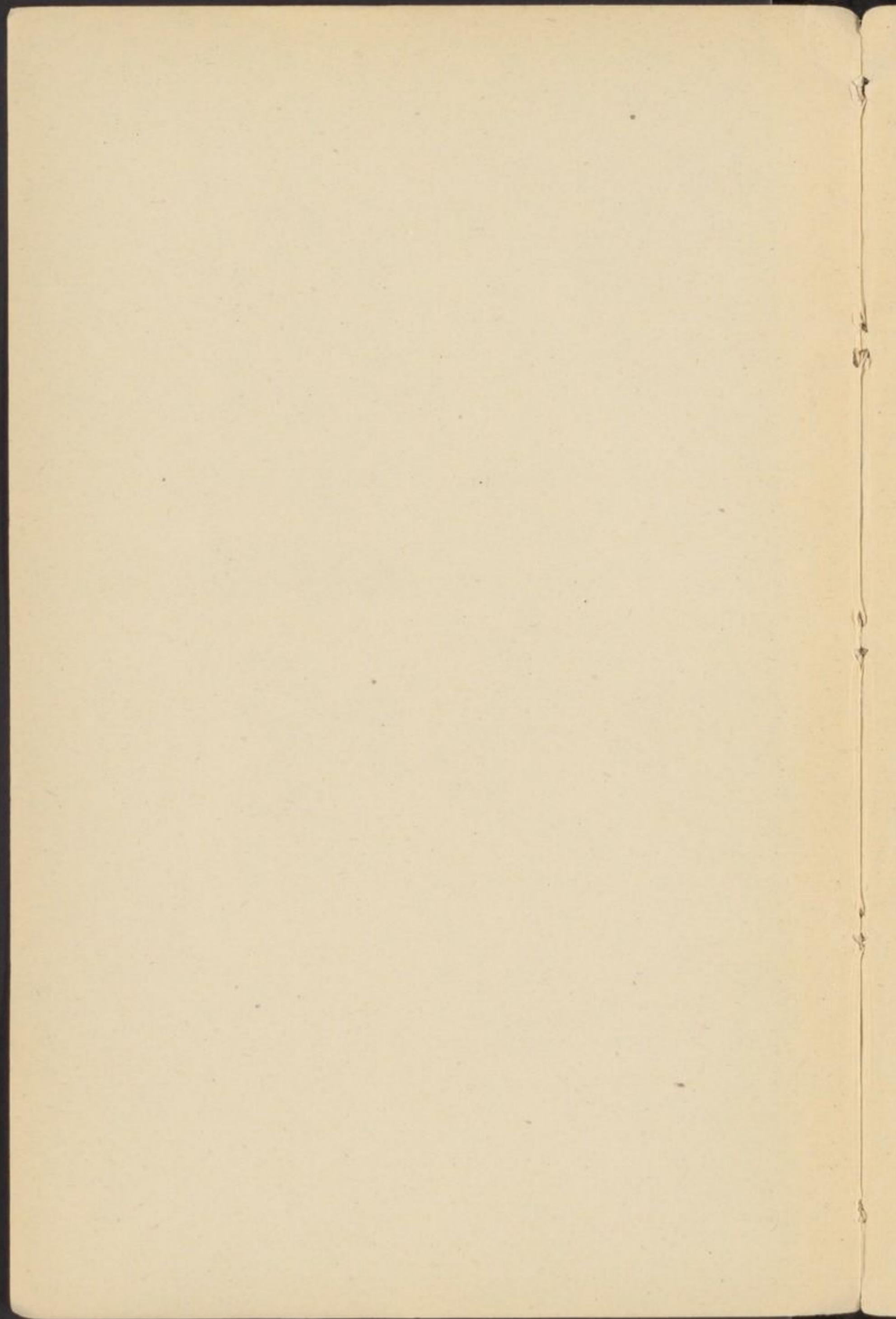
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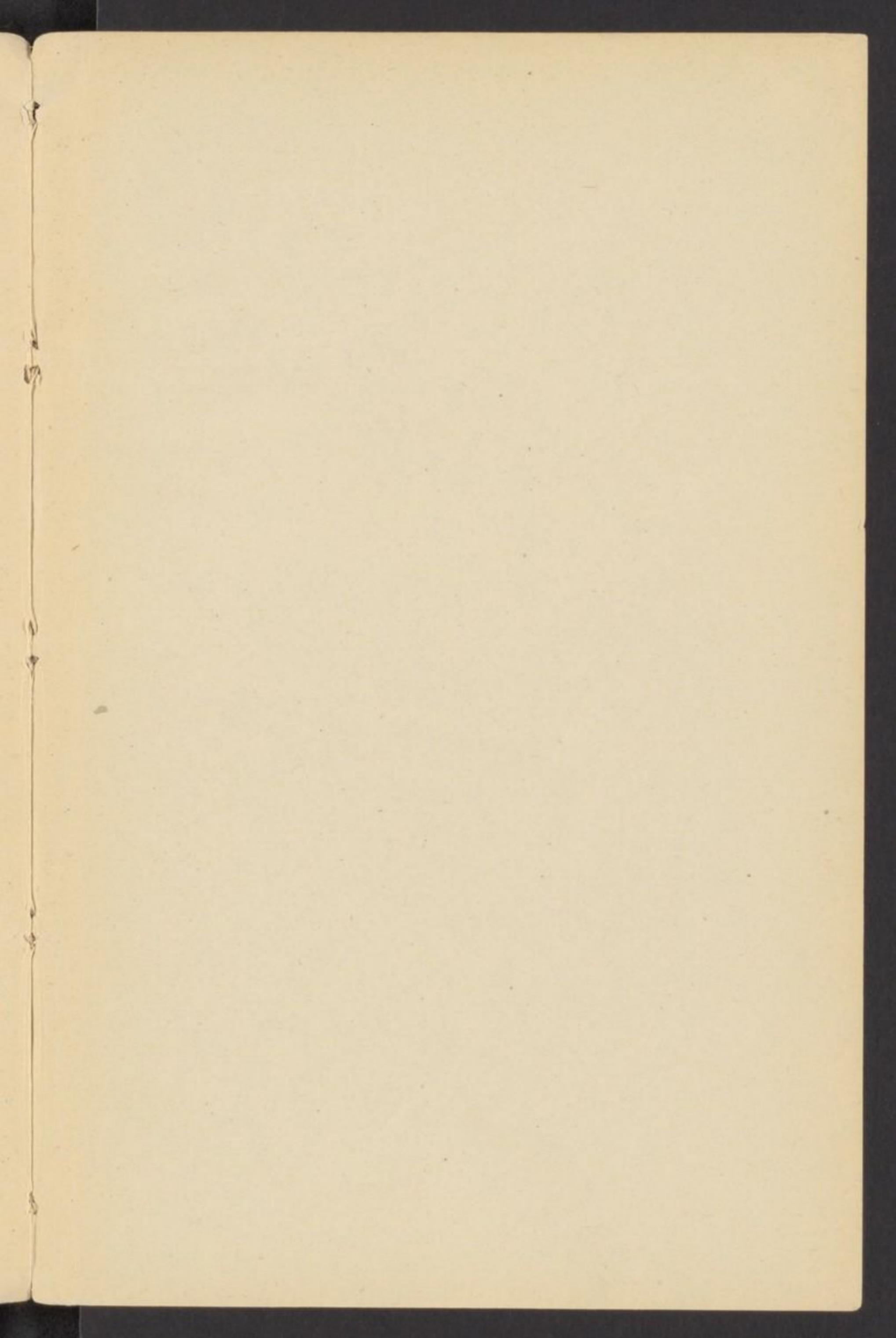


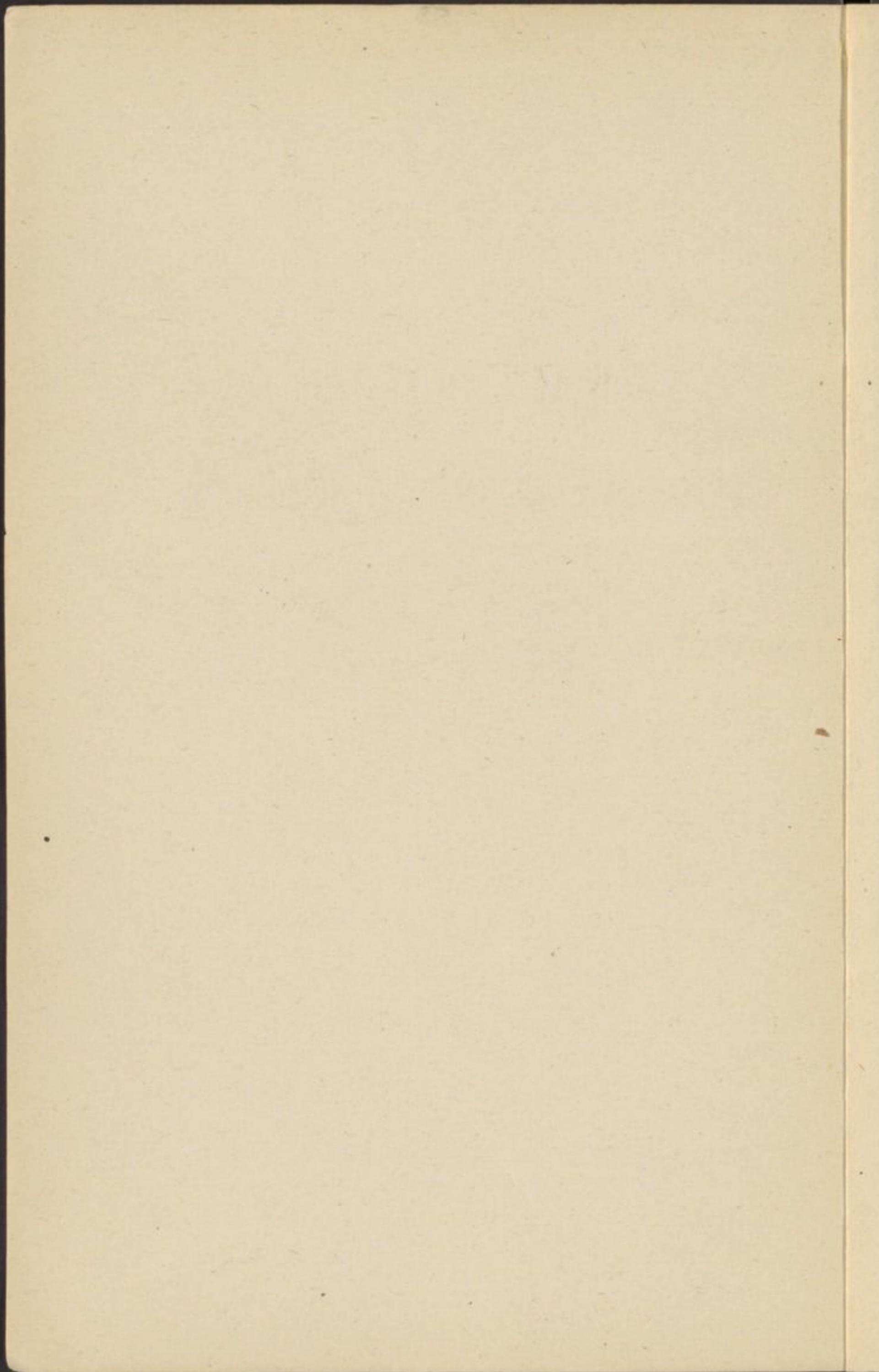
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EDITORIAL NOTE

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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I. GEOGRAPHY PHYSICAL AND POLITICAL

THE French island possessions in the Pacific, with their approximate land areas in square miles, are as follows :

New Caledonia and Dependencies :	
New Caledonia and Huon Islands	6,274
Isle of Pines	60
Chesterfield Islands	3
Loyalty Islands	800
Hoorn Islands (Futuna)	61
Wallis (Uea) Island	37
Clipperton Island ¹	2
	7,237
French Settlements in Oceania : ²	
Society Islands	452
Tubuai (or Austral) Islands, including Rapa and Maretiri ³	67
Tuamotu Archipelago	330
Gambier Islands (Mangareva)	11
Marquesas Islands	491
	1,351
Total	8,588

The areas of several of the scattered archipelagos are uncertain, since many surveys are incomplete.

Most of the French islands are confined to two areas, the one comprising New Caledonia and its dependencies in the south-west Pacific, between 17° and 23° south latitude and 158° and 168° east longitude (excluding a few reefs and rocks farther east); the other, in the central Pacific, between 8° and 28° south latitude and

¹ Clipperton Island is also claimed by Mexico.

² *Établissements français de l'Océanie.*

³ Rapa and Maretiri are in *The Admiralty Pilot* and the French *Annuaire* treated apart from the Tubuai or Austral Group.

131° and 155° west longitude. A few islands of the New Hebrides group lie in the north-east of the former area. The French islands outside these areas are the Hoorn and Wallis Islands, north-east of Fiji, and the isolated Clipperton Island in the eastern Pacific, 670 miles from the coast of Mexico.

The New Hebrides, and the Banks and Torres Islands, north of New Caledonia, are under the joint control of Britain and France. They are treated in *New Hebrides*, No. 147 of this series.

NEW CALEDONIA AND DEPENDENCIES

NEW CALEDONIA

(1) POSITION

New Caledonia, with the smaller islands surrounding it, lies in the south-western Pacific between about latitudes 18° and 23° south and between longitudes 163° and 168° east. It is 900 miles from Australia and nearly 1,000 miles from New Zealand. The term New Caledonia is here regarded as including the Isle of Pines, 40 miles from the southern end of the principal island, the Huon group, lying about 100 miles to the north-west, and the Chesterfield Islands, a small isolated group to the west, in about south latitude 19° and 158° 30' east longitude. Other dependencies of New Caledonia are considered separately.

(2) SURFACE, COASTS, AND RIVERS

Surface

New Caledonia, which has a length of 250 miles and an average breadth of 30 miles, consists of a confused mass of mountain ranges, cut by many ravines. The highest peaks are Mount Panie, 5,413 ft., in the north, and Mount Humboldt, 5,361 ft., in the south. The

island may be roughly divided into three fairly equal parts.

The north is very rugged, and slopes steeply to the unbroken east coast. On the west there is a fringe of plains indented in places by deep bays. The middle of the island is of lower elevation, with a gentle, rolling landscape; the west-coast plains continue, and there are many indentations on both west and east coasts. The southern end is characterized by narrow ridges and steep-sided but not precipitous valleys. The narrow western plains are practically the only level areas in this part. The west coast is strongly indented, but the east coast is fairly smooth.

In the whole island there are no real plains except that on the west coast, which varies in width from 5 to 20 miles; and only here is the soil at all fertile.

The Isle of Pines (really two islands divided by a narrow creek) is of coral formation, and rises gently to a plateau in the interior, at a mean level of 350 ft.

The Huon, Surprise, and other islands in the north, and the Chesterfield group, are small coral islands only a few feet above sea-level.

Coasts

A reef encloses practically the whole of New Caledonia. On the east coast it is a characteristic barrier reef, one to eight miles from the shore, enclosing a navigable channel along almost the entire length of the island. On the west coast the reef is much broader. There are numerous passages through it, particularly on the east; these generally occur opposite the mouths of rivers, and as a rule are as deep as the channel in the lagoon.

The coast-line is much indented on the west and less so on the east. There are several long inlets of the sea, those which are not obstructed by coral reefs forming

good harbours. Landing within the shelter of the reef is generally easy. Anchorages within the barrier reef are numerous; but the best harbours, only a few of which are used, are at the northern and southern ends of the island.

Rivers

There are many short rivers, some of which on the east coast descend to the sea in a series of cataracts. Those on the west are less rapid, and several form alluvial plains at their mouths. The numerous rivers afford abundant water even in the dry season.

(3) CLIMATE

The climate is temperate. Summer, which lasts from December to February, has a mean temperature of 79° F. (26° C.), and winter, from June to August, has a mean temperature of 69° F. (20.5° C.). The absolute maximum is 86° F. (30° C.), and the absolute minimum about 62° F. (16.6° C.).

The prevailing winds are the trades, which blow strongly from the east-south-east. In winter, especially on the west coast, they are sometimes interrupted by west and south-west winds and frequent calms.

Severe cyclones occur in the summer months.

Speaking generally, the rainy season is from January to March and the dry season from September to November. The east and south coasts are the wettest, and the west coast the driest. The average annual rainfall is 73 in. (1.8 m.), and the average number of rainy days is 142. Nevertheless, drought is often serious.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

The climate on the whole is healthy, and the island is free from malaria and dysentery. The natives, however, suffer largely from consumption, leprosy, framboesia (yaws), and plague, and there is a certain

amount of elephantiasis.¹ Leprosy is making some headway among the white population, as isolation is not strictly enforced. On the Isle of Pines, where the natives have instituted their own leper station, the disease is nearly extinct.

(5) RACE AND LANGUAGE

The natives are Melanesians, closely related to the natives of the New Hebrides, Solomon Islands, and Loyalty Islands. The Hawaiian term *kanaka* (Fr. *canaque*) applied to them by the Europeans means 'man', and has no racial significance. On the east coast and in the Isle of Pines are many traces of Polynesian admixture. The *lingua franca* between the natives and the French is *bêche-de-mer* English, with the addition of many French words.

The New Caledonians are superior in vigour and industry to most other Pacific Islanders.

(6) POPULATION

The native population is confined chiefly to the west of the island and the river valleys. At present the natives are mainly restricted to limited reserves, and their numbers are steadily falling. In the census of 1911 the total native population of New Caledonia and its dependencies (excluding the Loyalty Islands) was 19,398, including about 600 on the Isle of Pines and a small but unspecified number on the Hoorn and Wallis Islands.

The Europeans in 1911 numbered 17,451, a total which included about 400 French troops and about 1,100 convicts in confinement. Most of the Europeans are French.

The importation of convicts ceased in 1898, and in

¹ Framboesia is known to the natives as *tona*.

1914 there were only 300 at the chief penitentiary on the island near Numea (Nouméa, formerly Port de France), and a few thousand ticket-of-leave men (*libérés*). The remainder of the Europeans, about 13,000, are settlers, miners, and traders, of whom over 11,000 were born in France or in New Caledonia, and there are numerous half-castes, against whom there is said to be little prejudice.

In addition to the natives there were, in 1911, 1,400 Japanese; many Tonkinese exiles and about 350 free Tonkinese; Chinese domestic servants and field-labourers; about 1,200 Javanese; Arab exiles from Algeria; and people from the New Hebrides, Loyalties, and Solomons.

The Huon Islands have a population of a few New Hebrideans; the Chesterfield Islands have no permanent inhabitants.

The French population is mainly spread along the coasts, in or near a number of small towns, most of which were founded near river mouths. The chief town, Numea, the capital of the island and its dependencies, is a commercial and distributing centre and has an extensive harbour. In 1911 the population was composed of 5,207 free whites, 1,245 convicts, 396 French troops, and 2,000 natives and Asiatics, a total of 8,848. Houailou, with a population of about 2,600, is the second town and the chief agricultural centre. La Foa (pop. 1,301), near the west coast, is the only inland town. Several other settlements have each a population of over a thousand, and depend principally on mining for their importance.

LOYALTY ISLANDS

The Loyalty Islands lie parallel to New Caledonia at a distance of about 70 miles. They extend from Walpole Island in 22° 38' south latitude, 168° 55' east

longitude, to the Beupré Islands in 20° 23' south latitude, 166° 9' east longitude. The chief islands are Mare, Tiga, Lifu or Chabrol, and Uea.¹ The islands are less adequately surveyed than any other group in the Pacific, but their total land area is estimated at about 800 square miles. All the islands are more or less elevated coral reefs.

The climate is of the same type as that of New Caledonia, but owing to the low elevation the rainfall is deficient. Water is obtained from wells, and is often brackish and generally scarce. There is not much disease among the natives, and Europeans find the climate healthy.

The natives are Melanesians, belonging to several tribes, each island having a separate dialect. They at one time had the reputation of being savage, intractable cannibals, but are now said to be a very fine people and the most civilized of all Melanesians.

The natives number about 10,000, and the white population in 1911 numbered 156. The population is probably decreasing, but there are no figures to prove this. All the islands are inhabited except Walpole Island and one or two small islets.

There are several large villages on most of the islands. Shepeneke (Chepenehé), on Sandal Bay in Lifu, is the capital, and has a population of several thousands.

HOORN AND WALLIS ISLANDS

These small islands lie west of Samoa and north-east of Fiji, and consist of two small groups about 120 miles apart.

The Hoorn Islands, comprising Futuna and Alofa (about a mile apart), lie some 150 miles north-east of

¹ In French Uvea or Ouvéa. The same name is given by the natives to Wallis Island.

Vanua Levu (Fiji). Futuna, 8 miles long by 5 miles broad, rises to a height of 2,500 ft. The reefs off the island are not continuous. Alofa is 6 miles long by 3 miles broad, and rises to a height of 1,200 ft.

Wallis Island, or Uea (*Fr.* Uvea), is 300 miles west of Samoa, and is an elevated volcanic plateau rising to a height of about 470 ft. A barrier reef encloses it and a number of smaller islands.

The climate is healthy and the water-supply fair. The prevailing winds are the trades blowing between east-south-east and north-north-east; but in the early part of the year they are often interrupted by north-westerly and northerly winds accompanied by rain and squalls. The islands lie within the hurricane area of the western Pacific.

The natives are Polynesians, and closely resemble the Tahitians, being idle but pleasant in manner. The only Europeans are a few traders, the French Resident, and the Roman Catholic missionaries, who dominate these islands. In 1913 there were several Chinese planters.

The population is included with that of New Caledonia. The chief village is Matautu (Wallis Island).

CLIPPERTON ISLAND

Clipperton Island lies remote from all other Pacific Islands in $10^{\circ} 17'$ north latitude and $109^{\circ} 13'$ west longitude, and 670 miles south-west of the Mexican port of Acapulco. It is a low atoll 2 to 3 miles in diameter, enclosing a single rock 82 feet high.

The climate is warm and equable. The rainfall is said to be plentiful, and provides the only water-supply. From December to May is the dry season.

The island is now uninhabited, but there are a few huts and store-sheds, and an abandoned lighthouse.

FRENCH SETTLEMENTS IN OCEANIA

(1) RACE AND LANGUAGE

The natives are all Polynesians, a race which is better developed both physically and mentally than the Melanesian race of the south-western Pacific. The Polynesians are peaceful in habits and generally, but not always, friendly towards Europeans.

The Polynesian language has many dialects, differing considerably from one another. The Tahitian dialect is probably more widespread than the others, and is understood in the Tubuai Islands and Rapa. A form of *bêche-de-mer* English, including a certain number of French words, is used in some places as a *lingua franca*. The French language is not widely spoken.

(2) POPULATION

Natives.—The total population of the French Settlements in 1911 was 31,477, compared with 30,974 in 1907. These figures conceal the serious decrease among the native population, which is, however, not so great as has sometimes been represented. The apparent increase in 1911 over 1907 is mainly accounted for by the introduction of Japanese labourers to work the phosphate deposits in Makatea, and by an influx of Chinese in many islands.

Europeans and Asiatics.—The number of Europeans and coloured immigrants (included in the above total) in 1911 was 2,656 French, 103 Germans, 237 Americans, 484 British, 975 Chinese, 346 Japanese, 280 natives of other Pacific Islands, 53 Portuguese; and a few individuals of Austrian, Belgian, Chilean, Dutch, Spanish, Italian, Scandinavian, and Swiss nationality, with some Annamites. The Chinese population seems to have increased considerably since the census of 1911.

SOCIETY ISLANDS

(1) POSITION

The Society Islands form a small but important group, the most westerly of the French Settlements, extending from $15^{\circ} 48'$ to $17^{\circ} 53'$ south latitude and from $148^{\circ} 5'$ to $154^{\circ} 43'$ west longitude. The islands number 14, divisible into two groups, the Windward (eastern) and the Leeward (western). The principal islands in the Windward group are Tahiti, the largest island in the Settlements, which has an area of 402 square miles, Moorea (Aimeo), Mehetia (Maitea), Tubuai, and Tetiaroa. The Leeward group includes Raiatea, Tahaa, Huahine, Bora Bora, Motu Iti (Tubai), Maurua (Maupiti), Mopihaa (erroneously Mopelia), Fenua Ura or Scilly, and Bellingshausen or Motu One.

(2) SURFACE AND COASTS

Surface

Most of the islands rise to a height of several thousand feet. The highest peak is Orohena (7,321 ft.), on Tahiti. A few of the smaller islands, including Tetiaroa, Motu Iti, Mopihaa, Fenua Ura, and Bellingshausen, are low-lying coral islands, for the most part encircling lagoons. Around the coasts are narrow, low-lying plains, from which many valleys open into the interior. Inland routes are seldom practicable, owing to steep gradients, but on Tahiti the low isthmus of Taravao, $1\frac{1}{4}$ miles across, which cuts the island into two unequal parts, affords an easy route from sea to sea.

The alluvial soil of the coastal plains and valleys is extraordinarily fertile, while the coral islands and the reef-islets that fringe the larger islands are also cultivated to some extent. There are no minerals.

All the islands which rise to any height have a good water-supply from many streams; but the small coral islands have to depend on rain-water or wells.

Coasts

All the islands, except Mehetia, are fringed with coral reefs, which are generally wide and continuous, except for a few passages affording access to the lagoon within. Landing on the seaward side of the reefs is seldom possible on account of the heavy surf, but it is generally easy within the lagoon.

(3) CLIMATE

The climate is very equable throughout the year, with a mean temperature of about 79° F. (26° C.). In July and August, the coolest months, the lowest recorded temperature at Papeete is 60° F. (15.5° C.), and in February and March, the warmest months, the highest recorded temperature is 94° F. (35° C.).

The south-east trade-wind blows from April to December, and from January to March west winds often occur. The total rainfall is about 60 to 70 in. (1.5 to 1.75 m.) at Papeete, and four-fifths of this fall between November or December and March.

(4) SANITARY CONDITIONS

The climate is healthy, and during the dry season very pleasant. The natives, however, suffer much from tuberculosis and elephantiasis. Leprosy is not common.

(5) POPULATION

All the islands except a few atolls are inhabited, but the population is not dense. In 1911 Tahiti had a population of 11,378, of whom 7,491 were natives, the

remainder being chiefly French, with a few British and Americans, and about 400 Chinese. Moorea in 1911 had a population of 1,616, of whom 1,571 were natives. The population of the Leeward group was 6,689, of whom about 300 were Europeans and 810 Chinese. In this group the native population is increasing—a unique phenomenon in the Settlements.

The population is scattered round the coasts, and there are numerous villages. Papeete, the capital of the Settlements, had in 1911 a population of 4,099, of whom 1,102 were natives, 2,135 French, 269 British, 117 Americans, 49 Germans, and 392 Chinese. Uturoa, on the island of Raiatea, is the largest settlement in, and administrative centre of, the Leeward group.

TUBUAI ISLANDS

The Tubuai or Austral Islands lie south of the Society Islands. They consist of seven scattered islands or groups of islets between $21^{\circ} 45'$ and 28° south latitude and $143^{\circ} 30'$ and 155° west longitude. The principal islands from west to east are Maria or Hull, Rimatara, Rurutu, Tubuai, Raivavae, and, 300 miles to the south-east, Rapa (Rapa-Iti) and Maretiri or Bass Islands. The total land area is said to be 67 square miles, of which Rapa occupies 16 square miles, but some authorities give a total area of nearly double this figure.

All the islands, except Rimatara and the low Maria Islands, are rugged and mountainous, rising to a height of 1,300 to 1,400 ft., with the exception of Rapa, which reaches an altitude of 2,077 ft. Rapa has a long inlet from the east which opens into the heart of the island. There is little low ground on any of the large islands, except a narrow strip along the coast.

The soil on the volcanic islands is fertile, and the water-supply is sufficient without being abundant.

All the large islands except Rapa are surrounded with barrier reefs. Landing is always possible within the lagoons, but in very few cases are the channels in the reefs suitable for any but small craft.

The climate is mild and temperate, and the seasons are well marked. On Rapa the temperature seldom rises above 76° F. (25° C.) in summer or falls below 58° F. (14.5° C.) in winter. The islands lie at about the southern limit of the south-east trades, which blow from November to March among the northern islands. In winter, from May to September, west winds with much rain prevail, especially at Rapa. The climate is healthy both for Europeans and natives.

The total native population of the whole group in 1911 was about 2,500, of whom 879 were on Rurutu, 542 on Tubuai, 429 on Raivavae, 413 on Rimatara, and 182 on Rapa. The European population in 1911 was 67, including 9 French, 13 British, and 33 Portuguese.

TUAMOTU ARCHIPELAGO

The Tuamotu or Low Archipelago, known formerly as the Paumotu Archipelago, includes about 80 small islands between latitudes 14° and 25° south and between longitudes 149° and 125° west. The principal islands, Fakarava, Anaa, Kaukura, Rahiroa (Rangiroa), and Makatea, are in the north-west of the archipelago, not far from the Society Islands.

All the islands are of coral formation, and, with two or three exceptions, are low-lying atolls surrounding lagoons varying in width from a few hundred yards to 42 miles (e. g. Rahiroa). Makatea has no barrier reef, but is an island of elevated coral and phosphatic rock rising to a plateau 230 ft. above sea-level, with a slight central depression.

The soil of the islands is seldom deep, and is as a rule very limited in extent. The water-supply is generally poor; there are no streams, and wells are scarce, with an uncertain flow.

The climate is hot and dry, but the mean temperature is lower than in the Society Islands. The south-east trades prevail, but they are unsteady. The conditions are healthy to both natives and Europeans.

The population of the islands in the Tuamotu administration in 1911 was 4,581, including 60 French, 27 British, and 8 Germans, and that of the Tuamotus in the Gambier administration about 900 (see below). Makatea has a population of 866, of whom 345 were Japanese labourers on the phosphate works, 51 French, and 26 Chinese. There are one or two small villages on each of the larger atolls, of which Rotoava on Fakarava is the administrative capital of the Tuamotu Archipelago.

GAMBIER ISLANDS (OR MANGAREVA)

The Gambier Islands lie at the south-eastern end of the Tuamotu Archipelago. The group consists of four principal and several smaller islands enclosed in a barrier reef nearly 40 miles in circumference, and a small isolated atoll called Temoe or Crescent Island. Several islands of the Tuamotu Archipelago are sometimes improperly included in the Gambier group.

The principal islands, unlike those of the Tuamotu Archipelago, are lofty. Mangareva, the largest, rises to a height of 1,325 ft., and there is little low-lying ground. The numerous small coral islands are low-lying but of small value. The soil of the volcanic islands is very fertile. Spring water is scanty and difficult of access even on the larger islands.

The climate may be compared with that of the south of France. There is a hot season from September to March, when the temperature varies from 75° to 80° F. (23.5° to 26.5° C.), and a cool season from April to August, with a temperature ranging from 72° to 76° F. (22.2° to 25° C.). The south-east trade-winds begin about the end of March; from September they decrease in strength, and by December die away altogether. Rain falls in all months; but the largest amount in the last four months of the year. In one year the total rainfall recorded at Rikitea was 107 in. (2.7 m.).

The population of the Gambier administration in 1911 was 1,512, mostly on Mangareva, including 15 French and a very few other white men. This total includes the population of 23 islands of the Tuamotu Archipelago which are within the Gambier administration.

MARQUESAS ISLANDS

The Marquesas Islands lie north of the Tuamotu Archipelago, between latitudes 7° 50' and 10° 35' south and longitudes 138° 25' and 140° 50' west. They comprise eleven islands arranged in two groups. The chief islands in the south-west group are Hivaoa or Dominica, Tahuata or Santa Christina, and Fatuhiva or Magdalena, and in the north-west group Nukahiva or Marchand, Uahuka or Washington, and Uapu or Adams. The total land area of the Marquesas is 491 square miles, of which Nukahiva and Hivaoa, the two largest islands, occupy respectively 186 and 154 square miles.

With the exception of the small, low coral islands in the extreme north, the Marquesas are lofty volcanic islands rising to several thousand feet. In general, from the central mountain narrow ridges separated

by wide valleys run down to the sea. The steep mountain slopes make travel very arduous, and practically all communication is by sea. There are numerous streams affording an excellent water-supply, and the soil on all the large islands is very fertile.

The climate is warm and humid, the mean temperature ranging a few degrees above or below 82° F. (27.7° C.) throughout the year. From April to October the trade-wind between east and south-south-east prevails; from October to April the wind is generally between east and north-north-east. May, June, and July are the wettest months, rainfall then sometimes being extraordinarily heavy. The remaining months are much drier. The climate is healthy for both Europeans and natives, although the latter suffer much from leprosy, tuberculosis and other introduced diseases.

The native population, which is steadily decreasing, numbered 3,116 in 1911. During the last 40 years the decrease has been about 3,000.¹ The European population in 1911 included 108 French, 21 Americans, and 17 Germans, but no British. Hivaoa is the most populous island; but all the islands except the barren rocks are inhabited. The only settlements of importance are Hakapehi in Nukahiva, the former administrative centre, with a population of about 350, and several villages on Hivaoa, one of which, Atuona, is now the capital of the islands.

¹ The figures above quoted for the population of the French Settlements must be considerably modified by the mortality caused by influenza in 1918-19, when the deaths among Polynesians alone in the Society Islands and Makatea amounted to 3,000—or 22 per cent. of all the natives of French Oceania, apart from New Caledonia and its dependencies. (*L'Océanie française*, Jan.-Avril, 1919, p. 24.)

II & III. POLITICAL HISTORY AND SOCIAL & POLITICAL CONDITIONS

CHRONOLOGICAL SUMMARY

- 1595 Spanish discovery of the Marquesas.
1616 Dutch discovery of the Hoorn Islands.
1767 British discovery of the Society (Tahiti) and Low Islands.
1768 British discovery of Wallis Island.
1774 British discovery of New Caledonia and the Isle of Pines.
1791 French discovery of the Huon Islands.
1797 London missionaries arrive in Tahiti.
1800-3 British discovery of the Loyalty Islands.
1827 French expedition surveys the Loyalty Islands.
1842 French Protectorate of Society Islands (Tahiti), the
Windward group, and the Marquesas.
1847 The Leeward group of the Society Islands declared
independent by an agreement between the British
and French Governments.
1853 French annexation of New Caledonia and neighbouring
islands.
1864 French convicts first sent to New Caledonia. Loyalty
Islands annexed.
1880 Tahiti proclaimed a French colony.
1887 Agreement about the Leeward group of islands cancelled.
French protection extended over the whole of the
Society Islands.
1898 New Caledonia ceases to be a penal station.

NEW CALEDONIA AND DEPENDENCIES

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

(1) *Discovery and Annexation*

New Caledonia was discovered in 1774 by Captain Cook. In 1792 it was visited by a French expedition under d'Entrecasteaux. The first recorded visit to the Loyalty Islands was that of Captain Butler.

either in 1800 in H.M.S. *Walpole*, or in 1803 in H.M.S. *Britannia*—it is not certain which. In 1827 a more systematic survey of the Loyalty Islands (which had escaped the notice of Cook) was made by Dumont d'Urville. Soon afterwards Roman Catholic missions were set on foot, which were maintained, though without much success, till the annexation of New Caledonia by France in 1853. It is curious to note that Dr. Lang of Sydney had proposed to the Frankfort Parliament in 1848 that a German colony should be started on this island. It would seem that the French in 1853 narrowly anticipated a British occupation.¹ According to the *Moniteur* of February 14, 1854, the motive for annexation was 'to assure to France in the Pacific the position demanded by its naval interests, military and commercial, and to afford the opportunity of putting in force the Government's views with regard to the treatment of criminals'. The Loyalty Islands were not formally annexed till 1864, the annexation being met with indignant protests by the British missionaries stationed there.

In addition to the Loyalty Islands, the following are dependencies of New Caledonia: the Isle of Pines, annexed at the same time as the main island; Wallis Island; the Huon Islands; the Chesterfield Islands; and the Hoorn Islands.

(2) *Economic Progress*

Convicts were first sent to New Caledonia in 1864. There seems to be a general agreement that its progress was retarded by the system of transportation which at first prevailed. Of the three classes dealt with—political offenders, recidivists, and ordinary criminals—the first, with all their interests centred on France, showed themselves useless for the develop-

¹ *L'Archipel de la Nouvelle-Calédonie*, par A. Bernard, p. 326.

ment of the country; the second had advanced too far on the road to ruin for redemption to be possible; while the unwise treatment of the last prevented their achieving those preparatory works which might have hastened the progress of an infant colony.¹ The system was discontinued in 1898; and from this date the penal element in the population began to diminish.

No doubt the evil associations connected with the transportation system and the unfortunate results of its working have reacted unfavourably upon the development of New Caledonia. On the other hand, it must be remembered that the French are not an emigrating race, and that New Caledonia holds out few inducements to the ordinary emigrant. The native population, which is of a low or primitive type, has steadily decreased. But there is also (according to Mr. Compton) an immigrant population of a higher type.

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

(1) *Religious*

Most of the natives are Christian, with the exception of those of New Caledonia, who remain mostly pagan in spite of the efforts of the missionaries. Protestants preponderate in Tahiti and Roman Catholics elsewhere.

(2) *Political*

The administration of New Caledonia and its dependencies is in the hands of a governor, assisted by a Privy Council; there is an elected General Council which deals with local expenditure; and at the capital

¹ See on this point 'European Influence in the Pacific, 1513-1914', by Sir Everard im Thurn, K.C.M.G. (*Geographical Journal*, April 1915, p. 317), and 'New Caledonia and the Isle of Pines', by R. H. Compton (*Geographical Journal*, February 1917, p. 96).

(Numea), a town of 1,000 inhabitants, there is a Municipal Council. There are similar Councils or Municipal Commissions at some other centres.

(3) *Educational*

Primary education is given in public and private schools, the latter aided from municipal funds.

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS

Schemes of assisted emigration have not, in the past, been attended with success; and it would seem that before the late war New Caledonia was, at best, in a stationary position. Nevertheless, there is a strong belief in its future among Frenchmen interested in colonial questions. The last British consular report upon the colony, for the year 1914, speaks of a marked improvement in its economic conditions, and anticipates that, 'when the present phase has passed, the prosperity existing before the opening of hostilities may reassert itself, for it rested apparently on a solid and lasting basis'.¹

¹ No. 5533, Annual Series, *Diplomatic and Consular Reports*, December 1915, p. 5. This report has a map of the colony. But Mr. Compton writes (*Geographical Journal*, February 1917, p. 96): 'The period of maximum number of convicts was also the period of the maximum prosperity of the French population. . . . The result of the stoppage of transportation has been to create commercial depression; and the prosperity of the colony has been on the downgrade since 1894.'

FRENCH SETTLEMENTS IN OCEANIA

II. POLITICAL HISTORY

(1) *Extent*

The French Settlements in Oceania are the oldest French possessions in the Pacific. They consist of the Windward group of the Society Islands, of which the chief island is Tahiti, in which is the small town of Papeete, the centre of government for French Oceania; the Leeward group of the Society Islands; the Marquesas Islands; the Tuamotu or Low Islands and the Gambier group; and the Tubuai or Austral Islands with the island of Rapa-Iti.

(2) *Early History*

The first discovery was that of one of the Marquesas, visited by the Spaniard Mendaña in 1595, and rediscovered by Captain Cook in 1774. Tahiti was first discovered and visited in June–July 1767, by an Englishman, Captain Wallis, in H.M.S. *Dolphin*. It was named by him King George the Third's Island. In the next year, 1768, it was visited by the Frenchman Bougainville, and in 1769 by Cook. A Spanish vessel appeared on the scene in 1772;¹ and among slightly later visitors should be mentioned Captain Bligh, who was at Tahiti in 1788, and whose ship, the *Bounty*, after the mutiny, was brought back by the mutineers to Tahiti in 1789, and went on thence to Pitcairn Island.

In 1797 the first English missionaries to the Pacific landed at Tahiti; they had been sent out by the (London) Missionary Society. Tahiti thus became the

¹ In regard to this and subsequent Spanish visits reference should be made to *The Quest and Occupation of Tahiti by Emissaries of Spain during the Years 1772–6*, edited for the Hakluyt Society by B. G. Corney. 3 vols. 1913–19.

earliest centre of Protestant mission work in the Pacific, and acquired a strong Protestant and British connexion. In 1825 the Queen of Tahiti asked for permission to use the British flag, and expressed the hope 'that you will never abandon us, but regard us with kindness for ever'.¹ Canning's reply, in 1827, was that the customs of Europe forbade compliance with the request to be allowed to use the British flag, but that the King

'will be happy to afford to yourself and to your dominions all such protection as His Majesty can grant to a friendly Power at so remote a distance from his own Kingdoms'.

(3) *French Intervention*

In November 1836 the British consul, Pritchard, reported that 'at present there are several Frenchmen who are determined to land and reside on this island [Tahiti] as Roman Catholic missionaries'; and he asked for guidance, inasmuch as a Tahitian law provided that no passengers should be landed from a ship without the special permission of the Government. The Queen of Tahiti herself wrote at the same time:

'The Roman Catholic missionaries are obstinately bent on coming to reside at Tahiti, saying that they are sanctioned in the step by the British Government. . . . It is by no means agreeable to us to receive these Roman Catholic missionaries.'

Palmerston's answer, sent in 1837, was in effect to decline British intervention. At the end of August 1838 the French frigate *la Vénus* arrived at Tahiti and Captain Dupetit-Thouars demanded reparation for the treatment of the French missionaries, with the result that, on September 4, 1838, a Convention was signed conceding, in matters of trade and residence, most-

¹ See Parliamentary Paper, *Correspondence relating to the Proceedings of the French at Tahiti, 1825-43*; and *Annual Register* for 1842, pp. 337-341.

favoured-nation treatment to Frenchmen of all denominations.

This was followed in November 1838 by an appeal for British protection, a Tahitian law being passed at the same time to bid the Tahitians 'stand united under that Gospel which the missionaries from Britain have propagated ever since the year 1797'. Palmerston, however, in September 1839, declined to enter into any specific engagement involving defensive obligations, though he coupled his refusal with an assurance of readiness to attend to any representations made and to give the protection of good offices. The sequel was that in September 1842 a French frigate again appeared on the scene; the French admiral in the Pacific again complained of maltreatment of French subjects; and the Queen was forced, on September 9, formally to accept a French Protectorate.

In 1842 the Marquesas Islands also came under French control, prior to the establishment of the French Protectorate of Tahiti; and the importance which the French Government attached to their new acquisitions is shown in the statement of the Minister of Marine in the French Chamber, published in the Parliamentary Paper of 1843 already quoted; it is also given in the *Annual Register* for 1842.

(4) *The Pritchard Case*

The British consul at Tahiti, for some years prior to French intervention, had been George Pritchard, who had originally come out as a missionary and had acquired the full confidence of Queen Pomaré. He was still consul when the events referred to above took place, but was in England in 1842, placing before the British Government the case of the Tahitian Queen and her subjects. He landed again at Tahiti on February 25, 1843. According to

his own account, he found the Queen 'driven from her proper residence by the continual threats made by the French to fire upon her', and had her brought home in a British ship-of-war. The French charged him with endeavouring by all possible means to undermine their authority; and eventually, a native rising having taken place in March 1844, he was seized and imprisoned, being subsequently released on condition that he left the Society Islands for good.

His attitude towards the French had not been in keeping with the policy of Sir Robert Peel's Government, which had decided on not intervening beyond friendly representations to the French Government, so long as the Protestant missionaries were granted equal treatment; and in September 1843 a dispatch had been written to Pritchard (which would not have reached him till months later) plainly disapproving his course of action and strictly enjoining abstention from any opposition to the French. He was described in the House of Lords by the Foreign Minister, Lord Aberdeen, in the debate on the Queen's Speech for 1845, as having exceeded his duty without instructions and without authority. However, his treatment by the French made the situation between Great Britain and France for the moment very serious, a settlement being eventually found in an apology from the French Government and the payment of an indemnity to Pritchard himself.¹

(5) *The Leeward Group*

French relations with the Tahitians remaining unsatisfactory, a Declaration was signed June 19, 1847, by the British and French Governments, acknow-

¹ See three Parliamentary Papers of 1843, 1844, and 1845; *Annual Register* for 1844, pp. 260-1; for 1845, pp. 6-9, &c.; *Dictionary of National Biography*, s.v. G. Pritchard; *Sir R. Peel*, edited by C. S. Parker, vol. iii, p. 394.

ledging the independence of the Leeward Group of the Society Islands, the object being to provide a refuge for Tahitians wishing to emigrate beyond the reach of French control.¹ This engagement was eventually cancelled by a Convention of November 16, 1887, which also related to the New Hebrides, the British Government having already, since 1880, consented to a provisional French Protectorate over one of these islands—the island of Raiatea.² In 1880 Tahiti had been proclaimed a French colony, on the abdication of the son of the former Queen Pomaré.³

The other islands have little or no history, the most interesting incident, perhaps, being the attempt of the captain of an American privateer in the war of 1812—Captain David Porter in the *Essex*—to found an American Station in the Marquesas Islands.⁴

III. SOCIAL AND POLITICAL CONDITIONS

The French Establishments in Oceania are administered by a Governor, with an Administrative Council consisting of three other high officials, the Mayor of Papeete, and the Presidents of the Chambers of Commerce and Agriculture.

Commerce long remained stationary in Tahiti; but from 1908 onwards it increased rapidly, mainly owing to the rise in the price of vanilla and copra. The

¹ See Parliamentary Paper of 1847, 'Papers relating to Tahiti and to the Leeward or Society Islands in the Pacific'. The name of the whole group is now the Society Islands, these being divided into two sub-groups, the Windward and the Leeward.

² See Parliamentary Paper, France, No. 1 (1888). Cd. 5256. February 1888.

³ The authority for this is the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*.

⁴ 'European Influence in the Pacific, 1513-1914.' An Address by Sir Everard im Thurn, K.C.M.G., C.B. *Geographical Journal* for April, 1915.

greater portion of the exports go to the United States, and Great Britain takes rather more than France. The United States and Australasia furnish the bulk of the imports.

There are six primary schools in the islands, and the same number of Mission schools.

IV. ECONOMIC CONDITIONS

Introductory Note

THE French Pacific Islands lie on important trade routes. The routes from Sydney to Vancouver and from Sydney to San Francisco both pass, as a rule, by the southern end of New Caledonia. The French Settlements are almost midway between Australia and the Panama Canal, and afford good ports of call and coaling stations in the south-eastern Pacific. The route from Panama to Sydney passes within a few miles of the harbours of Rapa and Mangareva in the Gambier Islands. A deviation to Papeete in Tahiti, one of the Society Islands, would lengthen the route by about 120 miles, but would yield compensating advantages. Papeete, which is the capital of the Settlements, is situated on the largest and most populous island, and has commercial interests of its own, which neither Rapa nor Mangareva could have, except to a trifling extent. It is also a better port than Rapa, which could be improved only at considerable cost, and even then would not be so satisfactory. Moreover, it would be possible to bring coal to Papeete more cheaply than to Rapa. On the other hand, this route would entail the risk of navigation among the low islands of the Tuamotu group, unless a further deviation were made north-west of them, while better weather would be experienced between Rapa and Sydney. East and west of the Settlements lie British islands which offer no facilities for coaling stations. Clipperton Island, an outlying French possession, lies about 200 miles north

of the route between Panama and Singapore, and almost on the direct route between Panama and Honolulu, but there is no access to its lagoon.

NEW CALEDONIA AND DEPENDENCIES

NEW CALEDONIA

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) *Roads*

There are several excellent roads, suitable for motor traffic, and also some of an inferior description. There is a motor service between Numea and Bourail (125 miles). Northwards from Bourail on the west coast, and along the whole of the east coast, the usual mode of transport is on horseback.

(2) *Rivers*

The rivers are short and unimportant. The Diahot is navigable by boats for 20 miles, but no others for more than 4 or 5 miles.

(3) *Railways*

There is a narrow-gauge, single-track railway between Numea and Paita (about 20 miles). An extension to Bourail is contemplated, which would make a total length of 125 miles. The railway was projected in 1895, but the first loan raised in 1901 was only sufficient to allow of its construction as far as Dumbea (about 10½ miles). This section has been open since 1905, and, in spite of the fact that it cost more than was necessary (about £14,000 per mile) and hardly reached the richer régions of the island, it has nearly covered the expense of construction. The utility of this railway has often been questioned, owing to the small size of the island, and the possibilities of coastal

communication. The latter, however, is often rendered impossible by rough weather ; moreover, the mining and agricultural centres are sometimes as much as 20 kilometres inland. In some cases small lines were constructed by private enterprise to bring the produce to the coast, but a line running parallel to the coast was necessary in order to bring to Numea the produce of the west, and such a line could be constructed only by the colony.

(4) *Telegraph and Telephone*

There are several telegraph and telephone stations on the island.

(5) *Ports*

The island has an excellent harbour at Numea, with naval and commercial coaling stations. It is easy of access, perfectly sheltered, and available for the largest ships. Leading lights mark the fairway. There are over 2,000 ft. of quayage, with 25 ft. of water alongside. There are coal-sheds belonging to the Government on Nou Island, capable of storing 20,000 tons, but they are seldom full. There is a wharf at this coaling station. A stock of about 2,000 tons of coal is usually kept by private firms.

There are several other good harbours. In Prony Bay, at the south end of the island, there is good holding ground, but the water is too deep for convenient anchorage except in Sebart Cove. Tanle Bay, on the north-west, contains the best sheltered harbour on the whole of the west coast. Ohope Bay, immediately to the north of Tanle Bay, and Harcourt Bay at the north end of the island, are also good. On the east coast, Kanala Bay is probably the safest and most commodious anchorage. Several of the harbours besides Numea have leading lights and loading facilities ; others which are much frequented are little

more than open roadsteads, for example, Thio, Paagoumene, and Teoradie.

The Isle of Pines has a restricted anchorage for small vessels in Kuto Bay.

(6) *Shipping*

A steam vessel, under the French flag, runs monthly from Numea to the Loyalty Islands and the New Hebrides. There is also a monthly service to the Isle of Pines, and a fortnightly service along the coast. Most of these services are provided by the Union Commerciale de Navigation Calédonienne. The mails are carried by the vessels of the Messageries Maritimes, which are subsidized at the rate of £15,000 a year by the French Government; and by an Australian company when a freight from Sydney is procurable. The French mail steamers are independent of freight, and arrive regularly. As in the case of other Pacific islands, the shipping facilities were considerably developed in the years just before the outbreak of war. Previously they had been quite insufficient.

By a presidential decree of October 1913, the coastal trade of New Caledonia is reserved to vessels under the French flag. Foreign vessels, however, may be authorized to proceed to any place on the coast other than Numea, but must pay a due of 1 fr. 50 c. per ton of the registered tonnage. Vessels which confine themselves to embarking products of New Caledonia pay at the rate of 1 fr. 50 c. per ton of merchandise loaded. This regulation refers only to foreign vessels coming from abroad; locally-owned craft engaged in the coasting or inland trade must be under the French flag. The rule holds even in the case of pleasure boats, steam launches, &c.

A return of the shipping entered and cleared at the New Caledonian ports during 1913 will be found in Table 1 of the Appendix (p. 60).

(7) *Cable and Wireless Communication*

There is a wireless station at Numea; and a submarine cable connects Gomen Bay, New Caledonia, with Harvey Bay, Queensland.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) LABOUR

The main difficulty in the development of New Caledonia and other French settlements in the Pacific is the scarcity of labour. The native population appears to be steadily decreasing. Moreover, the natives are lazy and capricious, and do not, as a general rule, make good workmen or cultivators. New Caledonians, however, are said to be superior to most Pacific Islanders in this respect.

Attempts have been made to introduce foreign labour, and in 1911 there were Japanese in the island working as miners, *trochus* collectors (see p. 34), servants, and agricultural labourers; also Chinese, acting as domestic servants and field labourers. Latterly a good many Chinese of a not very desirable kind have emigrated to the island and taken up trade as small dealers and shopkeepers. The efforts of France to induce emigration to New Caledonia have met with only partial success.

(2) AGRICULTURE

(a) *Products of Commercial Value*

Although there seems to be no doubt that all the ordinary tropical products could be successfully grown in New Caledonia, the colony is so small and the labour difficulty so serious that it is unlikely that there will ever be a considerable export trade in agricultural produce, with the possible exception of copra.

Coffee plantations are increasing, especially in the

north, but the crop is liable to damage by occasional cyclones and by the pest *Hemileia vastatrix*, which has latterly caused a considerable decrease in the export. Prospects are, however, more hopeful, as varieties of coffee have been introduced which are said to be immune from this plague.

Copra.—The export of copra is set down in the returns for 1913 as 3,165 tons, value £76,092, but from this total must be deducted 240 tons from the New Hebrides. The demand for copra, especially for alimentary purposes, is steadily increasing. The market price was well maintained before the war, and is now likely to rise. It is a matter for regret that the development of this profitable industry, like others in the island, is considerably hampered by the difficulty experienced in obtaining labour.

Cotton-growing was established in the island in 1908, and rapidly increased in importance. As there are no frosts, the plant thrives and is productive for many years. The cotton is of excellent quality and yields abundantly, the price fetched being 50 per cent. higher than good moderate American. In 1913 the value of the cotton exported was £15,000, but the fall in price which took place in August 1914 put an end for the time being to the export, the planters preferring to hold their stocks. One-third of the export came from the New Hebrides.

Other Vegetable Products.—Maize produces two crops a year. There is little ground suitable for rice, and its cultivation is diminishing. Tobacco has been tried, but has not given satisfactory results. The rubber industry almost disappeared from the island at one time, but prospects have since somewhat improved. Successful experiments have been made with vanilla and pine-apples. The natives also cultivate sweet-potatoes, yams, manioc, bananas, plantains, and taro.

Cattle.—It is estimated that there are over 100,000 cattle and about 500,000 sheep in the island. Meat-preserving establishments have been started at Numea and Waco, and preserved meat to the value of £24,000 was exported in 1913.

Guano is found on the Huon Islands and the Chesterfield Islands. On the latter there are said to be 135,000 tons.

(b) *Cultivation and Irrigation*

The natives cultivate carefully, and have considerable skill in irrigation, but the decrease in population has resulted in the abandonment of much arable land. The colonists, on the other hand, employ no methods of irrigation or manuring, and in consequence the soil is soon exhausted and gives poor results. Torrential rains and devastating floods with long periods of drought also make agriculture difficult. It is estimated that the total cultivable area is about 1,500 square miles. An equal amount is suitable only for pasturage, while about 750 square miles are covered with forests.

(c) *Forestry*

The coasts are low and bordered by thick tropical forests, with mangrove swamps in places. The forests also extend inland along the river valleys, but away from the rivers there is grass-land, which becomes parched in summer. The more exposed hill-sides are covered with open savanna, with many low-growing bushes. At a high elevation among the mountains there are dense tropical forests, containing palm-trees, tree-ferns, hard woods, and coniferous trees. Among the forest trees of value are the *kauri*, which provides building timber, rosewood and sandalwood, both of which have been nearly exhausted, ironwood, ebony, and other hard timbers. Bread-fruit, citron, banana,

and other fruit-trees, both native and introduced, do well.

In its timber New Caledonia has a natural resource of which scarcely sufficient use has been made. It possesses enough wood to supply its own needs for building, cabinet-making, &c., and it might even be able to establish a lucrative export trade. Before the war nearly all the timber used on the island was brought from Australia or the United States. In 1914, however, the Société Forestière had begun the exploitation of its forest concessions in the Plaine des Lacs. These forests are especially rich in trees yielding essences.

The forest resources of the dependent islands are negligible.

(d) *Land Tenure*

The Government appear to have no settled policy as regards land tenure, and it is probable that the acquisition of a clear title to land is attended by the same difficulties as those which occur in the case of Tahiti (see below, p. 46). The policy, however, of confining the natives to reservations is gaining ground, though it is very unpopular among them.

(3) FISHERIES

Fish abound in the lagoon. There are no pearl fisheries; but the *trochus*, a conical nacreous shell, is found. Excessive collecting has exhausted the supply except in water too deep for diving, but the industry might be restored to its former importance by a careful restocking of the beds and supervision of the fisheries.

Bêche-de-mer is collected on the reefs. On the Huon and Chesterfield Islands there are many turtles.

(4) MINERALS

The most important ores in the island are those of *nickel*, *chromium*, and *cobalt*. There is also a good deal

of *iron* ore, but for want of good coal it has not been exploited, and much of it is low-grade.

The total of nickel ore cannot be estimated, as much of the country is inadequately explored, but new deposits are continually being found and worked as others become exhausted, and there is as yet no shortage. A large proportion of the poorer nickel ore is treated locally in furnaces which have recently been established on the island. Only the richer grades of ore are now sent abroad. The amount of metal in the so-called *matte*¹ is normally about 50 per cent.

The export of nickel, though an important item in the resources of the island, represents but a small proportion of the world's output, the greater part of which is produced in Canada. The total yield from New Caledonia in 1913 was 10,933 tons of nickel, while in the same year the Canadian *matte* contained 24,838 tons of nickel. The value of New Caledonian nickel is greatly influenced by the market price of the Canadian production.

Chromium occurs as chromite, and a large proportion of the world's production comes from New Caledonia, where the mineral was first discovered in 1894. The richest mine now being worked is the Tiebaghi, which yields per month about 4,000 tons of ore, carrying up to 67 per cent. of chromium. The value of the chromium exported in 1913 was £73,000. Figures showing the countries of destination of the exports of chromium and nickel will be found in Table 3 of the Appendix.

Coal has been found in the island, but not as yet in paying quantities or of good quality. There is considerable difference of opinion as to the prospects of finding better deposits. It would be to the advantage of the island if coal could be mined, as at present

¹ A product obtained in smelting sulphide ores of certain metals, e.g. copper, lead, and nickel. It is crude metal combined with more or less sulphur and requires to be further purified.

furnaces have to depend entirely on imported coal, which is naturally expensive.

Cobalt is found, and used to be mined, but, owing to the discovery of argentiferous cobalt ore in Canada, the New Caledonian industry has been killed and the mines closed.

Copper occurs principally in the Diahot valley in the north; *gold* along the north-east coast; *antimony* at Makety near Kanala, and *manganese* near Gomen and Bourail. All have been mined, but the quantities obtained have been too small to be profitable.

(5) MANUFACTURES

The principal industry of the colony is in connexion with the smelting of nickel and other ores. The Société des Hauts Fourneaux de Nouméa, which commenced operations in 1910, possesses eight furnaces capable of producing 300 tons per month. The *mattes* obtained from the ore treated contain from 40 to 46 per cent. of nickel. The Société Le Nickel has built at Thio a furnace of a capacity of 100 tons, and in 1913 a second and larger one was in course of construction. The Mines du Nord also have extensive smelting works at Thio and Pam.

The Société Le Nickel has factories at Havre and in Scotland. The mineral produced by the Société des Hauts Fourneaux de Nouméa is sent to its factory at Antwerp, and that produced by the Société du Mont Dô and the firm of De Bechade was, before the war, sent to Krupp's factory at Essen.

(6) POWER

There are hydro-electric works in connexion with the smelting industry at Pao and Yate; at Yate the works were in course of construction in 1914. The water-power in the streams must be considerable, and most of it is available throughout the year.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) *Organizations to promote Trade and Commerce*

There is a Chamber of Commerce and Agriculture at Numea. The Syndicat Agricole de la Nouvelle Calédonie represents the interests of the planters, and there is an agricultural bank, the Crédit Agricole de la Nouvelle Calédonie.

(2) *Exports and Imports*

The value of the imports for 1913 was £708,316, and of the exports £633,536. The figures for 1905 were £442,815 and £429,060 respectively.

Between 1905 and 1909 foreign trade decreased, but in 1910 a rapid upward movement began. Although the war inevitably exerted a retarding influence on imports and exports, the total value of foreign trade in 1914 amounted to £1,271,500 (32,073,000 fr.). A comparison of the statistics for the first six months of 1914 with those for the corresponding period of 1913 show an increase of £138,700 (3,500,000 fr.). At present, however, the import figures are abnormally swollen by the importation of mining machinery.

Of the exports in 1913, France took goods to the value of £256,350 (6,465,866 fr.). Next in order as customers came Belgium, Great Britain, the United States, Holland, Germany, and New Zealand. The only export to New Zealand was guano from the Huon Islands, which was exported by the Austral Guano Company, Limited, of Auckland.

Of the imports in 1913, goods to the value of £340,500 (8,587,325 fr.) came from France, but this sum did not represent so large an increase over the previous year's total as that attained by foreign goods; for transport from France, notwithstanding favourable tariff arrangements, is slow and costly. Of the foreign countries,

Australia, as might be expected, sent the highest proportion of goods, the value in 1913 being £181,250 (4,571,525 fr.) ; next in order came Great Britain and Germany.

As to the imports of New Caledonia, it was stated in a Report of the Chamber of Commerce of Numea that

‘ Because of its distance from the mother-country and the high cost of freight, because of its geographical position which places the colony within three days’ steaming from the Australian continent, an abundant producer of all the commodities of temperate climates, and because of the considerable resources of the great Australian cities, New Caledonia is rapidly coming to supply herself in Australia with everything required, at low prices and with credit facilities which are denied her by the French trade. And, no matter what new economic barriers may be erected, New Caledonia, even so, will be obliged to a very great extent to supply herself from Australia.’¹

Further details as to foreign trade are given in Tables 2-5 of the Appendix.

(3) *Customs and Tariffs*

The French system of Customs duties (Tarif Métropolitain) provides for a ‘ general ’ tariff and a ‘ minimum ’ or ‘ preferential ’ tariff. By virtue of commercial treaties or special legislative provisions, certain countries, which extend to French goods their minimum tariffs, enjoy the minimum or preferential tariff in respect of all items subjected to the French tariff. Great Britain is, and Australia is not, included among the countries thus favourably treated. In relation, however, to certain especially exempted articles, the tariff for which is modified by decrees, the general and minimum rates of the metropolitan tariff do not apply.

This system prevails in New Caledonia. French goods are admitted free, except for an *octroi* charge to which all goods imported into the French Pacific

¹ *The Colonial Tariff Policy of France*, by A. Girault, 1916, p. 191.

possessions are subject. Normally this duty is 5 per cent. on the value of the imports.

The tariff is extremely complicated. With regard to certain goods it has been stated that it is impossible to say what the duty will be until a sample has been inspected.

(D) FINANCE

(1) *Public Finance*

The local budget for 1915, including receipts and expenditure, amounted to £172,350 (4,337,000 fr.).

(2) *Currency and Banking*

The currency in use is the French 5 fr. piece with its subdivisions; gold is rare.

At Numea there is a branch of the Banque de l'Indo-Chine which is privileged to issue notes current in the colony. Local bank rates in 1914 were 8 to 10 per cent. and private discount rates from 5 to 6 per cent. Money orders, payable in Paris at $1\frac{1}{4}$ per cent., can be obtained at the Treasury at Numea. Before the war these orders were accepted by merchants in European cities at their face value. Post office orders are issued between Australia and New Caledonia.

A certain amount of banking business is carried on, and banking facilities are given by local merchants.

LOYALTY ISLANDS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) *Roads*

Throughout the islands there is a network of good cart-roads. These are maintained by the natives, who are compelled to furnish the necessary labour.

(2) *Anchorage*

The coasts in most places are steep, but there are several bays, at the head of which are sandy beaches, affording safe landing, except during onshore winds. No island is circled by a continuous reef. The best anchorage is in Sandal Bay, on Lifu, but it is obstructed in places by coral reefs. There are said to be several entrances to Uea lagoon, navigable by large ships; but they are not well charted.

(B) AGRICULTURE AND NATURAL RESOURCES

Vegetation on the islands consists mainly of coco-nut palms near the coast and a few scattered pines in the interior. The soil is thin, and drains rapidly. The natives cultivate a small quantity of yams, bananas, &c., for their own use.

Cotton is said to grow well, but there is little ground available for its cultivation.

Coco-nuts are the main article of commerce and their production constitutes the chief occupation of the natives. Sandalwood used to be the chief product, but is now said to be on the point of exhaustion.

The returns of exports are included in those of New Caledonia (see Appendix), no accurate figures being available for the Loyalty Islands alone.

HOORN AND WALLIS ISLANDS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

Hoorn Islands.—There are no ports on either Futuna or Alofa; but each has a fairly good anchorage sheltered from the prevailing wind.

Both provisions and water are plentiful.

Wallis (Uea) Island.—The only channel through the

reef, except for small boats, is at Honikulu on the south. There are two or three indifferent anchorages.

Pigs, poultry, yams, and bananas are obtainable, but water is very scarce.

In 1913 there was a monthly shipping service to Fiji, and a ship of 2,000 tons from Sydney called four times in the year.

(B) AGRICULTURE AND NATURAL RESOURCES

Labour is, as usual in the Pacific Islands, scarce and unsatisfactory. It has been frequently suggested that Korean or Japanese labour should be introduced.

The islands are capable of considerable agricultural development; at present the chief exports are copra, *bêche-de-mer*, and pearl shells. There are coco-nut plantations on some of the islands. It is possible that other industries, such as coffee and cocoa-growing and rubber-planting, could be carried on, but, as elsewhere in the Pacific, the inhabitants do not take kindly to new forms of cultivation. No separate returns of the imports and exports of the islands are available.

CLIPPERTON ISLAND

There is no entrance to the lagoon. The only possible anchorage is on the north-east side of the island, in 20 to 45 fathoms, and is unsafe owing to the frequent occurrence of northerly squalls. Landing at any other part is generally impossible on account of the surf; and the pier, 141 yds. long, on the south-west, is said to be useless for this reason.

The atoll lies about 200 miles north of the great circle track from Panama to Singapore, and has been suggested as a possible coaling station. The only means of constructing a safe harbour, owing to the deep

water surrounding the atoll, would be to construct a passage into the lagoon. Some of the reefs inside the lagoon would need to be cleared away. The depth of the lagoon varies from a foot to 55 fathoms.

Guano deposits exist on the island. It has no other resources.

FRENCH SETTLEMENTS IN OCEANIA

SOCIETY ISLANDS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) *Roads*

An excellent road, known as the Broom Road, extends all round the island of Tahiti, save for fifteen miles at the eastern end, where the cliffs are impassable. There is also telephonic communication.

(2) *Ports*

All the islands have anchorages within the lagoons, though in many cases, on account of the tortuous nature of the channel, they are accessible only for small vessels. The best harbours are at Papeete and Port Phaeton on Tahiti. There are also good harbours suitable for large vessels at Huahine, Moorea, Raiatea, Tahaa, and Bora Bora.

Papeete.—This is the chief port and best harbour on the island of Tahiti. It is enclosed between the shore and the barrier reef; through the latter there is a narrow channel, which, by dredging, has been deepened to allow vessels drawing 30 ft. to pass. The harbour affords anchorage in from 10 to 15 fathoms over a space of about a mile in length and half a mile in breadth, with good holding ground. There are several quays which offer accommodation to vessels of large size. The total wharfage available is 2,567 ft., with

from 16 to 21 ft. of water alongside, while 25 ft. away from the wharf the depth is 28 ft. A wharf 650 ft. long and with 31 ft. of water alongside is projected. There is a coal hulk in the harbour and a coaling depot is to be built near the proposed wharf. There is a repair slip, which can take vessels of 500 tons.

Papeete is the most easterly of the good ports in the Pacific islands, and is bound to be of great importance if trade develops on the routes between Panama and Australia and New Zealand. The French are fully alive to this, and for some years had been discussing the improvement of the harbour and the establishment of a large coal depot, but though surveys and reports had been made, nothing more had actually been done up to the end of 1914.

Port Phaeton.—Port Phaeton is situated on the south of the isthmus of Taravao, which divides the island of Tahiti into two unequal parts. This natural port has an area of about 2 square miles, with a depth of from 30 to 100 ft., but is encumbered with coral patches. The principal entrance channel is about 130 ft. wide and 60 ft. deep

Bora Bora.—On the west of this island there is a magnificent roadstead, nearly 2 miles in length and averaging one mile in width. This harbour, though little used as yet, is probably superior to Papeete, and has been considered as a possible trans-oceanic port of call. It has an easy entrance with $5\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms of water; and there is good commodious anchorage in 14 to 17 fathoms, well sheltered on the north side by rising land.

(3) *Shipping Lines*

The Union Steamship Company of New Zealand maintains a four-weekly service between Wellington and San Francisco, calling at Rarotonga and Tahiti. It receives a subsidy from the French local Government

for carrying the Society Islands' mails, and the steamers are under a contract to remain at least 24 hours in port at Papeete, during each voyage. The same company also runs a steamer from Auckland every month to Papeete and back, calling at the principal Leeward Islands, and usually at one or more of the Hervey and Cook Islands as well.

Before the war the Compagnie navale de l'Océanie dispatched a vessel once a quarter from Antwerp, calling at Dunkerque and Bordeaux, with cargo for Numea and Tahiti; and it seems likely that this service may be resumed *via* the Panama canal. The New Zealand Shipping Company also maintains a monthly service from Plymouth to New Zealand *via* Panama, whose vessels sometimes call at Tahiti.

The Compagnie Navale de l'Océanie has established since 1913 a regular service for inter-insular trade, in which there are also engaged a varying number of small craft. All vessels engaged in this trade must sail under the French flag. Communications between the islands are yearly improving.

The shipping facilities, both inter-insular and external, have much improved during recent years. A return of the shipping at Papeete and Makatea in 1913 will be found in Table A of the Appendix, p. 63.

(4) *Wireless Communication*

There is a wireless telegraph station at Papeete, able to communicate with Samoa and Hawaii.

(B) INDUSTRY

(1) LABOUR

The islands suffer most seriously from a deficiency of labour. The whole colony, which could easily support some 200,000 inhabitants, has to-day barely 27,000, including Europeans, Americans, Chinese, and

natives. The lack of labour is seriously handicapping industry, and the islands have probably almost reached the limit of production possible with the labour at present obtainable. Moreover, labour is not merely scarce, but also expensive. Probably the only solution of the problem lies in the importation of labour; this has been attempted on some of the islands, but never on a large scale. The immigration of Chinese during recent years has improved the prospect of the labour market. The effect of their arrival is, however, diminished by the fact that they engage chiefly in petty trade, thus leaving the supply of agricultural labour practically unaltered. In the western (Leeward) group of islands labour is rather more plentiful and somewhat better in quality than on Tahiti.

(2) AGRICULTURE

(a) *Products of Commercial Value*

The mountain-sides and coastal plains are covered with forests, except where cleared for cultivation. Among the important native products are the coco-nut, bamboo, bread-fruit, sugar-cane, *ape*, and taro. These are cultivated, as well as cotton, coffee, tobacco, vanilla, the orange, lime, mango, and other fruit-trees. Manioc and maize grow well. It is calculated that on Tahiti and Moorea only 1 to 2 per cent. of the total cultivable area is under crops, in spite of the fertility of the soil.

At present copra and vanilla are the most important articles of export. Vanilla suffered a depreciation in the European markets at one time owing to poorness of quality caused by premature gathering and bad airing, but since the institution of a strict official control its quality has much improved.

The copra industry is the main source of wealth in Tahiti. The coco-nut palm yields in from six to ten

years after its planting. It is probable that the islands have reached their maximum output of copra under the existing conditions of labour.

Cotton is grown, but the plants have been allowed to go on bearing unduly long. The Société Cotonnière Française has established itself on Tahiti, and a ginnery has been erected on Raiatea. The shortage of labour has, however, seriously affected the industry.

There are large quantities of fowls and wild ducks on Tahiti. Horses of a small but useful breed are numerous. There are few horned cattle, but sheep and goats are plentiful.

(b) *Forestry*

It does not appear that the forest resources of Tahiti, other than coco-nut palms, have been much exploited.

(c) *Land Tenure*

Genuine titles to land are at present very difficult to obtain, and any one buying a plantation or property on Tahiti is likely to find himself involved in litigation. Further, the natives are much opposed to selling or leasing land, even land which they do not cultivate. To meet this difficulty there has been some talk of the imposition of a land-tax which will compel the owner either to cultivate, lease, or sell his land. If the labour and land questions can be settled, there is probably a very fair opening for planters and companies in Tahiti.

(C) COMMERCE

(1) *Organizations to promote Trade and Commerce*

There are Chambers of Commerce and Agriculture at Papeete.

(2) *Exports and Imports*

The exports in 1913 were of a value of £462,180 (11,554,507 fr.); 51 per cent. went to the United

States, whose share in the trade of the islands is yearly increasing. The imports in 1913 were of a value of £361,219 (9,030,474 fr.); 47 per cent. came from the United States. The figures include the trade for the Tuamotu, Gambier, Marquesas, and Makatea Islands. Trade shows a considerable increase.

The value of the exports to the United States in 1913 was £231,907 (5,797,689 fr.). Next in order as buyers came France and her colonies, £63,156 (1,578,908 fr.), Great Britain, £61,817 (1,545,442 fr.), New Zealand, £10,316 (257,906 fr.), and Germany, £2,321 (58,047 fr.).

Exports of mother-of-pearl, fungus, and cotton were decreasing in 1913; those of other products increasing.

The value of the imports from the United States in 1913 was £171,218 (4,280,455 fr.). Next in order came New Zealand and Australia, £74,821 (1,870,538 fr.), France, £58,897 (1,472,434 fr.), Great Britain, Germany, and the French colonies.

Imports from all countries are increasing, more especially timber, benzine, and food-stuffs from the United States, and woven stuffs from Great Britain.

(3) *Customs and Tariffs*

In the case of Tahiti and its dependencies the *Tarif Métropolitain* does not apply, but special rates have been fixed for foreign merchandise. These rates are high, and are further increased by an *octroi de mer* ranging from 8 to 15 per cent. The average duty on imported foreign articles is about 31 per cent.

(D) FINANCE

(1) *Public Finance*

Receipts and expenditure for 1912 amounted to £145,082 and £127,631 respectively. The figures for 1908 were £80,861 and £80,832. More than half the revenue of the colony is derived from the customs

and *octroi de mer*, four-fifths of which goes to the administration, and the remainder to the municipality. The value of the imports, and therefore the financial position of the colony, depends on the market obtained for the produce of the islands, as any increase in prosperity is always reflected in an increase of imports. Owing to the uncertainty produced by this situation, the administration wishes to form a reserve fund.

At the end of May 1913, there was a reserve of £43,530, and it was expected that at the end of May 1914 there would be an additional sum of £31,700.

(2) *Currency and Banking*

There is a branch of the Banque de l'Indo-Chine at Tahiti ; there is also a Caisse Agricole or Agricultural Credit Bank, which was founded as far back as 1863. The currency is French ; the notes of the Banque de l'Indo-Chine are also used.

(3) *Influence of Foreign Capital*

At the beginning of the war there were two important British firms and one or two others. These houses transacted 25 per cent. of the import and export trade, and their vested interests are greater than those of any other nationality in these waters.

Before the war there were three German firms which did 17 per cent. of the trade.

Notwithstanding the fact that the United States do so large a proportion of the trade of Tahiti, there is no American firm in the islands.

A large proportion of the vanilla export trade is in the hands of Chinese. They are to be found in every little village on Tahiti, and do a large business in distributing certain lines of imports.

TUBUAI ISLANDS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

Ports

Each of the Tubuai or Austral Islands has one or more so-called ports, but there are only two good harbours, Raiurua in the island of Raivavae, and Ahurei Bay in Rapa Island, the remainder being only partially sheltered anchorages.

Raiurua.—Raiurua is at the western end of Raivavae. It is a large and deep bay, affording excellent anchorage in any wind. Owing to difficulties of navigation it is not used by sailing-vessels, but steam vessels of any size can enter or leave with safety. There is a stone wharf with two fathoms of water alongside.

Ahurei.—This is the best harbour in the Tubuai Islands. The entrance to the bay is narrow and intricate, though for the most part deep. The difficulty could be overcome by the removal of some of the reefs, but more serious drawbacks are the prevalent onshore winds to which the entrance is exposed, and the erratic squalls which blow down from the hills. The anchorage is well sheltered though rather deep—10 to 29 fathoms. The holding ground is not very good, being a thin layer of mud over coral, but the anchorage is so well protected that there is little danger of dragging. The bay is open to the eastward, whence the prevailing winds blow, but the reef and islands prevent the sea from entering, and the surface of the bay is always smooth. The bay is half a mile wide and $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles long. Fogs are of fairly frequent occurrence over and in the immediate vicinity of the island. Supplies (goats, pigs, fruit, and vegetables) may be obtained at the villages, and there is a waterfall near Area village from the foot of which good water is obtainable.

For a long time these islands depended for communications upon the irregular visits of commercial steamers, which took place chiefly during the pearl fishery season. In 1914, however, a service between the French islands of the Pacific was instituted, through which the islands are visited twice a year.

(B) AGRICULTURE AND NATURAL RESOURCES

All the larger islands are thickly wooded, except near their summits. Some sandalwood is found. Bananas, oranges, and yams are grown and do well, while manioc, arrowroot, and sugar-cane are grown in small quantities. The principal product of the islands is taro, the fermented root of which is exported to the Tuamotu Islands. Coco-nuts do not flourish. There is little land available for agriculture and no scope for large plantations. Live stock, both wild and domesticated, is plentiful.

Conditions on the island of Rapa are much the same as on the other islands. Its importance lies in its possible adaptation as a coaling depot for trans-oceanic steamers. A deposit of coal, of unknown extent, has been found on the north side at an elevation of 650 ft. No serious attempt has been made to work it, though the surface coal has been tried and gave fair results when used in a French dispatch boat. A report from a French source states that the deposit, which is said to be lignite of a reasonably good quality, would be adequate for industrial purposes, but valueless as steam coal for marine engines.

TUAMOTU ARCHIPELAGO

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) *Ports*

The seaward sides of the atolls in the Tuamotu or Low Archipelago are generally steep-to and afford no anchorage, while landing is impossible on account of the surf. Many of the lagoons have no entrance; others have only a boat passage. There are several good anchorages within the open lagoons, the best being in Fakarava, Toau, and Makemo. Others not quite so good are in Rahiroa (the largest atoll of the group), Raroia, Kauehi, Tahanea, and Tikehau.

Toau.—There are two channels into the lagoon, one of which is safe for vessels drawing 25 ft., while the other is suitable only for small vessels. The anchorage is reported to be good and the lagoon to be comparatively free from coral heads.

Fakarava.—Three channels lead into the lagoon, which is roughly rectangular, 32 miles in length by 10 miles in width. The best channel is the North Pass, which has a minimum depth of 6 fathoms, and is wide and clear of dangers. The South Pass is also deep enough for large vessels, but is somewhat intricate; it could, however, be improved by buoys and beacons. The anchorage has good holding ground in 7 to 14 fathoms, and there is a pier for landing. Winds from the south-south-east to the west-south-west through south tend to raise an unpleasant sea, but there is little danger of dragging. Supplies are not plentiful, but a few pigs and fowls may be obtained, and fairly good water may be got in small quantities by digging.

Makemo.—There are two entrances into the lagoon, that nearest the eastern end being available for large vessels, as it is deep and clear of dangers. The lagoon is fairly free from coral heads and shoals, and there is

good anchorage in 7 to 8 fathoms off a mole at Puheva village. Pigs, fowls, and good water are obtainable. Many of the fish in the lagoons are poisonous.

These islands are very dangerous to shipping, as they are low-lying and difficult to see; further, as they are surrounded by deep water, it is not possible for ships to tell by sounding when they are approaching them, or to anchor if they are threatened with being driven ashore.

Makatea.—This island has no anchorage. Vessels moor to buoys in deep water off the jetty belonging to the Compagnie Française des Phosphates de l'Océanie.

(2) *Shipping Lines*

The service between the French islands of the Pacific, instituted in 1914, provides for visits to certain of the islands once every month.

(B) AGRICULTURE AND NATURAL RESOURCES

The chief resources of the islands are copra and mother-of-pearl. There is little cultivation except of a few fruits for native use.

Pearls and pearl-oysters are found in some of the lagoons; they are of a quality not inferior to those found in Ceylon. It seems probable that the oyster fishing is imperfectly supervised; if the lagoons were properly cultivated and restocked and the fisheries carried on by the best methods and effectively controlled, the export of mother-of-pearl could be very largely increased.

The value of the export of mother-of-pearl for 1912 was £32,000. The export of copra in 1912 amounted to 1,588 tons. This figure represents only about one-third of the total production of the islands, a large

amount having been destroyed by rats. Normally, one-third of the produce is used by the inhabitants.

The exports are steadily increasing. In 1914 the export of copra amounted to 3,279 tons, and of mother-of-pearl to 282 tons. The corresponding figures for 1916 were 4,533 and 687.

Phosphate is found at Makatea. The deposits are of considerable importance, though relatively small compared with those believed to exist on other islands in the Pacific, for example Nauru (formerly German, now British) and Ocean Island (British).¹ Nauru alone is estimated to contain 300 million tons of phosphate, as against 10 million tons on Makatea. Too much weight should not be attached to estimates of this kind, but the deposits are undoubtedly among the most important assets of the French islands in the Pacific.

The phosphate on Makatea is, like all that found in the Pacific islands, of first-rate quality and, notwithstanding the heavy freight charges, it is able to compete in Europe with American phosphates. It has been exploited since 1906 by the *Compagnie Française des Phosphates de l'Océanie*, which has undertaken its development with energy and some success. Mining is easy, but loading conditions are difficult, owing to the steep nature of the coast and the want of anchorage. A pier 330 yds. long has been constructed; a hauling apparatus has been erected, as the cliffs are steep and inaccessible; and several miles of light railway have been built. In 1913 the exports of phosphates from Makatea are stated to have been of the value of £65,000 (82,000 tons), more than double the figures for 1912.

¹ See 'The Phosphatic Wealth of Nauru' in the *British Australian* (London), for Dec. 4, 1919.

GAMBIER ISLANDS (OR MANGAREVA)

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) *Roads*

The principal inhabited centres are linked together by mule paths, which are comparatively good, but lack of labour prevents their being properly maintained.

(2) *Ports*

There are three entrances into the lagoon. The best seems to be the south-east passage which has a minimum depth of $5\frac{1}{2}$ fathoms. The only well-sheltered anchorage within the lagoon is Port Rikitea, the capital, situated on the eastern side of the island of Mangareva. It is now accessible only by vessels drawing not more than 12 ft. It has, however, been suggested that by clearing a part of the lagoon of coral heads a good anchorage for large ships might be formed, but the surveys made up to the present cannot be trusted.

The Gambier Islands lie very nearly midway between Wellington (New Zealand) and Panama, and, if a harbour could be made, would be valuable as a coaling station and port of call.

Water is obtainable, but the supply is indifferent.

(3) *Shipping Lines*

For many years the Gambier Islands were visited only at irregular intervals by small commercial steamers, chiefly during the pearl-fishery season, but in 1914 a service was instituted between the French possessions in the Pacific, by means of which the islands were regularly visited twice a year.

(B) AGRICULTURE AND NATURAL RESOURCES

Oranges, coco-nuts, and other tropical fruits are grown.

Goats and fowls are kept; fish are plentiful. The principal occupations of the natives are pearl-shell gathering and fishing. The value of the pearl-shell fisheries is estimated at between £10,000 and £15,000 per annum.

The cultivation of coffee is said to be gradually increasing, want of labour being the main difficulty in its production. Vanilla could be grown, but its production has never been undertaken. Cotton used to be cultivated, but has now been abandoned.

The exports are included in the figures given for the Society Islands.

MARQUESAS ISLANDS

(A) MEANS OF COMMUNICATION

(1) *Roads*

Roads are very much needed, there being only mule paths, which are often in bad condition.

(2) *Ports*

Anchorage are numerous, but few of them are well sheltered from the ocean swell. There is, however, scarcely an island without at least one anchorage that will serve under any given conditions of wind and sea. On Hivaoa the harbours of Puamau, Hanaiapa, Hanamenu, and Taahuku are fairly good, but the best harbours are on Nukahiva, where Comptroller Bay, Taioa, and Taiohae or Anna Maria Bay are all safe. There is also a good harbour at Shavay Bay in Uahuka. Artificial harbour construction would be costly owing

to the absence of sheltering reefs and the strength of the swell.

Pigs and fowls are obtainable on most of the islands, but it is frequently difficult to obtain fresh water except on Tauata.

Taioa.—There is a land-locked harbour here suitable for fair-sized vessels. One or two large vessels could enter, but the space with more than 7 fathoms of water is limited.

Taiohae.—This is a safe and comfortable harbour for all classes of vessels. About one square mile of its area is available for large ships. A bigger wharf is required. There are leading lights and a pier.

Shavay Bay.—This bay is protected to seaward by islets, and has good anchorage for any vessels in 10 to 15 fathoms with good holding ground.

(3) *Shipping Lines*

A motor schooner sails about eight times a year between certain of the Marquesas Islands and Tahiti.

(B) AGRICULTURE AND NATURAL RESOURCES

Cotton, sugar-cane, cassava, coffee, oranges, and other fruits are cultivated, besides coco-nuts and taro. Cotton used to be exported in fair quantities, but the export has now nearly ceased. The sole product of commercial importance at present is copra, of which about 1,500 tons are produced yearly. In 1914 1,200 tons, and in 1915 1,930 tons, of copra were received in Tahiti from the islands. Guavas grow wild.

Cattle, both wild and domesticated, are abundant in some of the islands.

The amount of cultiyable land in proportion to the area of the islands is large, but little utilized.

On most of the islands are gaseous mineral springs of an alkaline nature, and there is a sulphur spring at Tarna Bay in Hivaoa ; otherwise there are no minerals.

The exports are included in the figures for the Society Islands.

GENERAL REMARKS

With the exception of those islands which are of special economic importance owing to their mineral deposits, that is to say New Caledonia and Makatea, the prospects of all the French possessions in the Pacific are affected by the same main considerations.

All the islands are alike in suffering from shortage of labour and insecurity of land tenure. The unsatisfactory results obtained from convict labour, the unsuitability of the natives for regular work, and the failure to devise a successful system for the introduction of labour from outside have hitherto been the chief obstacles to the industrial progress of these colonies. At the same time a further hindrance is caused by the adverse effect of the lack of a settled land policy on the immigration of settlers and the investment of capital. The solution of these two problems is essential to the development of the islands.

Partly as a result of the labour conditions, copra is the main product in all the islands, with the exception of New Caledonia and Makatea. The growing demand for coco-nut oil as an ingredient in margarine is likely for some time to keep open a market for this product. Recently the local price of copra has rarely fallen below £20 per ton, a rate which admits of a satisfactory margin of profit. Central Africa with its enormous resources of oil-seeds of various kinds threatens to prove a serious competitor in the supply of European requirements. On the other hand, the removal of the restrictions that have hampered the development of

the margarine and soap industries in Australia would result in a great increase in the Australian demand for copra. Since Lever Brothers established mills near Sydney, and sailing vessels were superseded by steamers, the export of copra from these islands to Australia has increased.

Other products of importance are to be found in the various islands, as, for example, coffee in New Caledonia, vanilla in the Society Islands; but the development of these as of all other industries is dependent on the provision of an adequate supply of labour.

In the islands distinguished from the rest by the possession of minerals, there has been considerable economic development during the past few years. In New Caledonia, the increase in prosperity dates from the year 1910, in which ended the last of the periods of financial depression which have marked the colony hitherto. These crises have been attributed to fluctuations in the exploitation of the minerals of the colony, and the recent establishment of smelting works at Pao and Yate is the best provision against their recurrence. On the other hand, the dependence of the nickel industry on the much more considerable industry of Canada introduces an element of uncertainty into the prospects of the colony.

M. Girault is of opinion that the subjecting of New Caledonia to the provisions of the National Customs Tariff has been the main cause of the slow development of the colony, and expects great results from the proposed measure to remove New Caledonia from the list of 'assimilated' colonies.¹

Another factor in the development of the islands is the possibility, to which reference has been made, that the trade routes between the American and Australian continents might be deflected to touch

¹ *The Colonial Tariff Policy of France, 1916.*

certain of the ports. This has already taken place to some extent, regular calls being made at Tahiti by steamers of the Union Steamship Company of New Zealand, once a month each way, and occasional calls by those of the New Zealand Shipping Company using the Panama Canal to and from England. It may be hoped that improved communications will lead to an increased interest in the colonies and to the removal of the obstacles that hinder their progress.

APPENDIX

NEW CALEDONIA

TABLE 1

*Return of Shipping at Numea and other Ports in New Caledonia
in 1913*¹

<i>Nationality.</i>	<i>Entered.</i>		<i>Entered.</i>	
	<i>With cargo.</i>		<i>In ballast.</i>	
	<i>Vessels.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>	<i>Vessels.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>
French	33	81,099	3	6,366
British	1	2,216	8	24,020
Norwegian	—	—	8	14,833
German	—	—	1	3,718
United States	1	525	—	—
Japanese	—	—	1	1,897
	—	—	—	—
Total	35	83,840	21	50,834

Cleared.

<i>Nationality.</i>	<i>With cargo.</i>		<i>In ballast.</i>	
	<i>Vessels.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>	<i>Vessels.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>
French	32	85,743	—	—
British	6	18,886	2	5,066
Norwegian	6	11,842	—	—
German	1	3,718	—	—
United States	—	—	1	525
Japanese	—	—	1	1,897
	—	—	—	—
Total	45	120,189	4	7,488

Note.—S.S. *Pacifique* (Messageries Maritimes) and S.S. *St. Louis* (Union Commerciale de Navigation Calédonienne), which make regular four-weekly trips to Sydney, are not included in this list.

¹ British Consular Report for the year 1913 on the Trade of New Caledonia.

TABLE 2

Return of Exports, 1908, 1913, 1914.¹

	1908. Francs.	1913. Francs.	1914. Francs.
Bêche-de-mer	45,662	23,749	22,582
Coffee	609,364	1,478,774	864,968
Copra	432,926	1,902,312	1,438,949
Cotton and cotton seed	1,100	415,231	614,364
Essences	76,579	19,290	14,922
Guano	104,000	84,000	120,000
Hides, skins, raw wool, bones, and hoofs	242,185	460,926	467,640
Lard	26,024	61,526	53,100
Maize	37,423	35,652	35,429
Minerals			
Nickel matte	—	3,753,791	3,625,567
Nickel ore	4,200,939	2,858,635	2,824,020
Chrome ore	2,091,626	1,829,102	2,707,184
Cobalt matte	—	—	43,236
Cobalt ore	390,329	—	80,960
Pearl shells	162,038	931,757	558,108
Preserved meat	423,596	609,623	869,790
Rubber	90,111	14,647	1,588
Sandalwood	124,529	86,251	63,865
Wines, spirits, &c.	136,553	188,506	186,441
Miscellaneous	915,863	1,084,633	875,894
Total	10,110,847	15,838,405	15,468,607

¹ *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies Françaises.*

TABLE 3

Countries of Destination of Exports, 1908, 1913, 1914.¹

(a) Minerals.

	1908. Francs.	1913. Francs.	1914. Francs.
Australia			
Nickel ore	—	15	2,894
Chrome ore	147,298	—	19
Cobalt ore	82,102	—	—
Belgium			
Nickel ore	489,103	849,282	550,386
Nickel matte	—	2,121,174	1,657,851
Chrome ore	6,706	—	416,823
France			
Nickel ore	1,253,827	426,797	700,794
Nickel matte	—	732,617	—
Chrome ore	10,912	92,068	223,683
Cobalt ore	156,082	—	—
Germany			
Nickel ore	430,635	374,005	306,178
Chrome ore	—	—	347,472
Holland			
Nickel ore	206,451	66,597	—
Chrome ore	605,372	474,876	350,254
United Kingdom			
Nickel ore	1,820,923	1,141,939	1,263,768
Nickel matte	—	900,000	1,754,138
Chrome ore	714,250	542,598	424,810
Cobalt ore	152,145	—	80,960
Cobalt matte	—	—	43,236
United States			
Nickel matte	—	—	213,578
Chrome ore	607,088	719,560	944,123
Total	6,682,894	8,441,528	9,280,967

¹ *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies Françaises.*

(b) Other goods.

		1908. Francs.	1913. Francs.	1914. Francs.
Australia	Copra	130,352	172,427	107,067
	Hides	214,705	443,843	445,489
	Miscellaneous	429,083	215,585	161,125
France	Coffee	608,069	1,474,635	861,720
French Colonies	Copra	294,174	1,730,085	1,331,882
	Mother-of-pearl shell	160,806	927,740	548,647
	Preserved meat	389,462	583,002	768,294
	Miscellaneous	239,100	713,063	913,811
New Hebrides	Metal goods	64,965	60,323	90,257
	Rice	73,572	113,281	75,013
	Textiles	87,372	133,363	64,450
	Wines, spirits, &c.	100,698	136,217	121,546
	Miscellaneous	370,855	456,672	341,348
New Zealand	Guano	—	84,000	120,000
Other countries and ships' provisions	Miscellaneous	264,740	152,641	236,991
Total		3,427,953	7,396,877	6,187,640
Grand Total		10,110,847	15,838,405	15,468,607

TABLE 4

Return of Imports, 1908, 1913, 1914.¹

	1908. Francs.	1913. Francs.	1914. Francs.
Boots and shoes	195,534	328,358	274,782
Cheese and lard	180,535	290,831	168,659
Coal	216,189	984,929	1,479,200
Coffee	—	500,473	465,028
Copra	—	146,854	478,950
Flour	984,835	943,071	959,311
Iron :			
Manufactured articles	770,525	2,211,844	1,408,446
Rails	125	111,885	41,284
Galvanized iron	111,910	242,797	44,893
Maize and rice	466,519	567,885	546,927
Paper	95,069	113,289	112,518
Petroleum	159,914	293,231	244,754
Potatoes	—	170,292	164,943
Preserved meat	48,663	70,242	51,104
Sugar	242,097	406,948	408,574
Textiles (including manufactured goods)	1,262,929	2,284,778	1,844,934
Tobacco, cigars, and cigarettes	335,110	445,076	381,243
Wine	1,053,900	1,683,192	1,522,557
Wood	73,541	222,894	389,669
Miscellaneous	3,110,034	5,689,047	5,616,658
Total	9,307,429	17,707,916	16,604,434

¹ *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies Françaises.*

TABLE 5

Countries of Origin of Imports, 1908, 1913, 1914.¹

		1908.	1913.	1914.
		<i>Francs.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>	<i>Francs.</i>
Australia . . .	Flour	984,835	942,969	959,234
	Metal goods	212,453	344,619	421,796
	Textiles	129,697	311,914	260,368
	Miscellaneous	1,938,846	2,972,023	3,131,011
Belgium . . .	Coal (see note 2)	—	281,969	466,789
	Miscellaneous	—	307,673	403,038
France . . .	Metal goods	515,376	871,463	586,698
	Textiles	999,700	1,715,181	1,414,172
	Wines, spirits, &c.	1,279,928	2,047,141	1,794,045
	Miscellaneous	2,400,595	3,953,540	3,323,481
French Colonies . . .	Rice	299,531	301,738	—
	Miscellaneous	2,146	16,162	63,667
French bonded warehouses . . .	Miscellaneous (see note 2)	—	848,997	621,907
Germany . . .	„	7,027	104,727	—
Japan . . .	„ (see note 2)	—	61,254	202,432
New Hebrides . . .	Coffee	12,582	497,539	462,851
	Copra	41,266	146,854	444,807
	Cotton	—	467,971	546,552
	Miscellaneous	124,364	147,604	293,456
	Miscellaneous	—	49,868	100,146
New Zealand . . .	Coal	—	377,698	449,158
	Metal goods	17,058	535,409	12,424
	Miscellaneous	149,505	206,897	55,500
	Miscellaneous	3,677	118,330	222,642
United States . . .	„	188,843 ²	78,376	368,260
Other countries . . .	„	—	—	—
Grand total . . .		9,307,429	17,707,916	16,604,434

¹ *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies Françaises.*² This figure includes such imports as there were from French bonded warehouses, Belgium, New Zealand, and Japan.

FRENCH SETTLEMENTS IN OCEANIA

TABLE A

(1) *Return of Shipping at Papeete and Makatea, 1913.¹*

		Vessels.	Tonnage.
<i>Papeete.</i>			
Entered . . .	69	219,619	
Cleared . . .	62	210,476	
<i>Makatea.</i>			
Entered . . .	17	40,016	
Cleared . . .	19	43,493	
Total . . .	167	513,604	

¹ British Consular Report on the Trade and Commerce of the Society Islands in 1913.

(2) *Nationality of Shipping entered and cleared at Papeete and Makatea, 1913.*

	<i>Vessels.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>
France	27	81,090
Japan	5	15,393
Norway	—	—
United Kingdom	100	400,309
United States	35	16,812

(3) *Return of Inter-insular Trade, 1913.¹*

	<i>Vessels.</i>	<i>Tonnage.</i>
Entered	246	10,026
Cleared	255	10,146
Total	501	20,172

¹ British Consular Report on the Trade and Commerce of the Society Islands in 1913.

TABLE B

Return of Exports, 1908, 1913, 1914.¹

	<i>1908.</i> <i>Francs.</i>	<i>1913.</i> <i>Francs.</i>	<i>1914.</i> <i>Francs.</i>
Bêche-de-mer.	37,115	2,388	588
Bees-wax	7,459	8,990	3,621
Coco-nuts	81,153	123,223	113,058
Copra	1,276,312	4,419,964	3,523,635
Cotton	30,436	46,104	28,673
Fungus	28,641	11,326	895
Mother-of-pearl	795,618	987,740	721,184
Oranges	41,578	59,420	85,584
Phosphates	—	1,641,134	1,458,495
Vanilla	693,644	4,032,507	2,413,648
Miscellaneous.	153,372	221,711	168,571
Total	3,145,328	11,554,507	8,517,952

¹ *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies Françaises.*

TABLE C

Countries of Destination of Exports, 1908, 1913, 1914.¹

		<i>1908.</i> <i>Francs.</i>	<i>1913.</i> <i>Francs.</i>	<i>1914.</i> <i>Francs.</i>
Australia and New Zealand	Copra	41,635	119,629	116,497
	Miscellaneous	167,075	138,277	264,495
France	Copra	—	933,154	1,175,505
	Vanilla	64,972	514,835	342,343
	Miscellaneous	76,934	130,919	272,825
Germany.	Miscellaneous	55,948	58,047	7,792
United Kingdom	Copra	20,342	606,669	15,508
	Mother-of-pearl	721,596	838,463	435,021
	Vanilla	19,216	98,226	17,940
	Miscellaneous	3,022	2,084	26,032
United States	Copra	959,764	2,225,183	2,216,175
	Vanilla	547,756	3,339,804	1,889,479
	Miscellaneous	97,256	232,702	228,617
Other countries	Miscellaneous	369,812	2,316,515	1,509,723
Total		3,145,328	11,554,507	8,517,952

¹ *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies Françaises.*

TABLE D

Return of Imports, 1908, 1913, 1914.¹

	1908. Francs.	1913. Francs.	1914. Francs.
Benzine	40,828	167,544	147,516
Biscuits	79,126	152,247	158,849
Boots and shoes	54,596	186,323	151,502
Butter (salted).	82,935	191,747	163,373
Cattle	31,432	98,058	134,469
Coal	43,210	228,403	92,672
Condensed milk	25,893	83,010	112,379
Fish	107,883	283,193	191,820
Flour	397,499	660,450	627,741
Metal goods	310,769	831,974	697,913
Metals	76,230	183,721	194,682
Planks	97,550	273,150	212,673
Preserved meat	144,445	420,523	405,368
Rice	85,393	246,341	212,515
Soap	88,090	158,988	141,402
Sugar	25,424	177,960	180,788
Textiles	863,952	1,408,430	1,355,649
Timber	87,146	314,931	202,167
Wines, spirits, &c.	116,714	355,147	319,642
Miscellaneous	1,108,748	2,608,334	2,723,909
Total	3,867,863	9,030,474	8,427,029

¹ *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies Françaises.*

TABLE E

Countries of Origin of Imports, 1908, 1913, 1914.¹

	1908. Francs.	1913. Francs.	1914. Francs.
Australia and New Zealand			
Butter	80,179	191,311	163,214
Preserved meat	136,841	412,130	368,727
Sugar	3,759	130,137	128,359
Miscellaneous	553,103	1,136,960	1,114,363
France			
Metal goods	37,358	182,090	108,792
Textiles	199,575	382,158	452,093
Wines, spirits, &c.	92,848	226,468	196,358
Miscellaneous	284,987	681,718	661,616
French Colonies (New Caledonia)			
Miscellaneous	—	82,898	41,262
Germany			
Metal goods	6,824	101,334	23,585
Miscellaneous	68,975	130,196	187,289
United Kingdom			
Textiles	319,218	364,312	377,920
Miscellaneous	114,933	236,936	252,859
United States			
Fish	87,818	223,973	148,586
Flour	396,220	600,374	627,351
Metal goods	174,624	424,751	459,652
Textiles	239,336	540,798	381,965
Miscellaneous	865,434	2,490,559	2,318,369
Other countries			
Miscellaneous	205,831	491,371	414,669
Total	3,867,863	9,030,474	8,427,029

¹ *Statistiques du Commerce des Colonies Françaises.*

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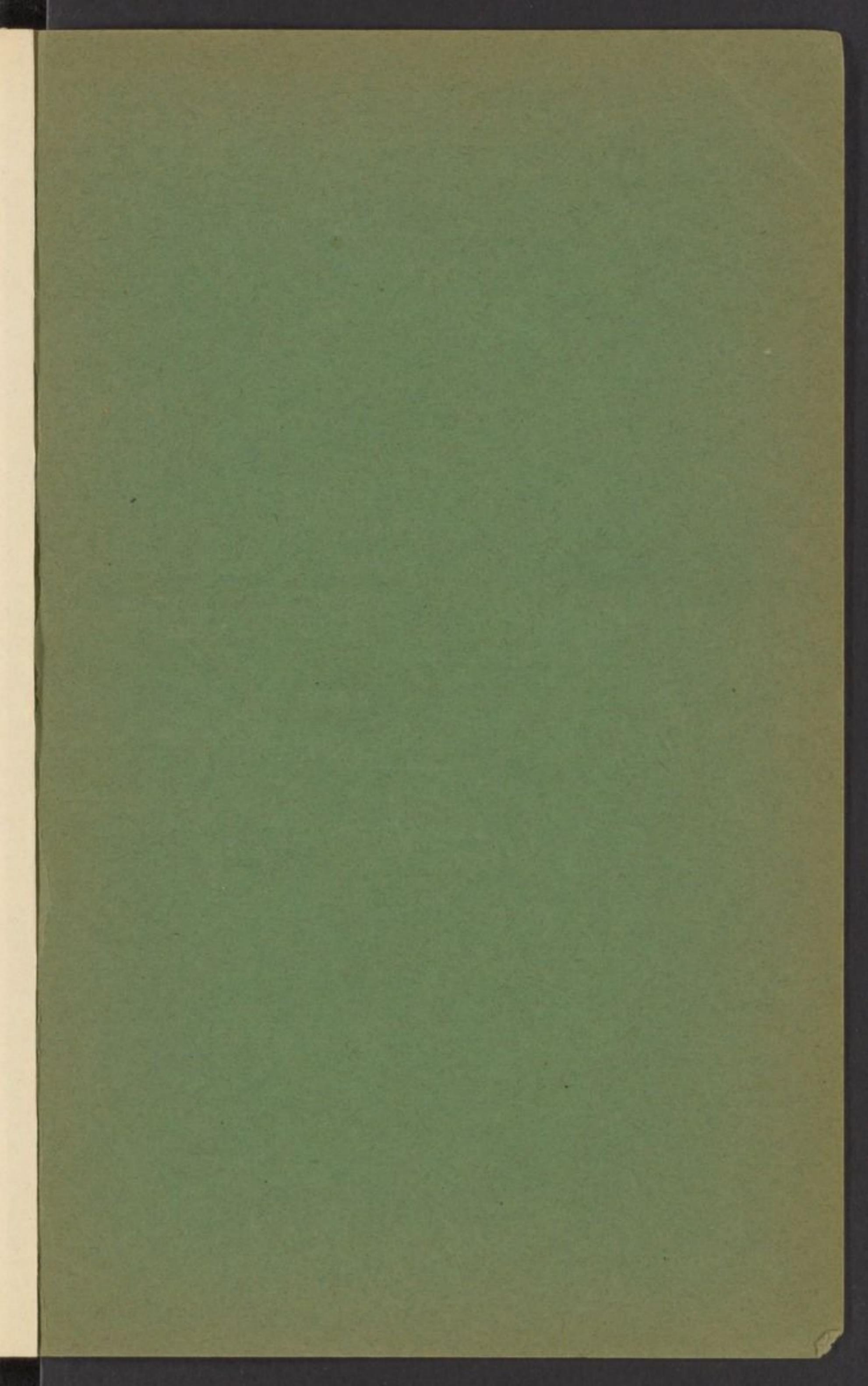
MAPS

The French Possessions in the Pacific are shown on Stanford's Map of the Pacific Islands (London Atlas Series), on Mercator's projection, 23 inches by 18 inches.

The Naval Staff Intelligence Division have issued a map of New Caledonia, on the scale of 1 : 1,500,000, and Tahiti, on the scale of 1 : 750,000 (Ordnance Survey, January 1919), in connexion with this series.

The first part of the report is devoted to a description of the general conditions of the country, and to a statement of the results of the various expeditions which have been made since the first discovery of the gold fields.

The second part of the report contains a detailed description of the gold fields, and of the various methods which have been employed for their exploitation. It also contains a statement of the results of the various experiments which have been made with a view to improving the methods of working the gold fields.



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