territories which will be a thorn in their side, as the German territories in Africa have been up to the present day. The first consideration, after the restitution of Belgium, in the minds of the delegates we may send to any great Peace Congress, must be the security of the British Empire. Punishment must follow the crime; that is to say, the punishment must be that which all just punishments ought to be—must prevent the crime ever being repeated.

I will now ask Sir Harry Johnston to accept from all of us, what I am sure you will give him by acclamation, a most hearty vote of thanks for his brilliant paper.

Sir Harry Johnston: I must not waste more of your time in thanking you for your thanks. In regard to answering three or four pregnant questions which have been put to me, I must refer the questioners to the printed paper, on account of the lateness of the hour. I think they will be answered, as far as I am able to answer them, in my paper when it is printed at full length. I would only say, in conclusion, when Lord Bryce asked me if I really intended to indicate in my maps that a great sphere for exclusive German interests had been laid down prior to August, 1914, in Turkey-in-Asia, I did so on the faith of the agreements entered into not only with Great Britain, but with Russia and France. These agreements were based on the Baghdad railway concession, and we know that that arrangement brought down exclusive German influence to Basra, the very place we now garrison within sight of the Persian gulf. When I refer to the text of these agreements, I mean publications in reputable newspapers of the gist of international understandings, the truth of such announcements being virtually admitted by responsible ministers. If by such understandings, by such concessions, we had killed for ever any cause for discord between Germany and the rest of Europe, such a peace would have been cheaply purchased. It is because Germany has thrust aside two million square miles of colonies and concessional areas as insufficient for her ambitions, that she must be before all things punished for the appalling disasters she has brought on the whole world. I want this point to go home to you. We may not be able to carry this war to that complete and triumphant conclusion we originally anticipated. We may not think the attempt to dictate peace in Berlin worth the life-sacrifice it may involve; but we can, at any rate, strip Germany of her power of government outside Germany and Austria-Hungary. Having done that, we can afford to make peace, because we shall have this guarantee of future good behaviour throughout the whole world: that if she gives the Allies any further trouble, she, having no colonies to repair to, can be shut out of the commerce of the Old World by tariffs. I think, considering the degree she has made us, our Allies, and many neutral nations suffer in this unprovoked war, it is not going beyond the limits of Christianity to picture such a means of punishment and control as the complete removal of her governing flag from Africa, Asia, and Oceania.

EUROPEAN INFLUENCE IN THE PACIFIC, 1513–1914.

By Sir EVERARD IM THURN, K.C.M.G., C.B.

By “the Pacific” is here meant that great sea, covering more than a third of the globe, which is almost surrounded by the west coast of America, by the east coast of Asia, and of the great islands of New Guinea, Australia, and New Zealand, and by the Antarctic continent from a point south of New Zealand to a point south of Cape Horn.

Maps of the Pacific ocean, if drawn on Mercator's or some similar projection, so distort the land masses, especially towards the poles, that the enclosure of this sea is not obvious; and on maps showing the world in hemispheres the globe is almost always bisected in such a way that part of the Pacific is shown on each hemisphere. But it is possible to draw that part of the world which lies between the meridians of 120° West and 60° East in such a way as to show the Pacific ocean, approximately truly, as one great, almost enclosed, sea.

I shall try to tell the outline of the story of how men of European race went into that closed ocean, how they have since gradually overspread, and have now parted its coasts and islands among themselves; I shall not be able to confine myself to the pure geography most favoured by this Society, but shall speak rather of the historical geography of the area under consideration.

But, to make the history intelligible, I must begin by setting out some purely geographical facts, not so much as to the coasts, but as to the islands, literally innumerable, which, like the peaks and upper edges of ranges of a submerged land, rise above the sea-level, in groups, in lines, or singly, from the Australian and south-east Asiatic coast, on either side of the equatorial line, and extend two-thirds across to America. For these islands, though mostly too small, too rugged, or too little above the sea-level, to afford much opportunity for human life and activity, have been, and are, of great historical importance, because in the early days they were the main attraction of Europeans to the Pacific, and because in our days the great European Powers, having first divided the coastal regions, have been and are engaged in the partition of the islands, the "stepping-stones" from coast to coast.

Of other, but much less numerous, islands which are set close round the coasts of the Pacific I shall have little occasion to speak.

Almost all the islands of this great belt—it is convenient to call them the South Sea islands—whether they are large, as New Caledonia, or small, as Pitcairn, and whether they are "high islands" or "low islands," have this in common, that they are volcanic rock-masses round the sea edge of which more or less coral has grown—forming, at first, a fringing reef.

In some cases the rock-core has sunk, lower and lower, and meanwhile the coral at the outer, or living, edge of the fringing reef has grown straight upward, tending always to keep its upper surface just below the level of the sea; and in this way a water-channel has gradually been formed between the central rock mass and the outer rim of coral. Sometimes the rock mass has continued to sink further until even its top is below sea-level, but the coral-rim has continued to grow till it appears, in Charles Darwin's words, as a so-called atoll, one of "these extraordinary rings of land which rise out of the depths of the ocean." *

* 'Voyages of H.M.S. Adventure and Beagle,' vol. 3, p. 539. (London: 1839.)
Other changes have from time to time and in very various ways altered the islands thus formed; sometimes, especially, a certain amount of drift matter has been piled by winds and currents on to the rocky ledge, so raising it just above sea-level; and on this plant-seeds have been caught, especially coconuts, which in time have crowned the whole rock with palms, which, like a garland, encircle the central lagoon of such an atoll. Later, wind and sea, working together, have either thinned the once dense palm grove, till each individual trunk, with its great head of leafage, stands distinctly out against the sky, or have even broken, at several points, through the once continuous line of greenery, splitting it into a line of dot-like islets, between which, at times, the sea breaks into the hitherto closed lagoon. The atoll as a whole is no longer visible from passing ships, and only a number of much smaller islands, apparently disconnected, is seen.

An atoll, like a "high island," often covers a large area, e.g. to take one almost at random, Rahirosa (or Rangiroa) atoll—the Vliegen Eylandt of Le Maire and Schouten in 1616—consists of a very narrow palm-covered rim of coral, enclosing a lagoon 42 miles long by from 10 to 14 miles wide. Such an atoll, considerable as is its size, affords very little land surface for men's work and the production of men's wealth.

Rahirosa is only one, though the largest, of the 78 islands of the Tuamotu or Low Archipelago, extended across more than 15 degrees of longitude, all but two of which, Makatea and Tikei, are simple atolls, i.e. lagoon islands; and even the two exceptions, both of small size, were probably once atolls, or parts of atolls, which have since been upheaved. The total area of productive land, on this particular group, putting coconuts out of consideration, is infinitesimal.

Quite near these "low islands," however, is the double group of the Society islands, so-called by Captain Cook after our Royal Society. These are practically all typical high volcanic islands, of very different and much more usable character. Of this group is Tahiti, which really consists of two volcanic masses close together and joined by a narrow isthmus. The total length of this island is about 33 miles, and its highest point rises to 7321 feet. Though much of this is very mountainous, a considerable and very fertile area is available for cultivation. There are other similar, though smaller, islands in the group. In the Society islands, and Tahiti in particular, is now the European (French) centre from which the atolls are worked, and without which the Low Archipelago would be of little value to white men.

Of the people who occupied these islands before and during the intrusion of Europeans, there is little time to tell. For my immediate purpose it matters not whence and when these South Sea islanders originally came; but it is important to note that they were all so-called "savages"—which does not mean that they were naturally ferocious and without culture.
Few English words are so misleading as this word “savage,” which is really a form of the old French word “silvage,” to which our word sylvan (of the woods) is akin. It implies not ferocity but wildness, uncontrollable-ness. The pair of phrases “wild rose” and “garden rose” help to explain the point; and still more helpful is the name “gas sylvestre,” by which the Belgian discoverer of carbonic acid gas distinguished that volatile substance—just because of the difficulty he experienced in controlling it. The savage is essentially uncontrolled by any of the ideas which have civilized his earlier visitors from the western world.

Again, no savages are without “culture”; and, in the South Sea islands, some were of very high culture, of a self-developed kind. The self-culture of the savage had moved forward on purely egoistic lines; and the savages had grown in culture without hitting upon the idea of “duty to one’s neighbour,” which, however badly it may be observed, is the foundation of civilization, as opposed to savagery.

The point I want here to make, once for all, is that the difference in mental attitude between the South Sea savage and the civilized European, good or bad, who intruded in those seas was so enormous that the two kinds of men never understood each other, had absolutely no common basis for intercourse, and that the occasional apparent ferocity and the eventual yielding of so much of his rights by the savage to the civilized man, and the taking of these rights by the civilized man with so little pricking of conscience, should not be judged without clearer understanding of the problem than has hitherto prevailed.

Early in the sixteenth century—only four hundred years ago—nothing was known in Europe of the Pacific ocean. The Portuguese, with their Dutch rivals in their wake, had crept eastward round the world, and had reached “the Spice islands,” only just short of the Pacific area; and the Spaniards, travelling westward, had reached the east coast of America. What lay between the Portuguese-Dutch and the Spanish outposts no man knew.

The story of the unveiling of the Pacific began on September 25, 1513, when from the peak in Darien Balboa first caught sight of what he called the Great South sea, and took formal possession of it, and all which appertained to it, for his master, the King of Spain. Seven years later, in 1520, another Spaniard, Magellan, found and sailed through a water-way into the South sea—or, as he called it, the Pacific ocean—and then crossed to the extreme western edge of that sea, where he found “the Isles of Lazarus,” the Philippines, and there lost his life in a fight with the natives. Magellan had thus gone westward round the world all but to the point, the Moluccas, which had by that time been reached by the Dutch from the east.

Balboa’s and Magellan’s adventures were but incidents in the founding by Spain of the great empire which, during the three subsequent centuries,
EUROPEAN INFLUENCE IN THE PACIFIC, 1513–1914.

it held on the Pacific coast of America and, across the ocean, in the Philippines.

Following more or less in the track of Magellan, Mendana in 1567 discovered the Solomon islands, and Quiros in 1606 discovered the northernmost of the New Hebridean islands, which he thought to be part of the supposed "great southern continent," or, as he called it, Tierra Australis del Esperitu Santo—since called "Santo" for short. Certainly sometimes, perhaps many times, others of these Spanish voyagers sighted some of the many islands more or less in the track from Mexico or Peru to the Philippines; but, probably partly because they saw little or no value in these islands, and partly because they preferred to leave no traces for others to follow, they never voluntarily settled in any such islands, and even said as little as possible about them.

Yet there can be little doubt that not a few members of such expeditions got adrift in one way or another from their ships, and became, unwillingly enough, the lost explorers of the Pacific, as Mr. Basil Thomson has called them, of whose subsequent fate little can even be guessed, though such of us as in recent times have cruised through the Pacific often assume that some European trait of feature or manner observed in some native of a still little visited island is due to descent from some of these long since lost Europeans.

While Spanish influence was thus making itself felt on the American coast of the Pacific, in the Philippines and, though much less definitely, on the way between, other Europeans were endeavouring at least to look into this ocean which the Spaniards pretended to keep for themselves.

The Dutch East India Company, early in the seventeenth century, was established as far east as Java, and held from the States of the Netherlands a monopoly of Dutch trade with all countries between the Straits of Magellan and the Cape of Good Hope. But other Dutchmen, thinking this too wide a privilege, sent Le Maire and Schouten to find a way into the South seas by any passage which they could find further south of Magellan's strait—it being argued that this would not infringe the "Company" rights.

Le Maire and Schouten sailed in 1615, passed Magellan's strait, and further south discovered and passed through that which has since been called after Le Maire, between Tierra del Fuego and the land which these Dutchmen, mistaking it for the great southern continent, called Statenland, in honour of the Netherland States.

The Hollanders crossed the Pacific, nearly, but not quite, on the Spaniards' track, and eventually reached Batavia, where they were seized for infringement of the Dutch Company's monopoly.

As a trading voyage that of Le Maire and Schouten was a failure. But they were the first discoverers of many islands, and were almost the first Europeans to have any considerable dealings with the South Sea islanders.

In 1642 the Dutch East Company sent Tasman from Batavia to explore No. IV.—April, 1915.}
the still entirely unknown south-west Pacific. During this expedition much of the south coast of New Holland was discovered—thus first showing that the Australian land-mass did not extend to the South Pole. Tasman also discovered and named Van Diemen's Land, which he thought to be part of North Holland, discovered also New Zealand, where his people had a first meeting with the natives of the South Pacific, a meeting which, probably owing to a misunderstanding, ended disastrously. He then passed on to the islands which he named Amsterdam, Middelburg, and Rotterdam, which are what we call the Friendly or Tongan islands, and had much dealing—fortunately not disastrous—with the natives there, and got back to Batavia. His discoveries in this and a subsequent journey made known quite a new part of the Pacific; but his voyages were not effectively followed up, and the Dutch never established themselves on the Pacific.

Meanwhile the Spaniards had greatly strengthened their position on the American shore and in the Philippine islands, and their ships periodically crossed the Pacific between these two points. It was the attraction of these treasure ships which led the first Englishman, Francis Drake, between 1578–80, to enter the Pacific. He entered by Magellan's strait, and after having been driven so far south that he probably saw "the Horn," then passed up the coast, taking every opportunity of singeing the King of Spain's beard, till he reached a point, probably on the Gulf of California, where he claimed for the English queen a country which he called New Albion, and then struck westward across the Pacific, and so home by way of the Cape of Good Hope.

Sir Francis Drake's example of attacking the Spaniards along the Pacific coast of America was followed by innumerable adventurous sailors of fortune, some French, others Dutch, but mostly English, who, during their voyages, doubtless dropped many more "lost explorers of the Pacific," to the confusion of the purity of South Sea island descent. These buccaneers and other adventurers were the first European visitors to many an island—unless in some cases they had been preceded by the Spaniards, who, as has been noted, were shy of telling about their discoveries.

One very remarkable group of islands, first heard of as the resort of these buccaneers—when they needed to careen and refit their ships, or to divide their spoil, or merely to have a downright good time—was the Galapagos, which have recently again become of great interest.

The Galapagos group, so called because of the giant tortoises which abounded there, consists of high volcanic islands, with an aggregate area estimated at 2400 square miles, lying actually on the equator, quite apart from the main South Sea group, off the American shore, and only some 600 miles from the isthmus of Darien. It is uncertain when and by whom these islands were first discovered, but they are named on a map by Ortelius of about 1570, and the name seems to show that the discoverers were Spaniards. These islands were ideal havens of undisturbed
and unobserved rest. So many a buccaneer found, and so, on more than one subsequent occasion, storm-tossed, battle-wearied sailormen have found.

The Peace of Ryswick, between England and Spain, nominally at least put an end to the activities of the buccaneers in 1697; but one of these filibusters of the Galapagos, William Dampier, whose notoriety as a buccaneer—though he seems never to have played a leading part among those folk—was counterbalanced by his good repute as a hydrographer, was officially employed, and for a time did good work, on the Australian and New Guinea coasts in the scientific voyages of exploration, which began to take the place of mere voyages of adventure.

Anson’s famous voyage round the world in 1740–44, during which he effectively attacked the Spaniards along the Pacific coast, is of interest to the student of the spread of European influences in the Pacific area, if only for the incident of the wreck, soon after the squadron entered the South Seas, of the storeship Wager, on an island off the coast of Chile, somewhere off Cape de Tres Montes. Some of the survivors from this wreck, among whom was Midshipman, afterwards Admiral, Byron, eventually got back to England, partly on foot, partly in improvised boats, and in this way saw far more of the out-of-the-way parts of Spanish America of that date than any other Englishman ever did; and several of them, Byron, Gunner John Bulkeley, and Carpenter John Cummins, Lieut. Campbell, and Midshipman Isaac Morris, published narratives—“affecting narratives of the dangers and distresses which befell” them. Other sailormen have left elaborate accounts of the ports and towns at which they called in Spanish America, but it is unlikely that any but these survivors of the Wager have recorded as vivid glimpses of the condition at that period of the Chilian back-country.

We now come to that splendid series of voyages to the Pacific, originated and controlled by two of the great European Powers, which began to lay the real foundations of European influence in the Pacific as it exists to-day. First in turn of these was Commodore John Byron’s voyage with the Dolphin and the Tamar (1764–6); then the English voyages of Captain Samuel Wallis, in the Dolphin, and Captain Philip Cartaret, in the Swallow (1766–9), and the almost simultaneous French voyage of Bougainville, in the frigate La Boudeuse (also 1766–9); and then Captain Cook’s voyages in 1768 to his death in 1778—or perhaps till the ships got back to England in 1780.

It is my good fortune to be able to reproduce on the screen to-night an important series of the sketches—I believe these have never been published—which Captain Samuel Wallis, sailor-like, made of many of the islands which he discovered, or thought he was the first to discover, chiefly in “Low Islands”, or Tuamotus.

After entering the Pacific through the Straits of Magellan, the Swallow, y 2
Captain Cartaret, which was a slow sailer, was finally left to follow a course of its own, and Captain Wallis sailed westward in the *Dolphin*. This was on April 12, 1767. No land was sighted till June 6, when "a low island"—i.e. an atoll—was seen at about 5 or 6 leagues distance. That afternoon Second-Lieut. Furneaux—the senior officers and many of the crew being ill with scurvy—was sent ashore, the boats being armed; and two canoes were seen to put off and paddle hastily to a second island which was in sight. The *Dolphin's* boats returned at 7 p.m., bringing a few coconuts and a quantity of scurvy grass, also some fish-hooks made of pearl-shell and some of the shells. Furneaux reported that no inhabitants had been seen, but that he had visited three huts, or rather sheds, neatly thatched with coconut and palm leaves, supported upon posts, and open all round, ... also several canoes building, but had found no fresh water nor any fruit but coconuts. No anchorage had been found for the ship, and the landing on the island had been difficult because the surf was so high.

The *Dolphin* stood off and on all night; and early the next morning, which was Whitsunday, the boats were again sent out to find anchorage for the ship, but in vain. A boat passage was seen on the weather side of the island, but the surf was too high to warrant any attempt to get the boats through. Neither had it been possible to land on any part of the island, the surf running still higher than on the previous day.

Wallis gave up all hope of landing on this island, but having named it *Whitsun island,* he stood away for the other island, which was in sight. Of this second island Wallis took possession "in the name of King George the Third, and gave it the name of *Queen Charlotte's island*, in honour of Her Majesty." It is Nukutavake island of our charts; it is of coral formation, but remarkable for having no lagoon.

The *Dolphin* men had at first some slight intercourse with the natives of this island, and without coming into collision with them; but the natives soon got out their canoes and paddled away, leaving the white men to collect water, scurvy-grass, and coconuts for themselves. It is pleasant to be able to add that before leaving Wallis left some small presents for the natives, "as an atonement for the disturbance we had given them."

On June 10 another island was seen. Of this Wallis says, "The east and west ends are joined to each other by a reef of rocks, over which the sea breaks into a lagoon, in the middle of the island, which therefore had the appearance of two islands, and seemed to be about 6 miles long and 4 broad. ... As the shore was everywhere rocky, as there was no anchorage, and as we had no prospect of obtaining any refreshment here, I set sail at 6 o'clock in the evening from this island, to which I gave the name of *Egmont island*, in honour of the Earl of Egmont, who was then First Lord

* Pinaki.
of the Admiralty." Wallis says that the island "seemed full of trees," but that they saw not a single coconut on the island. It is the Vairaatea of our charts; and is the Cocotiers of Maurelle, who saw it in 1781.

On the 11th another island was seen and named Gloucester island, in honour of H.R.H. the Duke.* Again on the 13th another atoll was seen, and, in honour of His Majesty's third son, was called Prince William Henry's island. The native name is Nengonengo. Here Wallis made no stay, hoping to the westward to find higher land, where the ship might come to an anchor, and refreshments be procured.

As a matter of fact, from Prince William Henry's island the nearest land, though it was a long way off, to the west was the nearest of what are now called the Society islands, all considerable and high volcanic islands.

Accordingly, having lost sight of Prince William Henry island on June 13, they did not sight land again till the 17th, when they came up to an island which "greatly resembled the Mewstone in Plymouth sound, but it seemed to be much larger." It was Maitea of the charts. After quite friendly intercourse with the natives of this island, which Wallis named Osnaburgh, "in honour of Prince Frederick who is bishop of that see," the Dolphin again went westward, it having been reported that "there were islands of larger extent not far distant, where refreshments in great plenty might be procured, and . . . less difficult of access."

The next day they discovered very high land in the W.S.W., and at 7 p.m. "brought to for the night or till the fog cleared off." At 2 a.m., it being very clear, we made sail again, and at daylight saw the land five leagues off. At 8 a.m. fog again closed in on the Dolphin, then close under the land, "and when it cleared away," Wallis says, "we were much surprised to find ourselves surrounded by some hundreds of canoes," with about 800 natives in these canoes. This is how Wallis first discovered, as now seems to be accepted, the island which was soon to become and long to remain, for Europeans at least, the centre of interest in the Pacific island world. Captain Wallis himself seems to have named it King George's island, and the anchorage to which the Dolphin came, Port Royal, but the island is that which soon became known throughout the world as Otaheite or Tahiti.

At King George's island Captain Wallis stayed thirty-eight days, to refresh his men, and to enjoy friendly intercourse with the natives, probably the most highly cultured, after their own fashion of culture, in the Pacific, occupying as they do one of the finest islands in those seas.

Having made sail from Tahiti (on July 27, 1768), Wallis discovered another similar but smaller island, which he named Duke of York's island [Moorea or Eimeo]; and the next day, yet another, which he called the Right Honourable Sir Charles Saunier's island—i.e. Tabuai Manu, still in the Tahitaian sub-group.

* Paroa of charts.
Thence, altering his course slightly to the north-west, he came, on July 30, to an atoll which he called Lord How's island—the Mopeha or Mopelia of the charts.

From July 30 the Dolphin ran westward across an open sea, till, on August 13, two islands, close together but far from any others, though usually held to belong to the Friendly island or Tongan group, were sighted. Of these Wallis thought he was the discoverer, and he named them Boscawen island and the Honourable Augustus Keppel's island. They are respectively the Cocos island and the Verrader's island, which Le Maire and Schouten visited in May, 1616; and they are the Tapahi and Niutobutabu of the Admiralty charts.

The Dolphin still going westward, land was again approached on August 16, and the officers of the Dolphin named this Wallis island, in honour of their captain, by which name it has since generally been best known, though latterly the name Uea or Uvea, which may be a native name, seems to have come into favour with the chart makers.

On May 13, 1768, the English Scilly islands were sighted; on the 19th Captain Wallis “landed (from the Dolphin) at Hastings in Sussex; and at four the next morning the ship anchored safely in the Downs, it being just 637 days since her weighing anchor in Plymouth Sound.”

Even before Wallis and Cartaret, and the French expedition under Bougainville, got back to Europe from their respective voyages of investigation, Captain James Cook began that series of voyages into the Pacific during which, between 1768 and his death, in the Sandwich islands, in 1779, he not only, and much more systematically than any who had passed that way before him, explored the Pacific, everywhere except along that part of the Spanish coast which had long been under Spanish influence, but, by his extraordinarily careful surveys and observations, by his success in establishing friendly relations with the islanders, by his victory over the scurvy which had baffled all previous voyagers, and, not least, by his remarkable personal influence in training others to carry on his work after his own death, he surely laid the foundations on which British influence in the Pacific has since been built.

Cook did not live to see his countrymen actually established in any part of the Pacific. But it is to his gathering of facts, and to the subsequent use of these facts by men whom he influenced and taught, that we owe that small settlement of New South Wales—the yeast which eventually spread not only through Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand, but thence through most, and these the most important, of the islands which serve as stepping-stones across the South Seas; and it is to other of Captain Cook's men—especially to Captain George Vancouver—that we owe the rights which eventually led to the British settlements on the Pacific coast of North America.

The earliest British settlement in the Pacific—the first European
settlement except that of the Spaniards on the American shores—was formally established at Sydney in New South Wales on January 26, 1788, at the suggestion of James Matra, one of Captain Cook's midshipmen, and with the warm approval and support of Sir Joseph Banks, who, as botanist, had sailed with Cook on the first voyage. Botany Bay, as the settlement was long called, was to be a convict station; that is to say, it was to be developed chiefly by the manual labour of persons who, under the drastic English laws of that time, were condemned to transportation from home; and it was fully intended that the persons so transported should be afforded every opportunity, in a new climate and under new surroundings, of becoming respectable and free citizens in the new land.

Theoretically it was a wise and even humane system for developing, and preparing for future voluntary immigrants, a new land in which there was practically no available labour supply. Doubtless the system was occasionally harshly carried out. But in the long run it worked well—how exceedingly well there is no occasion here to tell, and it seems hardly conceivable that by the application in the early stages of any other system could so excellent a result have been attained.

The ships which brought settlers and stores to "Port Jackson," where the undeveloped land produced little or no food and nothing for export, usually proceeded, say, from Port Jackson to Canton for tea, thence to Calcutta, where they exchanged the tea for Indian produce, and so back to England. During the Pacific part of this voyage, they passed by and discovered many islands, and sometimes even from them picked up a little island produce—sandalwood, tortoise shell, and similar things. Moreover, the Port Jackson people, besides striving to increase the products of their own lands, strove also to get in what they could from the adjoining seas and its islands, not only sandalwood and tortoise shell, but also whale-oil, sealskins, and peltry.

Again, the declaration of the Independence of the United States of America, in 1776, had had the effect, among others, of excluding the trade of the New Englanders, who were all born and bred seafarers, from many of the older known seas, so that long before the end of the eighteenth century, they passed more and more frequently, and further and further, into the Pacific, whaling, sealing, fur-getting from the Pacific coast of North America, incidentally crossing and re-crossing the Pacific, discovering and naming its islands and islets, visiting Canton, Manila, and eventually Port Jackson.

Before the end of the eighteenth century the natives of the Pacific coasts and islands, who before the visits of Captain Cook had never, or hardly ever, seen a white man or his ships, saw them no longer rarely. About the same time white men other than sailors reached the Pacific islands. Moved by the tales told in England of South Sea folk, the London Missionary Society was founded in 1795, for the express purpose of converting these heathen; and in 1796 the Society despatched the good ship
Duff, Captain Wilson, with a passenger list of thirty-nine missionaries, of whom four were ordained ministers. Without doubting the pluck and devotion with which, it may be assumed, this party set out for the South Seas, one wonders whether there ever has been a stranger assault, with spiritual weapons only, on primitive men.

The Duff’s passengers were landed, some in Tahiti, some in the Friendly islands, and one at least in the Marquesas. It is unnecessary here to go further into the history of this adventure than to say that the missionaries left in the Friendly islands effected little and did not long remain there, but that those who were landed at Tahiti were apparently the originators of good work done in those parts by the London Missionary Society. The rest of the story of the several missionary efforts for the civilization of the natives of the Pacific belongs to the next century.

Mention may here just be made of Laperouse, who, leaving Europe in 1785, after cruising extensively in the Pacific, called at Botany Bay in January, 1788, at the very time when the British flag was hoisted. He called partly to refit his ships and partly, very fortunately, to leave his journal there for transmission to Europe; and then, on March 15, he sailed away and disappeared from human ken, though very many years after, 1826, traces of his wrecked ships were found at Vanikoro of the Solomon island group.

By the end of the eighteenth century the Russians, who had long been creeping eastward, partly by land and partly by short coasting voyages along the north of Siberia, had, almost secretly, reached the extreme north of the Pacific; Bering, a Dane, but in Russian service, by his explorations in 1728–9, and again in 1741, had discovered the strait, since called after him, which divides the north-eastern extremity of Asia from north-western America, and subsequently Russian fur-traders had passed, somewhat tentatively, across this strait into Alaska and thence down the American coast, at least as far as Vancouver Island. Captain Cook, in 1778, found such Russian fur-traders camped but not settled; and Captain Vancouver’s mission to these parts in 1791–5 was partly to investigate the doings of these Russians on coasts which were claimed, somewhat vaguely, both by England and by Spain.

Passing to the nineteenth century, it may here be recorded, that during its first forty years or so, the sending of elaborately organized scientific expeditions to cruise through the Pacific, without much obvious purpose or result, other than the increase of knowledge, was continued by at least two European Governments. The most important English voyage of this period was that of Mathew Flinders, who as a pupil of Captain Bligh was another of Cook’s men—but in the second generation, which, in that it was a practical and resultful completion of the examination of the coasts and adjoining seas of the great land which he was the first to call Australia, was of a different class. But the French Expedition under
Nicolas Baudin, almost contemporaneous with that of Flinders—indeed, the two came in contact more than once—was probably never intended for other than scientific purposes, though the fact that it resulted in the placing on Freycinet’s map of the name Terre Napoléon as part of Nova Hollandia has suggested that Baudin’s instructions had political as well as scientific intention. The two French Government expeditions, in 1826–9 and in 1837–40, both under Dumont D’Urville, were even more certainly purely for purposes of investigation.

Three of a series of Russian expeditions to the Pacific during this period may here be mentioned. Adam John Von Krusenstern, who had served in the English navy and had studied English methods of trade in the East Indies and in China, sailed in 1803, in command of the men-of-war Nedeska and Neva, the first Russian ships to circumnavigate the world, and—at his own suggestion—paid particular attention, in passing through the Pacific, to the possibility of direct shipment in Russian vessels of furs from the languishing settlements in Alaska to the Chinese, East Indian and further markets—instead of by land from Okhotsk. This particular scheme seems to have had little or no result; but his voyages, and subsequent voyages under Krusenstern’s pupils, Otto von Kotzebue and Bellingshausen, which directly resulted from his, put at his disposal the material which before he died he utilized in the publication of the magnificent atlas, with accompanying memoirs, of the geography of the Pacific as far as then known.

Bellingshausen’s voyage, in 1819–21, the full account of which, unfortunately, has never been translated from the Russian language and published, is remarkable in several ways. His investigation of the Antarctic regions of the Pacific was for long surpassed in merit only by that of his predecessor, Captain Cook. He discovered many of the islands in the Tuamotu archipelago—and gave to these rather crack-jaw Russian names, some of which survive, to the puzzlement of those who nowadays pass that way. But his greatest merit is his kindly and considerate treatment of the South Sea islanders with whom he met—under personal instructions, as he himself says, from the Czar.

These French and Russian voyages, though they have added considerably to our knowledge, cannot be said to have had much, if any, permanent effect in the partition of the Pacific.

In 1812–14 there happened in the Pacific an incident which, in the circumstances of the present moment, is worth recalling. In 1799, in connection with the English-French-American war of that period, the New England Colonies, long a nest of bold sea-fishers and daring merchant sailors, had most keenly taken up the patriotic task of contributing to the little navy which was all that the new republic of the United States then had to contest the naval supremacy of Great Britain. The men of Salem, the North Atlantic port from which had sailed a large proportion of
the whaling and trading ships which were even then at work in the Pacific, had built, manned, and contributed the armed frigate Essex.

When, in 1812, war was renewed between America and ourselves, over questions of American maritime rights, the Essex, Captain David Porter in command, in October, left "the Capes of Delaware" to cruise, with the two or three other ships which then constituted almost the entire United States fleet, against the English.

Porter, though not unsuccessful in the Atlantic, soon grew tired of fighting at considerable disadvantage in those seas, and, taking advantage of his separation, accidental or not, from the senior ships of his squadron, boldly decided to pass round the Horn into the Pacific, to attack the English whaling and trading ships, many of which were armed and provided with letters of marque, on the coasts of Chili and Peru—then both in process of throwing off their allegiance to Spain, so that it was doubtful whether their sympathies at any moment were with England or the new Republic of America.

Porter was most extraordinarily successful in this unexpected raid. The Essex captured practically all British ships then working off that coast and in the adjoining favourite whaling grounds about the Galapagos islands.

Porter almost always approached the enemy ships, and even neutral ships from which he wished to glean news of the enemy, under the disguise of the British flag. Though far from home and from any port which he could certainly count on as neutral, he never sank the captured ships, but either used them as tenders to the Essex or sent them, as American prizes, to run the gauntlet through the enemy's fleet from south to north of the Atlantic. Some of his prisoners he accepted as volunteers in his own rapidly growing fleet; some, when there was opportunity, he put ashore in inhabited places whence they could easily get away; and some he detained as prisoners, treating them well. He took from the captured vessels ample stores of all sort for his ships and men throughout the long cruise; and he even paid his men, at least partly, from the treasure taken.

When needing to refresh and refit, Porter used the Galapagos islands—much as the buccaneers had done of old, and as, it may be guessed, warships of another nation have even lately done. Also, at one period, he made a long stay in the Marquesas islands, partly to refit; and while in these islands Porter entered into friendly relations, though in somewhat masterful fashion, with the natives whom he met on first landing; and, when other natives who occupied the more remote parts of the island refused to give him food and obedience, he waged war on these, and compelled them to come in.

Porter's account both of the natural conditions which he found in the uninhabited Galapagos islands, and of the natives of the Marquesas, who were extraordinarily far on in savage culture, are both well deserving of reproduction, but are too long to be here given.
Having claimed certain of the Marquesas islands, or, as he called these, the Washington islands, for the Republic, and leaving some of his men to hold a fort which he had erected there, Porter in the Essex returned down the Peruvian and Chilian coast, grumbling that there were no more British ships to capture, till, on January 12, 1814, he anchored in the harbour of Valparaiso.

Into the same neutral harbour, on February 8, sailed H.B.M. ships Phoebe and Cherub, which had been sent to deal with the Essex. Then followed as strange a naval blockade as has perhaps ever happened, till on March 28, after a great fight, in which the Essex, shattered almost to pieces, 179 of her 255 men being “killed,” “wounded,” and “missing,” perforce surrendered.

The Essex’s men who had been left in the Marquesas were soon expelled; and thus ended this strange adventure in the Pacific.

Between 1800 and 1840, though no European government was established in the islands, a great many individuals, chiefly English, American, and French, got, in one way or another, into many, perhaps most, of these islands. These were of two very different classes. The earlier of the two were the so-called “beachcombers,” i.e. those whom the combing wave threw on to the island beaches, mostly derelict sailors and escaped prisoners from “Botany Bay” and Norfolk island, who found refuge in the more remote islands of the western half of the Pacific, where the natives were least advanced in culture; and these were followed by the missionaries, who resorted more to the eastern islands, where the natives were of much higher culture.

It would take too long here to tell the story of the relations between the beachcombers and their native hosts, between the missionaries and the natives, between the missionaries and the beachcombers (when the two eventually came in contact), and, a very bitter irony of fate, even between the missionaries themselves, according as they were of one set or another. The result, inevitable in the absence of any central authority, was that, by 1840, the wise man might have been justified in saying of the beautiful islands in the South Seas, that every prospect pleases and only man is vile.

Incidentally, the difference in this contact between “civilized” and “savage” men in the eastern and western isles may be noted. In the eastern islands the missionary intruders, speaking generally, strove gradually to induce their more cultured hosts to join in building up a new social order in quaint imitation of European models; they would have been more successful but for the disputes between the several different bodies of missionaries which entered the field. In the western islands, on the other hand, the beachcombers, reaching the islands before the missionaries, and being far from anxious for the introduction of social order, broke down even the “club-law” which had before prevailed over the
backward natives, and so brought about a state of utter lawlessness and disorder which made it much more difficult for the missionaries, when they did come, to gain any footing.

The first definite step taken by a European Power to end this disorder by assuming control in any of the islands was in 1842–3, when the French Government, to settle the local disputes between the Protestant and Roman Catholic missions, took possession, separately but almost simultaneously, of the Society islands, including Tahiti, of the Tuamotu group, the Marquesas, and other islands in the Eastern Pacific. With a few exceptions, of which Tahiti is the most important, these are atolls, producing little of consequence except coconuts.

With an exception presently to be named, French acquisitions in the Pacific were for many years effected on a policy of supporting French missionaries, rather than of protecting the natives; whereas, rightly or wrongly, British policy was to acquire only what has seemed absolutely necessary for the protection of the natives, and only in very urgent cases anything for the advantage, commercial or strategic, of the European intruders, and even then only when it might be taken without injury to the native occupants. By anticipation, it may be convenient here to add that a third European Power, which after the date of which I am now speaking made acquisitions in the Pacific, Germany, seems to have done this without reference either to the interests of the natives or to the commercial value of the places taken, but for strategic reasons.

The establishment of French authority in the Eastern Pacific, in 1842–3, and the more frequent visits to the western area of men-of-war of various nationalities, British, French, or American, not only for scientific exploration, but to "show their flags" and to keep some sort of order in the now cosmopolitan islands, rendered the lives of the scattered Europeans somewhat safer than before—and, it is fair to add, partly in consequence of the control which the missionaries had gained over the natives in some of the islands, the beachcomber now gradually gave place to the trader and the settler.

By trader is here meant the man who, unlike the beachcomber, instead of passing time, idle and entirely supported by the natives, occupied himself in collecting from the natives what produce they had—tortoise shell, beche de mer, coconuts—paying for these things with European goods, and exporting what he collected by the trading ships which began to call more regularly.

By the settler is meant the man who, probably having been a trader, contrived to get possession, by fair means or otherwise, of more or less "native land," which he cultivated with the assistance of such natives as he could, by persuasion or other influence, get to work for him.

Among the traders and settlers who gradually gathered in the No-man's islands of the Pacific were not a few individual Germans, who were first
brought together under the influence of the once great Hamburg firm of Goddefroi, which later gave place to the so-called "Deutsche Handels und Plantagen Gesellschaft der Südsee Inseln," which for a time controlled much of the trade and claimed a very large proportion of the alienated native land in many of the islands which had not then been appropriated by any European Power.

In 1853 France—this time in the Western Pacific—unexpectedly took possession of the magnificent island of New Caledonia, the largest in the Pacific, excepting New Guinea. New Caledonia had been first discovered and named by Captain Cook, in September, 1774; but, though subsequently carefully inspected, more than once, by French and other naval captains, though it had been a regular resort of whalers and sandal-wood traders, and though a mission had been established there in 1843, no attempt to acquire and use it had been made till, in 1853, the French took it, for a convict station. Possibly it was hoped to do in New Caledonia what had been so splendidly done in New South Wales. As a matter of fact, though as grimly effective a penal settlement as the world has ever seen was established at Noumea—its use for oversea prisoners has been abandoned only within the last ten years—and though the harbour and roads of Noumea itself were splendidly engineered by convict labour, the opportunity for thus making a great colony was missed. The most noteworthy consequence of the French acquisition of New Caledonia, as regards the spread of European influence, was that from that island many French subjects who for one reason or another preferred to live outside the pale of the law passed up into the New Hebrides, which were then, and long continued, outside the purview of European authorities.

It was not till 1874-5, despite many temptations dangled before her, that Great Britain annexed, or rather accepted the cession of, any islands in the Pacific.

In 1859 the Fiji islands, which, taking all circumstances into consideration, offered the best prospects for development by Europeans, had been offered by the native chiefs, but had, after inquiry, been refused by H.B.M. Government on the ground that it was not clear that the offer was spontaneous on the part of the natives. Soon after, the American Civil War having raised the price of cotton, it had been found that cotton of excellent quality could be profitably grown in Fiji, till then without any important staple product, and over-full of contending factions of natives and Europeans, chiefly Australians and New Zealanders, but with many Germans and Americans. Cotton growing attracted men and capital from Australia and New Zealand, and for a few years the cotton industry in Fiji flourished, but then, the price of the product falling in the home markets, the bad time came again, and disorder greater than before prevailed.

The British Government, despite much pressure from Australia and
New Zealand, both of which were naturally much more nearly concerned in the matter, was still reluctant to annex these islands, chiefly because unwilling to do what might be against the real interests of the natives, and because unwilling to undertake the control of native affairs in places so far from England. A few more years of ever-increasing disorder in Fiji followed; and then, as the only way of relieving an impossible situation, a renewed offer from the more important Fijian chiefs to cede the islands was accepted, Fiji becoming a British Crown colony in 1875.

The new colony, in order to safeguard the rights of its natives, was from the first and has since been administered from headquarters in Downing Street, and therefore on a footing entirely different from that of the adjoining colonies, as they then were, of Australia and New Zealand, which, even in 1875, enjoyed a large measure of the self-government since attained in such full measure. In any study of British rule in the Pacific it is necessary to bear in mind this out-planting of a little bit of the home country in a remote area where otherwise a system of government founded on alliance rather than dependence prevails.

Moreover, a few years after the annexation of Fiji, in order as far as possible to embody British control over British subjects in the Pacific islands other than Fiji, and in order to afford due protection to the natives within the same area, the office of High Commissioner of the Western Pacific was created (in 1877), with limited jurisdiction over British subjects (extended in 1893 to foreigners) in "all islands in the Western Pacific not being within the limits of the colonies of Fiji, Queensland, New South Wales, or New Zealand, and not being within the jurisdiction of any civilized Power, together with full jurisdiction over British possessions and protectorates—except over a very few islands which, with illogical reasonableness, have been assigned to New Zealand."

Since the office was instituted a large number of islands, extending over a very wide area, have thus passed, for one reason or another, under the jurisdiction of the High Commissioner. The Gilbert [Kingsmill] and Ellice islands were declared a British protectorate, in 1892, for the sake of the natives, both those remaining in the islands and those who went abroad as indentured labourers; many of the Solomon islands were added in the following year, originally for a similar reason, but largely, thanks to the good work of the first British Resident, Mr. C. M. Woodford, F.R.G.S., have proved commercially valuable. Among many other quite small but very important additions to the British possessions in the Pacific may here be mentioned: Fanning island, or rather atoll, which, long before under British influence, was annexed in 1888 as a repeating station for the Pacific cable connecting Canada and Australia.

Thus the High Commissioner of the Western Pacific and the Governor of Fiji—the two offices are absolutely distinct though held by the same person—has, in one capacity or the other, authority over a very large number of islands, of all sizes and sorts scattered over a wide area,
extending from not far off Australia to Ducie islet, two-thirds of the way to America; over a British Crown Colony, of great extent but somewhat lacking in cohesion, which lies isolated between the great Dominions of Australia and Canada.

The next important move in the partition of the Pacific was made by an entirely new player, and in a part of the area, New Guinea, till then unappropriated by any Power; for though the Dutch had long before claimed the western part of New Guinea, the eastern part, bordering on the Pacific, was vacant.

The German Empire, when still very young—it was born only in 1871—wanted a colonial policy, and before long thought it saw a chance of establishing a great dependency in and about New Guinea, the greater part of which was then a veritable no-man's-land, into parts of which a few missionaries—very good ones—and a considerable number of squatters, Australians, Germans, and others, had penetrated, without authority, and at the risk of their lives, among natives who had grown more and more suspicious in face of the encroachments of the white intruders.

In 1884, and the few following years, Germany declared a Protectorate over a large part of the east of New Guinea—calling this Kaiser Wilhelm's Land; over New Britain and New Ireland, which it renamed respectively Neu Pommern and Neu Mecklenburg, calling the two together the Bismarck Archipelago; and over the Marshall islands. It also claimed as within its sphere of influence several of the larger Solomon islands; and at the same time it purported to take in many less considerable scattered islands as adjuncts to these compact German holdings in the North-West Pacific.

Development was at first entrusted to a chartered company; but in or about 1899 the Imperial Government assumed direct control, consolidating the whole under one central government, the headquarters of which, as had been those of the company, was at Herbertshöhe, in the north-east of New Britain. Thereafter, less effort seems to have been spent on trade development, and more on converting the Bismarck Archipelago into a strong naval base.

Australia, which had long tried by every means in its power to induce Great Britain to consent to the annexation of all but the Dutch part of New Guinea, was naturally moved to fresh effort at the first sign of Germany's intention to raise its flag in any part of the great island, so close to the north Australian shore; with the result that on November 6, 1874, the same year in which the German flag was hoisted in another part of the island, a British protectorate was sanctioned over the southeastern part of the island; but, in accordance with the old British policy of retaining in its own hands control over coloured-skinned natives, British New Guinea was for some years administered from home, though partly at the cost of Australia. It was not till 1901 that, again with illogical reasonableness, full charge was handed over to Australia, imposing
on the Commonwealth, I think for the first time, the care of natives other than its own aborigines. In 1906, Australian New Guinea was renamed Papua.

In 1897–8 Germany acquired, there is no need to say how, Kiau-Chau on the Chinese coast; and by working this as a naval station in connection with that other in the Bismarck Archipelago greatly strengthened her general position in the Pacific. Also—though this was a comparatively unimportant sweeping up of crumbs—in October, 1899, she bought from Spain several groups of scattered islets which chanced to lie in the new German Pacific; the Carolines and, except Guam which had been ceded in 1898 to the United States, the Marianne, or Ladrone islands, which had been Spanish, or at least more under Spanish than any other European influence, since times not long after Magellan.

Little has hitherto been said of any part taken by the United States in the partition of the Pacific islands. The very frequent presence of the New England whaling and trading ships in the early part of the century has been mentioned; and it is certain that many Americans got ashore from these ships and squatted in islands which were still no-man’s-land. Captain David Porter’s claim of some of the Marquesas islands for his country had no result. The very important visit of the United States Exploring Expedition, in 1838–42, under Commodore Charles Wilkes, produced, it is true, a very valuable set of hydrographical surveys, but these were as much for the advantage of the world in general as for America.

America’s first share in the partition was when, in 1867–68, she bought Alaska from Russia, and thus gained footing in the extreme north-east of the Pacific. Next, in 1898, America, at the close of her war with Spain, took over the Philippine islands (said to be over 300 in number) and Guam, the largest of the Marianne islands. Guam has a good harbour, and is doubtless a good naval station on the way to the Philippines. At the same time America annexed the Hawaiian islands, the Sandwich islands of Captain Cook, and the scene of Cook’s death. These islands, isolated in the north-central Pacific, rivalled the Fijis in opportunity for development. Historically, too, they are of great interest, having almost throughout the last century been the scene of experiments, nominally by the natives themselves, but with much assistance from European settlers, missionaries, and laymen, and from naval officers, in imitation statecraft, first monarchical, then constitutional-monarchical, and finally republican, with an American citizen as President. Four years later, local affairs being still very unsettled, the islands were annexed by the United States. They afford another convenient naval station on the way between America and the Philippines; and they have since been so admirably developed by their new owners as to justify, if justification were necessary, their annexation.

The story now comes to the convention of Samoa, in 1899–1900, between
Great Britain, Germany, and America. The Samoan islands in the Central Pacific had, from the time when Europeans first squatted there, been in special degree cosmopolitan. The islands and its natives were very attractive to Europeans, Britishers and Americans and Germans, but—as was the case in Fiji before cession—the white men could never agree among themselves, nor refrain from distracting the natives now this way and now that. The Commissioners met in Samoa to settle, once for all, it was intended, which of the three Powers concerned, Great Britain, Germany, and the United States, should prevail in these islands; and the opportunity was to be taken to settle several other Pacific questions, as between Great Britain and Germany.

It has always seemed to me that, taking all the circumstances into consideration, the Commissioners' decision was equitable. Germany got the Samoan islands, which were more commercially valuable, but without any good harbour; America, besides a few quite unimportant islets, got the island of Tutuila with the fine harbour of Pangopango as a naval station in the South Pacific; and Great Britain, though she got nothing in Samoa, secured exclusive control, by German renunciation of such claims as had before been made, over the Tongan group, including the splendid natural harbour of Vavao, and she also secured recognition of exclusive rights to all but two (Bougainville and Buka) of the Solomon islands.

Before leaving the subject of the Samoan convention it may be pointed out that by a line, drawn by that convention, which will now be found on most maps, the German possessions in the North-West Pacific, as these were at their highest point, are clearly marked off—at this their southern line. It will be noted, _inter alia_, that this line passes between two of the smallest but, because of their phosphate deposits, most valuable of the inhabited islets, Ocean island or Banaba, and Pleasant island or Nauru.

After the Samoan convention, the only considerable South Sea islands still to be taken definitely within the sphere of influence of one or other of the European powers were the New Hebrides. A few British subjects, from Australia, and a few French subjects, from New Caledonia, had long before scattered themselves as pioneer settlers over the islands of this group, and a few missionaries, chiefly British, but some French Roman Catholics, had at great risk to themselves gained some ascendancy over the natives in certain of the islands. But the islands were still outside the pale of any civilized law. Indeed, in 1878, the British and French Governments, who were alone concerned, mutually agreed not to occupy the islands, with the natural result that disorders increased. In 1887, Australia protesting against this state of affairs, a joint commission of British and French naval officers was appointed to protect the lives and property of British and French subjects, and to maintain what order they could by means of very occasional visits by men-of-war, and in 1902 British and French Residents were appointed.
None of these steps, however, had any great effect; and in 1906 a
*condominium* was established by a joint Anglo-French convention, with,
I am afraid, no greater success.

This brings the story of the partition of the Pacific practically to
August 4 last. It happens that I was at that time in Australia; and even
now can hardly think calmly of the outburst—and I know it was the same
in New Zealand—of grim delight at that sudden and unexpected coming
of the day which gave Australians and New Zealanders such opportunity
not only to prove their tremendous loyalty to the Mother-country, but also
to wipe out, as they so promptly and so thoroughly did, every trace of that
invader of the Pacific ocean whose comparatively recent intrusion they
had from the first resented.

I may not prophesy as to what will or should happen after the war.
But I will, in conclusion, record several hopes of mine own, as of one who
has lived, worked, and thought, to the best of my ability, while actually
among the islands of the Pacific. I hope that the opportunity for readjust-
ment which apparently must shortly occur—I need hardly say that I
assume that the expulsion of Germany, as a ruling power, from the Pacific
is final—will be taken, especially in two ways: (1) By the friendliest
arrangement with our French allies for the assignment of the New
Hebrides to one or other of the now joint powers; and (2), this is
perhaps even more important, for the settlement of the problem, difficult,
but, I am sure, not insoluble, as to the best method of control by the
United Empire of all its tropical Pacific islands, with due regard to the
interests of Australia and New Zealand, of Canada, of those Europeans who,
under Crown colony rule, have invested their capital and their labour in
any of the islands, and, certainly not least, in the interests of the coloured
natives of those islands and of the coloured British subjects who have been,
or may be, introduced into our tropical British possessions, as absolutely
essential assistants in the development of these island stepping-stones
between Canada and Australasia.

The President (before the paper): To-night, in pursuance of a promise which I
made at our last meeting, we are going to put before you a paper dealing with the dis-
covery of the Pacific and the historical development of its islands during the last three
hundred years. I need not repeat what I said at our last meeting as to political frontiers.
I feel sure it is quite unnecessary to insist on the fact that it is our duty as a national
Society to put forward the considerations, to set out the physical and social condi-
tions, which ought to influence the determination of political frontiers in the World
of the future. It is our function to put before the public, and through the public
before those statesmen who govern public affairs, the opinions of the experts whom
we number among our Fellows. It is, I know, often alleged that the local expert
is apt to magnify unduly the importance of the sphere of his own activity. That is
no doubt true. It is the part of the man who sits in Downing Street to weigh
intelligently the facts put before him and to base his action upon the considered
result. It is matter of common knowledge that, once upon a time, the action of