

Report
of The
Indian Colonization
Enquiry Committee.

REPORT
OF THE
INDIAN COLONIZATION
ENQUIRY COMMITTEE

Appointed by
The Government of the Union of South Africa

1933-34.



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**REPORT OF THE INDIAN COLONIZATION COMMITTEE,
1933-1934.**

To

THE HONOURABLE J. H. HOFMEYR, M.P.,
MINISTER OF THE INTERIOR.

Sir,

INTRODUCTION.

1. The appointment of this Committee was announced by you in a statement which you made in the House of Assembly on the 15th June, 1933, in connection with the proposed Indian colonization scheme. A copy of your statement as reported in Hansard appears in Appendix No. 1.

2. The circumstances leading to the appointment of the Committee may be summarised as follows:—

At the Round Table Conference held in Cape Town in 1932, on the Indian question in South Africa, one of the conclusions reached was the following:—

“It was recognised that the possibilities of the Union's scheme of assisted emigration to India are now practically exhausted, owing to the economic and climatic conditions of India, as well as to the fact that 80 per cent of the Indian population of the Union are now South African born. As a consequence, the possibilities of land settlement outside India, as already contemplated in paragraph 3 of the Agreement, have been further considered. The Government of India will co-operate with the Government of the Union in exploring the possibilities of a Colonization Scheme for settling Indians, both from India and from South Africa, in other countries. In this investigation, which should take place during the course of the present year, a representative of the Indian community in South Africa will, if they so desire, be associated. As soon as the investigation has been completed the two Governments will consider the results of the inquiry.”

3. This Committee was appointed to undertake a preliminary investigation in South Africa in furtherance of the above Agreement. Its terms of reference are—

“To undertake a preliminary investigation in South Africa, in connection with the proposals set forth in paragraph 3 of the Agreement arrived at by the 1932 Round Table Conference, for the exploration of the possibilities of a colonization scheme for settling Indians, both from India and from South Africa, in other countries; and to report as to the country or countries in which further investigation as to the successful operation of such a scheme might advantageously be made, having regard to the political, climatic and economic conditions in such country or countries, and the extent to which Indians in the Union would participate therein.”

4. Your Committee met at Durban on July 28th last year and sat until the 10th of August, sat again in Pretoria from October

25th to 31st, met again in Durban on the 24th November and sat until the 7th December, then sat at Pietermaritzburg on December 8th, and again at Durban on December 9th, and met finally at Cape Town on January 9th of the present year, where it continued in session until the 3rd February.

5. In considering countries in different parts of the world which *prima facie* offer possibilities of Indian colonization, your Committee was able to consult official reports, blue books, and works of reference in the Parliamentary Library, Cape Town, the State Library, Pretoria, and the Public Libraries of Johannesburg and Durban. The Committee also obtained, through the High Commissioner's Office in London, copies of certain official reports and handbooks which were not available in South Africa.

6. A notice was published by the Committee inviting all persons desirous of giving information on the subject of the Committee's enquiry, to come forward, but this met with no response. A good deal of valuable statistical information deemed relevant to the enquiry was, however, obtained from various official and private sources in answer to definite written requests made by the Committee. At its sittings in December and at its first sitting in January the Committee heard the evidence of eighteen witnesses who appeared voluntarily at the Committee's request. A list of the names of these witnesses is given in Appendix No. 6.

CHAPTER I.

CHARACTER OF COLONIZATION CONTEMPLATED.

7. In interpreting the terms of reference your Committee was met at the outset with the task of defining the character of the colonization scheme which was to be explored. Clarity here was a first essential, since discussion revealed that colonization might take many different forms. It might take one of the four forms hereunder mentioned—

- (a) assisted emigration by means of a free passage to another country where the new immigrants would be left to fend for themselves;
- (b) a scheme mutually agreed upon by the country of reception and the Indian and South African Governments which had for its basis the supply of much needed labour—such a scheme as was considered by the Indian and British Guiana Governments in 1922 and 1925, but was abandoned by the latter Government for financial reasons;
- (c) the settlement on the land of a large number of persons under a scheme financed by the Governments of India and of the Union and supervised by an organization specially set up by those Governments; or
- (d) a more ambitious scheme having as its objective the creation of an Indian colony overseas which would be chiefly developed by Indian enterprise.

8. There is a fundamental difference between the type of colonization described in paragraphs (a) and (b) above, and that of paragraphs (c) and (d). Schemes of the nature of (a) and (b) would find a place in countries already settled and in process of development, where the new colonists would settle among the older population and eventually become an integral part of that population. Schemes of the character of (c) and (d) aim at the

settlement of sparsely inhabited and undeveloped tracts of country where the new settlers would retain their national identity and would hope to build up a new civilization and culture in accordance with their own national ideals.

9. The second need for defining the character of the contemplated colonization arose from the existence of a divided opinion amongst the South African Indian community which had led to the secession of a number of members from the South African Indian Congress and the formation of a new organization. This new body has repudiated its support of the colonization scheme, ostensibly on the ground that the appointment of the present Committee stamps the scheme as being South African in character, and thus constitutes a departure from the Round Table Conference Agreement, which contemplated the immediate appointment of a joint Indian and South African Commission. Your Committee is of opinion that the view taken by this new body is wrong, and based upon an entire misconception. This Preliminary Enquiry Committee takes the character of a fact finding Committee and its appointment cannot be said to be a breach of the Cape Town Agreement, as this Committee in no way usurps the functions of the joint Commission contemplated in that Agreement.

10. To arrive at a conclusion upon this issue your Committee found it necessary to determine, as far as it is possible to do so, what the Round Table Conference of 1932 had in mind in agreeing to the policy of exploring a scheme of colonization; and for this purpose it has made a close study of the various stages of the Conference agreements, and the circumstances under which these were concluded.

11. The idea of emigration of South African Indians to countries other than India first appeared in the Cape Town Agreement of 1927 where the following words in paragraph 3 were used—

“For those Indians in the Union who may desire to avail themselves of it, the Union Government will organize a scheme of assisted emigration to India or to *other countries* where western standards are not required.”

As far as is known very few Indians have left South Africa since 1926 for countries other than India. In the absence of organized schemes of colonization in other countries by India herself, such as have from time to time been adopted by western nations, there has been no encouragement for any South African Indian to go to other countries.

12. The Cape Town Conference of 1932 discussed the matter of emigration in the light of past experience and arrived at the following conclusion (already quoted)—

“the possibilities of the Union’s scheme of assisted emigration to India are now practically exhausted..... As a consequence, the possibilities of land settlement outside India as already contemplated in paragraph 3 of the Agreement of 1926, have been further considered. The Government of India will co-operate with the Government of the Union in exploring the possibilities of a colonization scheme for settling Indians, both from India and from South Africa, in other countries.”

By this Agreement colonization in other countries, if found practicable, was to take the place of the rapidly concluding assisted emigration to India.

13. It is important to note at this stage that the 1932 Agreement provided that the exploration of the possibilities of such

colonization in other countries should be carried out by a joint Commission appointed by the two Governments. It was intended that the members of the joint Commission should visit the various countries to be explored and carry out on the spot their investigations and any necessary negotiations with the local Governments. It was further provided that the joint Commissioners should undertake their investigations during that year and report to their respective Governments, which would then consider the results of the enquiry. For various reasons the action contemplated in the Agreement was not carried out. Instead your present Committee was appointed to undertake a preliminary investigation in South Africa, which it was hoped would facilitate and expedite the work of the joint Commission.

14. Had the joint Commission been appointed, one of its first tasks would have been to decide the character of the proposed colonization scheme, and since it would have consisted of representatives from both Governments, its conclusions on that point would have been the result of further discussions on both sides. Your Committee, however, consisting only of South Africans, is obliged to draw its conclusions from the available facts. Your Committee's consideration of the question was assisted at an early date by the production of an undertaking drawn up by the delegates of the South African Indian Congress while the Round Table Conference was in session. It is common knowledge that this undertaking, which was dated January 23rd, 1932, was given to the Indian delegation by the South African Indian Congress as the result of discussions between them during the sitting and before the joint statement of the Round Table Conference was adopted. Your Committee, therefore, has no reason to believe that the character of the colonization scheme proposed is not correctly interpreted in the Congress' undertaking, which is as follows :—

- “1. The Congress agrees to co-operate with the Governments of India and the Union of South Africa in the former's mission to explore outlets for colonization in regard to her increasing population, provided that such co-operation on the part of the Congress is taken as inspired by patriotic motives and to ascertain whether there exist any good opportunities for South African Indians in the countries explored, and not on the score of Indians being deemed undesirable in the Union or that the Indian population is to be reduced; provided also that the Assisted Emigration Scheme which formed part of the last Agreement is eliminated and that the Congress will be free to oppose it as its policy.
2. The Congress also reserves the right to reject the Agreement and to withdraw its co-operation in the above scheme should any points in the Agreement or other subjects dealt with by the Round Table Conference not meet with the approval of the Congress.”

The undertaking was signed by the following :—

Jossub Ebrahim Gardee,	Sorabjee Rustomjee,
Bernard L. E. Sigamoney,	P. R. Pather,
Pragji K. Desai,	A. I. Kajee,
S. B. Medh,	Hajee Cassim Adam,
S. R. Naidoo,	A. Christopher,
M. M. Gandhi,	V. S. C. Pather,
Shaikh Ahmed,	A. Ismail,
C. F. Andrews,	A. D. Motala.

15. It emerges clearly from this undertaking that in the opinion of the South African Indian Congress, and presumably in the opinion of the representatives of India, as it is the opinion of Mr. G. Heaton Nicholls, M.P., a member of this Committee who was also a member of the Round Table Conference, the colonization scheme was to be primarily an Indian scheme undertaken for the benefit of India's surplus millions. As stated by the South African Indian Congress in evidence before this Committee "if the Government of India wished to put forward a scheme of colonization for Indians from India the Congress agreed to be associated with the exploration of the possibilities of such a scheme in order to discover whether it offered such attractions as might reasonably appeal to South African Indians to take a voluntary part in it". The evidence, therefore, leads this Committee to believe that the scheme contemplated was to be an Indian scheme on a large scale which had in view the colonizing of some new country by Indians from India in which South African Indians could take part; and the Union Government's representatives accepted it as a substitute for assisted emigration to India, which the Conference concluded was rapidly drawing to an end.

16. From an economic point of view India, with an ever-growing population, which in 1931 numbered over 352,000,000, has a right to seek outlets for the surplus population of her congested areas and to obtain a colony as other nations have done. Hitherto the sons of India have gone abroad to develop the colonies of others as indentured labourers, and have for the most part remained outside the circle of citizenship in their new homes, because of the stigma of their indentures; and the continued political inferiority of these emigrants in the countries to which they have gone, reacts upon the status of India in the eyes of the world.

17. On national as well as economic grounds, therefore, it is natural that India should aspire to found beyond her own shores a colony, where the energies of her more adventurous citizens could be expended in building up a free and independent Indian community. The call to patriotism referred to in the undertaking of the South African Indian Congress (paragraph 14 *ante*) may be interpreted in this sense.

18. Any scheme should, therefore, contemplate the continued growth of the new settlement and the possibility of the ultimate colonization of a considerable area, possibly of a whole territory or territories. It is too late in the day for India to become a competitor in colonization with the Western Powers in the more settled parts of the world, and your Committee is of opinion that the appropriate field for Indian colonization must be sought in countries which are, to a great extent, still in a primitive state.

19. The reference in the Round Table Conference Agreement to the possibilities of land settlement does not mean that only agriculturists who would actually work on the land would be acceptable as colonists. Your Committee is unable to take this narrow view. While land settlement would naturally form the basis of colonization, as it has done all over the world, many auxiliary activities are absolutely essential. In the type of new colony indicated in the previous paragraph, a land with potential but undeveloped resources, much pioneering work would have to be done. Communications would have to be established, harbours found and developed, wharves built and all the necessary machinery of an organized industrial community created in order to avoid by effective planning the hardships and failure which have too often followed the uncoordinated efforts of pioneers in the past. This effective planning would entail the careful selection of the colonists in their home

countries, their conveyance to the new country, and their equipment and settlement there under conditions which would enable every male adult or head of a family to become a self-supporting citizen. It would include the organization of marketing all products of the new country.

20. Your Committee definitely concludes that the type of colonization aimed at is that outlined in sub-paragraphs (c) and (d) of paragraph 7 of this report, and that the objective visualised in the Round Table Conference Agreement is the foundation and establishment in some undeveloped or but little developed territory, under proper control and with adequate financial support, of a purely Indian colony. As the basis of this colony would be land settlement, a sufficient tract of land would have to be acquired as a first step, either by the colonizing Governments or by private Corporations approved by them. Although such a colony would probably begin on a small scale the prospect of its ultimate growth and territorial expansion would always be kept in view by its founders. In a settlement of this nature where the majority of the new colonists would be Indian peasants, many others skilled in industry, commerce and administration would be required, and it is reasonable to suppose that a place would be found for such South African Indians as desire to take part.

21. Having come to this conclusion in regard to the nature of the colonization scheme, your Committee is of opinion that long views are necessary because the successful transplantation of a large body of people from India to any other country must in the future have far-reaching effects, one of which must be the extension of India's trade overseas.

CHAPTER II.

POLITICAL, ECONOMIC AND CLIMATIC CONSIDERATIONS.

22. In visualising the future development of such a colony it is obvious that undue weight should not be given to the present political and economic conditions in the prospective colony because the successful introduction of a new colonizing element would materially modify existing conditions, and reports and statistics reflecting present conditions should, therefore, be viewed in their proper perspective.

23. The same attitude should be adopted in regard to statistics concerning health and returns of births and deaths. Nowhere in any corner of the world is there a Garden of Eden awaiting in its pristine and innocuous simplicity the disturbing and conquering advent of civilized man. As pointed out in paragraph 14 (*ante*) potential fields for new colonization must be looked for in undeveloped areas still in the grip of untamed nature and any scheme having for its object the effective settlement of such regions must necessarily include in its organization proper measures to safeguard the new colonists from preventable disease. But health statistics in regard to such primitive and undeveloped areas have a distinct value indicating as they do the extent to which endemic disease is prevalent among—

- (a) the present colonists, and
- (b) the aboriginal peoples;

and the conditions of health reflected will be one of the factors which the colonizing authority will take into account in selecting a country for settlement. After a selection has been made officials charged with the organising of the medical and sanitary services

of the new settlement will be forewarned of the dangers ahead, and will be able to make their preparations accordingly. Vital statistics showing the birth and death rates of the present colonists are also of value in the above connection. Generally speaking, no accurate vital statistics are compiled or can be compiled in respect of indigenous peoples living under primitive and uncivilized conditions.

24. The requisite land for settlement could be obtained by purchase, either from private owners or from the Government of the country selected. The purchase might be made either by the Government of India or by some colonizing corporation approved by that Government. It is conceivable that a company might be formed for the purpose, to which extensive powers would be given by a special Charter from the Indian Government. It is also conceivable that the sovereignty of the selected territory might be acquired by and transferred to the Government of India or a Chartered Company which, in such event would have an entirely free hand in regard to schemes for settlement. As the territory would be undeveloped and sparsely peopled, the administration set up by the Government of India or Chartered Company would become the custodian of the rights of the aboriginal inhabitants and would be able to deal with all proprietary claims made by them.

CHAPTER III.

POSSIBLE SPHERES OF COLONIZATION.

Part A—General.

25. In searching the world for territory suitable for Indian colonization your Committee has been forced by a process of elimination to confine its investigations to countries under the Crown, where the acquisition of land on a large scale, with the possibility of the transfer of the actual sovereignty of a territory, either in whole or in part, to India, would be possible.

26. Areas of the world still awaiting exploitation are all in the tropics. Elsewhere settled political conditions and national prejudices offer insuperable obstacles to the establishment of a new population, even in sparsely peopled lands, and generally speaking all countries outside the tropics are already settled to the extent to which their known natural resources allow.

27. Three great tropical belts of the earth's surface still remain largely undeveloped. These are to be found—

(a) in Africa,

(b) in South America, and

(c) in the islands of the Malay or East Indian Archipelago.

In these areas which are largely still in a primitive condition, soil fertility and an abundant rainfall would seem to offer great rewards to effective and organized settlement. One is also entitled to presume from sporadic discoveries in different parts of these regions of precious stones, minerals and mineral oils, that a great deal of mineral wealth is still untapped.

Part B—Africa.

28. Your Committee has come to the conclusion that the African tropical belt as a possible field for Indian immigration must be ruled out. The Negro, Hamitic and Bantu peoples in those parts of Africa which are under the sovereignty of the British Crown or

fall within the sphere of influence of the Crown, are relatively numerous and virile and have already shewn intelligence, adaptability and capacity to learn, which has advanced them to some extent along the road to western civilization. The declared policy, too, of the Governments in Africa is to set aside undeveloped or partly developed areas as native reserves, and where Native progress is thought to justify such a course, to grant some measure of partial self-government to such native states or territories. The East African Colonies and Territories are open to Indians who are already well established there as traders and in other avocations. In some Territories the Indian already has a monopoly of the retail trade and it would do more harm than good to the growing influence of India in Africa to attempt Indian colonization on the scale contemplated.

Part C—South Africa

29. To come to the South American tropical belt the West Indian islands—Barbados, Jamaica and Trinidad—possess conditions of soil and climate which would be attractive to Indian colonists; indeed, in Trinidad, Indians already constitute 32 per cent. of the entire population, and it can fairly be said that the Indian community there is firmly established, and prosperous. But in all the British West Indian islands the land surface is limited, and this alone precludes any of them from being considered as a possible field for Indian colonization. Besides, these islands have long been settled, are highly developed and thickly inhabited, the density of population in 1931 in the three islands mentioned being as under:—

Barbados	1,046	persons	per square	mile
Jamaica	236	"	"	"
Trinidad and Tobago	221	"	"	"

30. On the shores of the South American Continent, however, the Colony of British Guiana would seem to disclose a more promising outlook. Here is a vast extent of undeveloped land practically uninhabited; indeed the total population of the Colony, which has an area of 89,480 square miles, was in 1931 only 313,619, persons, $3\frac{1}{2}$ persons per square mile. The great majority of the people within British Guiana are settled in the coastal belt within ten miles of the sea, the interior of the country as a whole being still in a primitive state.

31. I. In Appendix No. 2 your Committee has summarised as briefly and concisely as possible the information which has been obtained in regard to the possibilities of British Guiana as a field for Indian colonization, and the position may be stated briefly as follows:—

During the past 100 years, since slavery as an institution was abolished throughout the British Dominions in 1834, the Colony of British Guiana seems to have been economically stationary. As the report of the British Guiana Commission of 1927 states, the economic history of the Colony can be shortly summarised as follows:—

Year.	Population.	Sugar exported tons.	Sugar and by-products exported value tons.	Value all exports.	Percentage of sugar to all exports.
1836	98,000	69,000	1,847,786	£ 2,135,379	84
1925	304,000	97,000	1,551,745	2,967,096	53
1931	313,619	119,346	1,257,236	2,010,462	62

The figures for 1931 have been added in order to complete the picture drawn by the Commission's Report in 1927.

II. Indian immigration since the year 1838 has played a large part in providing labour for the sugar industry of British Guiana, which industry has been in a sense the lifeblood of the Colony for the past century. Today these indentured Indian labourers and their descendants number 42 per cent. of the total population of the Colony, and there can be no doubt as to the fine reputation which they have made for themselves. The British Guiana Government was prepared in 1922 and again in 1925 to import Indian settlers and to make them free grants of land, and to advance to each settler funds sufficient to enable him to establish himself on such land as an independent farmer. The estimated cost of this scheme to the British Guiana Government would have been about £230 per family, but the financial straits of the Colony since 1925 due to world-wide depression prevented any steps being taken to carry out the scheme.

III. British Guiana is in a state of arrested development. The Colony is dependent entirely upon the production of primary products which in the present depressed state of the world's markets, cannot be exported at a reasonably remunerative rate.

IV. Only a small portion of the fringe of the country has been settled and developed. It is estimated that even in the fertile coastal lands there is still an area of over 1,000,000 acres capable of effective settlement, if the necessary capital for preparing the land by drainage, empoldering and irrigation could be obtained. In the hinterland there is an area of 66,000 square miles of undeveloped forest and 20,000 square miles of Savannah.

V. In the words of the Financial Commission of 1931 "the future of the Colony depends on the development of its agriculture and exploitation of its forests". The Colony itself has not the funds to do this. The introduction of the necessary capital and man power must, therefore, come from outside, as the Colony itself can make no contribution beyond granting the necessary land.

32. British Guiana has a bad record in the matter of health, but your Committee has evidence that since the improvement schemes recently undertaken although not yet completely carried out, conditions of life in the villages and on the estates as well as in the city of Georgetown have been greatly ameliorated and the standard of public health has been raised. Before any settlement on the unoccupied coastal lands or in the interior can be effected, it will be necessary as an initial step to take measures to institute adequate medical facilities and sanitary control, and in the coastal belt to provide a supply of pure drinking water. No settlement in the coastal belt can be made until the land has been previously prepared for cultivation by drainage, empoldering and irrigation, measures which from their nature would in the ordinary course lead to more healthy conditions.

Part D—East Indian Archipelago.

33. It is, however, to that part of the world known as the East Indian Archipelago that your Committee would more particularly direct attention as affording, in their opinion, the greatest opportunities for Indian colonization; not only because of India's historical association with the principal islands, but also because of the strategic position which the Archipelago must always occupy in the future trade and protection of India.

34. The Archipelago stretches from Malaya, which it also includes, to the northern shores of Australia, and comprises the islands of Sumatra, Java, Celebes, Borneo, the Phillipines, New Guinea, and all the adjacent island groups. It therefore separates the Indian Ocean from the Pacific and through the narrow seas between these islands must pass all the trade between India and the Far East. All these islands today, with the exception of the Phillipines, are under the control of European Powers.

35. The total area of the Archipelago is just over a million square miles of land surface, with a population of nearly 80 millions. The density of population, however, is confined to a relatively small area of the Archipelago. Thus Java and Madura with an area of 51,000 square miles have a population of 41,719,000, *i.e.*, 818.1 persons per square mile; while New Guinea has approximately only four persons per square mile.

36. Density or sparsity of population, however, is no indication of the natural wealth of the various countries of the Archipelago. Civilization amongst the Javanese, introduced originally from India, led to intense native economic development and the growth of population. This ancient civilization, however, did not reach the more distant islands and consequently the indigenous peoples of Borneo and New Guinea have remained in their primitive savagery. Thus, the Papuans of New Guinea, equally with the Dyaks of Borneo, having no form of Governmental control, retained until yesterday their propensity for head-hunting and similar savage customs, which tended directly to depopulation and the perpetuation of unhealthy and devitalising conditions in their isolated village communities. In such circumstances material progress was quite impossible, although their countries have the same fertile soil and natural resources as Java.

37. It is only in comparatively recent years that any attempt has been made to develop the resources of Borneo and New Guinea, although their land surface represents over half the area of the whole Archipelago and even today vast tracts of New Guinea remain not only uninhabited, but unexplored. Already the development of Malaya and Borneo is being carried on by indentured Chinese labourers, who in the Straits Settlements constitute today two-thirds of the population, and in Borneo are the largest foreign element, although free labour today has superseded the indenture system. Much alarm exists amongst the Malayas in the Malaya States at the spread of political organization amongst the Chinese population which affects to regard Malaya as a Chinese colony, and this has led to the suppression by the Government of the Kuomintang (a political association) amongst the resident Chinese population.

38. The British portions of the Archipelago comprise Malaya, Northern Borneo and half of the island of New Guinea. The natural wealth of these areas is well known. The exports from Malaya, per head of population, are the greatest in the world. Northern Borneo itself, which is as large as Ireland, is in the same latitude as the island of Ceylon, and has similar physical features—rising from the coast to a mountainous interior, clothed with tropical forest and containing large areas of deep alluvial soil. It also has navigable rivers and an abundant rainfall. New Guinea in the south is one of the least developed of all countries. It has an area of 320,000 square miles. Half of the island is today governed by the Australian Commonwealth, and the other half by the Netherlands Government. The British portion of the island comprises the original British territory of Papua, and the former territory of German New Guinea, now mandated to the Australian

Commonwealth. The backward economic condition of Papua, and the mandated territory under the Commonwealth Government, is due to the policy of exclusion of Asiatic labour, while the primitive condition of Dutch New Guinea is due to the fact that the Netherlands has concentrated its whole attention upon other islands of the Dutch East Indies and has not attempted to bring the natives of New Guinea under administrative control. The island, as a whole, is rich in all natural products, and contains deep fertile soils throughout the whole area, has an abundant rainfall, navigable rivers, magnificent natural harbours and all the natural advantages needed to support a huge population.

39. Malaya has an area of a little over 56,000 square miles and a population of 4,600,000 of whom from 600,000 to 700,000 are Indians. The Chinese number about 1,700,000, while the indigenous Malays account only for 1,680,000. Any colonization by Indians in Malaya would have to be based upon the methods described in (a) or (b) in paragraph 7 of this Report, since the whole of Malaya has long passed the stage of having large tracts of country lying undeveloped. In Malaya, Indians have been mostly employed on the plantations, while the Chinese have been engaged on the tin mines and in commerce. During the recent depression a large number of Indians have been repatriated, much against their will and against the wishes of the Government. It is stated by Sir Cecil Clementi, the Governor of Malaya, that the Indian Government compelled this repatriation rather than allow Indian wages to be reduced below the standard fixed in their indentures, a measure of economy forced upon Malaya by the fall in the price of all primary products. This reduction, however, was accepted by the Chinese in preference to repatriation. Consequently, while there has been a diminution in the Indian population of Malaya, the Chinese population has increased. Malaya seems to your Committee to be a natural outlet for individual emigrants from India as colonists under the schemes indicated in (a) and (b), but not for the greater schemes described in (c) and (d), which your Committee now has under consideration.

40. British North Borneo, however, appears to offer an excellent opportunity for the larger type of Indian colonization. This territory of British North Borneo is governed by the British North Borneo Chartered Company which has its headquarters in London. The share capital of the Company is £2,000,000 and the £1 shares of the Company are quoted today on the Stock Exchange at 3s. 6d. The Chartered Company has failed to pay a dividend for some years, and has expressed its desire that the administration of the Territory should be taken over, either by the Rajah of Sarawak or by the Crown. In 1931 the Governor of Malaya stated that he had discussed with the Chartered Company "the question of whether the time has not now come for it to hand over its administrative functions to the Straits Settlements" and he found that the Directors were willing to do this, provided the interests of their shareholders were safeguarded. The Governor announced that he intended to discuss the matter in detail with the Straits Legislative Council. It is reasonable to suppose, therefore, that the Directors of the British North Borneo Company would be prepared to negotiate in regard to the transfer of the sovereignty of the Territory to the Government of India or to an Indian Chartered Company as a preliminary to the colonization and development of the country by Indians. (The term "sovereignty" is used here in the same sense as in the Charter of the British North Borneo Company). In

Appendix No. 3 is summarised such relevant information as your Committee has been able to obtain in regard to the past history and present condition of the State of North Borneo.

41. The Territory of Papua which is part of the island of New Guinea, and which from the point of view of area, undeveloped natural resources and paucity of population, would offer an attractive field for Indian colonization, if it were not for the policy of Asiatic exclusion which the Commonwealth of Australia has adopted, and enforced, in the administration of the Territory. When Papua was annexed by the Government of Queensland, it was stated by the Prime Minister that the annexation "was simply for the purpose of preventing bad neighbours coming near them". The southern coast of New Guinea lies almost within sight of the coast of Australia. The policy adopted in regard to the Territory, to maintain Papua for the Papuans, is therefore the logical extension of the "white Australia" policy.

42. Referring to the possibility of the introduction of Asiatic labour to develop the country, the Governor of Papua, Sir Herbert Murray, makes the following statement in his book "Papua of To-day":—

"It is not likely that Australia, which has taken over the Territory for strategic reasons, would immediately proceed to fill it with aliens, nor is it probable that supporters of the White Australia policy would welcome the congregation of a large number of Asiatics, even though they might be British subjects, within so short a distance of the Australian coast".

In another Chapter he remarks:—

"There is no doubt, and I do not suppose there has ever been any doubt, that one could develop the territory much more rapidly, and much more completely, if coloured labour were freely admitted. We fully realise this, but we have, nevertheless, decided to sacrifice the present for the future, and to exclude alien labour, and the Commonwealth has agreed. We see that even with compulsory repatriation a considerable number of aliens would remain and would cause a race problem in the future; and in addition there is the objection, which appears to me conclusive, though officially it concerns me less directly, arising from the proximity of Australia, and the danger of immigrants crossing the comparatively few miles of intervening ocean. The principle of Asiatic exclusion is said to be narrow, and so it is, if patriotism and self-preservation are narrow. The principle is doubtless a heavy handicap in the development of a new country, but we have shouldered it deliberately and we will carry it to the end."

43. The same policy which prevails in Papua is now operating in the Mandated Territory, which in terms of the Mandate is administered under Australian laws as an integral portion of Australian territory.

44. Consequently these Territories cannot under existing circumstances be considered in connection with any scheme of Indian colonization. It is, however, quite within the bounds of possibility that future political developments in the Far East and in the Pacific may lead to a change in the policy of the Commonwealth Government with regard to the exclusion of Asiatics from

New Guinea, and with such a change it is not inconceivable that the establishment of a strong Indian Colony in New Guinea might be welcomed. Your Committee therefore desires to direct the attention of the Joint Commissioners to this possibility.

45. The chief points in regard to past and present conditions in the Territory of Papua and the Mandated Territory of New Guinea are set out in Appendix No. 4.

CHAPTER IV.

SOUTH AFRICAN INDIAN PARTICIPATION.

46. In considering the injunction to ascertain the extent to which Indians in the Union would be likely to participate in any scheme of colonization which might ultimately be set on foot, your Committee decided that in the absence of any definite scheme of colonization which could be placed before the Indian community, the injunction could best be carried out by obtaining such information concerning Indians in South Africa as would enable an opinion to be formed by the Committee as to the extent to which Indians would be likely to participate as colonists in an approved scheme.

47. The following figures relating to the Indian population of the several Provinces of the Union have been furnished by the Director of Census. There has been no census of non-Europeans since 1921 and the figures for the year 1931 in regard to Indians are estimates only. The undermentioned table gives the numbers of Europeans for purposes of comparison.

Province.	Year.	Europeans.	Indians.
Cape	1911	5,82,377	6,606
	1921	650,609	6,498
	1931	749,231	6,500
Natal	1911	98,114	133,030
	1921	136,838	1,41,368
	1931	177,449	163,400
Transvaal	1911	420,562	10,048
	1921	543,485	13,405
	1931	696,120	15,500
O. F. S.	1911	1,75,189	106
	1921	188,556	100
	1931	205,375	100

These figures shew that in the Cape and Orange Free State there has been very little change in the number of the Indian population since 1911. In the Transvaal, however, there has been a progressive increase which amounted to 33·4 per cent. between 1911 and 1921 and 15·6 per cent. since 1921. In Natal the increase of the Indian population was 6·2 per cent. during the first of these periods and 15·6 per cent. during the second.

POLITICAL STATUS.

48. The Cape is the only Province in which Indians possess the parliamentary franchise. In Natal Indians also enjoyed the franchise up to 1896 when the Act No. 8 of 1896, while preserving the rights of those who were already enrolled, laid down that no Indians in the future should be entitled to enrolment. In the present year there are only 13 Indians enrolled as parliamentary voters in Natal. In the Cape, on the other hand, 1,471 Indians have their names on the parliamentary register of voters.

49. Indians in the Cape and Natal have the municipal franchise but in the latter Province the number of Indians registered as municipal voters is dwindling since the passing of the Natal Provincial Ordinance No. 3 of 1925 which in effect prevents fresh Indian names from being entered upon the Municipal voters' roll. Indians registered prior to the passing of that Ordinance are still entitled to exercise the municipal franchise.

50. In the Cape, Transvaal and Orange Free State the Indian communities are relatively small and as they are mainly engaged in trade your Committee did not consider that any appreciable number of Indian from these Provinces would be likely to take part in any scheme of colonization and, therefore, confined its investigation into the position of Indians to the Province of Natal. Here the relatively large Indian population consists of two sections, (a) the Indian immigrant section which includes all Indians originally brought to Natal as indentured labourers and their descendants; and (b) the merchant and trading section often spoken of as the passenger Indian, belonging to the original commercial classes who came to Natal of their own accord in the wake of the indentured labourers.

51. The position of the immigrant section of the Indian population in Natal today, as shewn in the following table, is of interest—

Indian Immigrant Population.

Period 16th November 1880 to 31st December 1932.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
Total introduced	104,619	48,022
Died in Natal	24,871	14,239
Returned to India in terms of indenture.	46,983	19,733
Left Natal otherwise	12,513	2,471	84,167	36,433
Remaining	20,452	11,579
Total born in Natal	91,287	90,993
Died	18,067	19,966
Returned to India in terms of parents' indenture.	12,466	12,474
Left otherwise	2,474	1,348	33,007	33,788
GRAND TOTAL					58,280	57,305
					78,732	68,784

Annexure A, of Appendix 5 attached to this Report shews the estimated occupational distribution of male adults of the Indian immigrant population at the present time.

Agriculture and Sugar Production.

52. It is estimated that there are 2,750 independent Indian farmers in Natal today. A special report issued by the Census Department in 1925 shewed 2,546 separate farms and holdings occupied by Indians. Statistics furnished by the Natal Sugar Millers' Association shew that during 1933, 709 Indian growers supplied sugar cane to the various sugar milling companies. It is considered, however, that there has been very little increase in number of Indian farmers since 1925, and one witness expressed the opinion that there were in that year more Indian growers of

sugar cane than in the present year. Indian agriculturists are chiefly market gardeners supplying local markets with fruit and vegetables. It is abundantly clear that the position of the Indian labourer in connection with the growing of sugar cane and the manufacture of sugar has altered entirely in the past twenty-two years. At the beginning of 1911 Indians provided almost the entire labour force required by the sugar estates, the total number of employées at that time being—

Europeans			636
Non-Europeans—			
Indians not under indenture		1,250	
Indentured Indians—			
Adult males	11,516		
Women and children	5,505	17,020	18,270
Natives			2,380
		Total Non-Europeans	20,650

53. A report on the sugar production of Natal dated January 10th, 1911, is of extreme interest. It shews the progressive increase in the yearly output from 1898 onwards as under :—

1898	20,000 tons.
1906	31,000 tons.
1908	51,000 tons.
1910	82,000 tons.

The growth of the industry from 1906 onwards is attributed to (a) installation of up-to-date, machinery, and (b) improved methods of cane cultivation, the abandonment of unsuitable land and the use of fertilisers. The report considered that the cessation of immigration of indentured Indians which had then been decided upon would adversely affect the labour supply of the sugar estates and grave doubts are expressed (1) as to whether the place of the essential Indian could be taken by the Native, and (2) whether a sufficient supply of native labour could be secured. The undermentioned figures explain more clearly than words the groundlessness of those doubts of twenty-two years ago. The expansion of the sugar industry during that period has been phenomenal and with this expansion the importance of the Indian labourer has been a gradually diminishing factor. It could fairly be said that while the original foundations of the industry were laid upon Indian labour, all new development during the past twenty years has been on the new basis of native labour.

Return shewing development of sugar planting and milling in Natal for period 1910—1932.

NON-EUROPEAN LABOUR.

Average daily number of units employed.

Year.	Indians.			Natives.	Sugar Annual Production (tons).		
	Male Adults.	Women and Juveniles.	Total.	Male Adults.	Total units of labour.	Total.	Per unit of labour.
1910.	12,765	5,505	18,270	2,380	20,650	32,000	3.97
1925.	9,440	2,000 (Estimated).	11,440.	27,873	39,313	240,000	6.10
1932.	6,858	1,162	8,020	40,263	48,283	390,000	8.08

Land ownership.

54. Statistics prepared by the Registrar of Deeds, Natal, and incorporated in the Special Report issued by the Director of Census in 1926, shew 89,841 acres of land (urban and rural) in Indian ownership (see Annexure B of Appendix 5). It is estimated that Indian owned land at the beginning of the present year (1934) aggregates 105,000 acres, as the average extent of land annually passing from European to Indian ownership during the three years period 1930 to 1932 was 2,281 acres.

Mining.

55. There has been a gradual reduction in the number of Indians employed on the Natal Coal Mines. Twenty years ago the actual work of mining the coal (picking and filling) was done entirely by Indians, some thousands of whom were then indentured to the Colliery Companies. Today this work is done by Natives, the few Indian employees of the Coal Mines being engaged on semi-skilled tasks both underground and on the surface. Annexures C and D of Appendix 5 reflect the position of the Indian on the Coal Mines in relation to the European on the one hand and the Native on the other over the last eight years.

Transportation.

56. At the date of Union there were from 5,000 to 6,000 Indians in the employ of the Natal Government Railways, many of them indentured labourers. In December, 1924, the earliest year for which exact figures have been obtained, the number of Indian labourers was 1,795, while in December, 1932, the number was only 609, a reduction of 1,186. The development of road motor transportation has, however, opened a new avenue of employment for the Indian, as well as for other sections of the community, and it is estimated that 600 Indians are now engaged in connection with motor traffic.

Industries.

57. Statistics furnished by the Protector of Indian Immigrants for August, 1933, showed 2,708 Male Adult Indians employed in factories, and your Committee was able to obtain details from 15 representative factories in the Durban and Pietermaritzburg districts, employing Indians, which throw much light on the place held by the Indian in secondary production. From these details one is justified in concluding that there has been no increase during the past ten years, but on the contrary a relative decrease in comparison with European labour.

The following figures illustrate this—

Aggregate Labour employed by ten Natal Factories.

Years 1924—25 and 1933.

Year.	Europeans, Male and Female.	Indians, Male and Female.	Natives, Males only.
1924-25	703	932	1,635
1933.	1,106	748	1,274

Aggregate Labour employed by five Natal Factories.

Years 1930—31 and 1933.

1930-31	161	492	501
1933.	245	550	487

58. Except in the Printing and Furniture making trades Natal born Indians have not entered the ranks of the skilled artisans, but they have taken up, to a large extent, semi-skilled work in Factories, where, their employment being under the control of the Wages Board, they command the same rates of pay as Europeans. Though employers are not of one mind as to the relative capacities of Indians and Europeans, the general opinion expressed is that the Indian owing to his natural intelligence and alertness is equal to the European in the performance of the semi-skilled repetition work of the modern factory; all agree that the Indian has one advantage over the European worker, namely, that he retains his employment permanently and if once trained to normal tasks is not disposed to change his occupation and seek employment elsewhere, as the European frequently does. This permanency of the Indian also gives him an advantage in the less skilled branches of labour over the native, who as a rule is disinclined to remain in continuous employment for longer periods than six months.

Public Administration.

59. Returns furnished by the courtesy of the Town Clerks of Durban and Pietermaritzburg show that a large number of Indians are employed by these corporations. Municipal employment being in its nature a permanent occupation, there has been very little change in the numbers of Indians employed during the past twenty years. In Durban, for instance, 1,601 were employed in 1913, 1,735 in 1923 and 1,887 in 1933. These last figures do not include 293 on relief works of a temporary nature.

In regard to Pietermaritzburg the position is much the same; there were 123 employed in 1913, 165 in 1923, and 146 in 1933. These last figures do not include 50 Indians on relief work.

Hotel and Catering Services.

60. Your Committee has reason to think that the number of Indians employed in these services is slightly decreasing, but no exact statistics are available.

Vital Statistics.

61. The Indian immigrant population of Natal is increasing. In Annexure E of Appendix No. 5 are figures supplied by the Protector of Indian Immigrants, showing the population as well as the birth and death rates for the period of eleven years, 1922—1932 inclusive. A second return is also given in Annexure F of the same Appendix showing the number of Indians returned to India under the scheme of Assisted Repatriation and Emigration during the same period. These disclose the following result:—

Annual Birth rate, average	60.71	per 1,000
Wastage—		
(a) Death rate, annual average	14.35	
(b) Emigration rate, annual average	15.24	29.59 per 1,000.
Net annual increase	21.12	per 1,000

Conclusions.

62. During the past twenty years there has been a steady decrease in the numbers of Indians employed on the Sugar Estates, Railways, and Coal Mines, of Natal, more especially in the case of field-workers, and unskilled labourers.

63. Generally speaking the Natal born Indian is educationally and socially in advance of his parents as he speaks English as well as his mother tongue, and while retaining his religion has become largely westernised and is no longer content to live as his father did on the limited rewards of rough and unskilled labour. He has not forgotten his mother tongue but English has become to a large extent his *lingua franca*. There has, therefore, been a continual migration of the members of this younger generation to the urban areas where their intelligence and initiative enables them to command the higher rates of pay offered by Industrial and Commercial undertakings and Government and Municipal Services.

64. It would not be correct to say that the younger generation is moving to the towns *en masse*; a considerable proportion remain as employees on the farms, Sugar Estates and Coal Mines, but in their cases the trend is towards lighter semi-skilled and better-paid work, the sphere of unskilled labour being left to the Native.

65. Many of the older generation have established themselves as smallholders, principally in the coastal districts, and while a proportion of the children of these men are content to remain with their fathers as agriculturists, a larger proportion has joined the migration to the towns.

66. The present position may be summarised as follows—There is a steady decrease in the numbers of Indians employed on sugar estates, coal mines and Railways, while the number engaged in agriculture remains stationary. In industry where the Indian has secured a place in semi-skilled work, the numbers employed are less than they were some years ago. In municipal services there has been a slight increase. There is a considerable amount of unemployment amongst the Indian community but the closer bonds of Indian family life which entail a wider distribution of financial responsibility throughout the family group have the effect of rendering the stress and hardship of unemployment less obvious than it would be in the case of Europeans.

67. It is clear that the avenues of Indian employment are gradually closing. In all unskilled occupations the Indian is giving place to the native. In the semi-skilled and better paid occupations there has been no expansion of Indian employment nor, owing to the white labour policy, is there any immediate prospect of further expansion. Meanwhile, the Indian population of Natal is steadily increasing. The natural inference from these facts would be that economic pressure which is now throwing the Indian more and more on his own resources would sooner or later compel him to seek fresh avenues of occupation either in Natal or elsewhere. The members of the younger generation are conscious of the progress which they have already made, ambitious and eager to continue that progress, and might be expected to avail themselves of new opportunities of doing so, whether in South Africa or outside.

68. In this connection the following factors must be taken into account—

- (1) Both the South African Indian Congress and the Colonial Born and Settlers Indian Association of Natal have declared their purpose to oppose participation by South African Indians in any colonization scheme.
- (2) There is a feeling among South African born Indians that the process of adoption by them of western standards which has already advanced to a considerable degree may render it difficult for them to fit into the communal life of Indian colonists from India.

- (3) It was urged before your Committee that the economic pressure to which the South African born Indian is subject is to a large extent due to special restrictions placed upon him, the result of which is not to arouse the desire to seek better opportunities elsewhere, but rather to induce him to remain and continue his efforts for the removal of the restrictions.
- (4) In regard to British Guiana there appears to be rightly or wrongly a very strong prejudice against this colony amongst South African Indians. Your Committee has no evidence of any similar prejudice against any other country.

69. After careful consideration of the matter, your Committee is of opinion that a proportion of the Indians resident in Natal may be regarded as potential colonists, but it is quite impossible at the present time to say to what extent these potential colonists would participate in any colonization scheme which may later be formulated. No scheme can hope to attract emigrant settlers unless the fullest publicity be given to the advantages which it has to offer. At the moment there is no propaganda for colonization and in the absence of any definite scheme there cannot be any such propaganda. Participation in colonization is a continuous process. Its beginnings may be small but the success of colonization will depend upon an auspicious beginning.

Recommendations.

70. It appears to your Committee that—

- (1) British North Borneo;
- (2) British New Guinea; and
- (3) British Guiana;

are countries in which further investigation as to the successful operation of a colonization scheme might advantageously be made, and your Committee, therefore, recommends that the attention of the Joint Commissioners should be directed to those countries in the order mentioned.

In this connection your Committee would invite attention to the remarks in paragraphs 40 and 44 of this Report, in regard to British North Borneo and British New Guinea respectively.

71. Your Committee desires to express appreciation of the assistance which it received from various sources during the conduct of its investigations.

We have the honour to be,
Sir,

Your obedient Servants,

Chairman :—J. YOUNG.

Members :—G. HEATON NICHOLLS.

S. R. NAIDOO,

P. F. KINCAID.

CAPE TOWN :
The 26th February, 1934.

APPENDIX No. 1.

EXTRACT FROM HANSARD.

Statement by the Minister of the Interior in the House of Assembly on 15th June, 1933, announcing the appointment of the Committee.

I desire the leave of the House to make a statement to the House in connection with the proposed Indian Colonization scheme, which I promised a few days ago. Honourable members will recall that the summary of conclusions reached by the Round Table Conference held in Cape Town in 1932 on the Indian question in South Africa contained the following paragraph:—

“It was recognized that the possibilities of the Union’s scheme of assisted emigration to India are now practically exhausted, owing to the economic and climatic conditions of India, as well as to the fact that 80 per cent. of the Indian population of the Union are now South African born. As a consequence the possibilities of land settlement outside India, as already contemplated in paragraph 8 of the agreement, have been further considered. The Government of India will co-operate with the Government of the Union in exploring the possibilities of a colonization scheme for settling Indians, both from India and from South Africa, in other countries. In this investigation, which should take place during the course of the present year, a representative of the Indian community in South Africa will, if they so desire, be associated. As soon as the investigation has been completed the two Governments will consider the results of the enquiry.”

It was the feeling of the conference that in the circumstances mentioned in the paragraph quoted, the time had arrived for the exploration of the possibilities of a scheme of colonization in which Indians both from India and from South Africa might participate, and it was hoped that the opportunities which would thus be created for the establishment in some other country than India or South Africa, of an Indian community, free to develop along the lines of its natural aspirations, would appeal to a large section of the Indian population of the Union. I wish to state that it is the desire of the Government to take effective action along the lines agreed upon by the conference, and it will apply its best efforts in that direction. The Government has considered carefully how best the proposed investigation should be initiated. It has come to the conclusion that the investigation, in which the Government of India and this Government are to co-operate, may be considerably facilitated and expedited by preliminary investigation of the ground to be covered, and it feels that such a preliminary enquiry could, as far as the Union is concerned, best be undertaken by a small departmental committee, which should, however, not be restricted in its composition to departmental officials.

In the paragraph which I have quoted from the summary of conclusions, it was stated that with the investigation therein contemplated, a representative of the Indian community in South Africa would, if they should so desire, be associated. I am glad to say that the South African Indian Congress has indicated that it is the desire of the Indian community of South Africa to be so associated. The Government is anxious that that community should also be associated with the preliminary enquiry which is now proposed, since it considers that such participation would be of material assistance to the committee in its work, and the South African Indian Congress will, therefore, be asked to nominate a member of that body.

It is further proposed that when the committee has completed its work, the conclusions arrived at by it should be transmitted to the Government of India with a view to their collation with such proposals as that Government may decide to make, as a basis of the work of the commission to be appointed jointly to conduct the final investigation, in terms of the report of the 1932 round table conference. These proposals have been discussed with the Government of India, and I am glad to say that it has expressed its concurrence therewith. The Government of India has also stated—and for this I wish specially to express the gratitude of this Government—that its agent in South Africa is being requested to place himself and his staff entirely at the disposal of Ministers here and of the committee for giving such informal help as might be in his power.

It has been decided that the committee should be constituted as follows:—Mr. James Young, ex-chief magistrate, Johannesburg (chairman); Mr. G. Heaton Nicholls, M. P., for Zululand (I am very glad that the honourable member, who virtually sponsored this idea at the round table conference, is available to take part in this preliminary investigation); a representative of the South African Indian community; and Mr. P. F. Kincaid, Commissioner for Immigration and Asiatic Affairs.

Its terms of reference will be:—

“To undertake a preliminary investigation in South Africa in connection with the proposals set forth in paragraph 3 of the agreement arrived at by the 1932 round table conference, for the exploration of the possibilities of a colonization scheme for settling Indians, both from India and from South Africa, in other countries; and to report as to the country or countries in which further investigation as to the successful operation of such a scheme might advantageously be made, having regard to the political, climatic and economic conditions in such country or countries, and to the extent to which Indians in the Union would participate therein.”

I am hopeful that the work of this committee will be such as to make a substantial contribution towards the goal adumbrated by the round table conference in this regard, which, as I have indicated, it is the sincere desire of the Government to further to the best of its ability.

APPENDIX No. 2.

SHORT DESCRIPTIVE ACCOUNT OF THE COLONY OF BRITISH GUIANA.

Geographical and Physical Features.—The Colony is situated on the north western coast of South America, and is the only British possession on the mainland of this Continent. It has an area of 89,480 square miles and a seaboard of 270 miles. Its principal port is Georgetown, which is also the Capital and seat of Government. The length of the Colony from north to south is about 500 miles, and its average breadth from east to west is 300 miles.

The Colony is bounded on the north by the Atlantic ocean, on the south and south-east by Brazil, on the east by the Dutch Colony of Surinam, and on the west by Venezuela, and is divided into three countries, Essequibo, Demerara and Berbice. It has four large rivers and a large network of creeks.

The land falls roughly into three categories:—

1. A coastal belt from 10 to 40 miles wide, much of which is below sea level at high water, and has to be protected by dykes, and equipped with a system of drains and sluice gates to enable surplus water to flow out to sea at low tide. These Coast lands cover about 3,000 square miles.
2. A forest belt from 50 to 180 feet above sea level having great potential resources in mineral and forest products, but as a rule of very low agricultural value, covering an area of more than 66,000 square miles.
3. A savannah or pastoral belt at a general altitude of from 400 to 700 feet consisting of natural grass lands and covering an area of 20,000 square miles.

The Coastal land forms an agricultural belt of exceptional fertility; the forest belt, although generally, of very low agricultural value, has among the foothills and in the valleys pockets of firmer soil of small area capable of intensive cultivation; and the savannah belt, extending in the extreme south in the Rupunini District and along the Berbice District in the north-east, although unsuitable for cultivation, holds very large tracts suitable for cattle-ranching.

Of the total area of the Colony 4,178 square miles is in private ownership, the remaining extent, over 85,000 square miles, is still vested in the Government.

The Colony lies between the first and ninth parallels of north latitude and fifty-seventh and sixty-first degrees of west Longitude. The temperature seldom falls below 75 degrees, and seldom touches 90 degrees. Cool sea breezes blow steadily across the coast lands throughout the greater part of the year, and prevent the weather from becoming oppressively hot. The total rainfall in 1931 was 69.26 inches. The mean rainfall for the Coastlands is 80.91 inches.

The bulk of the population is settled in the coastal belt and here practically all agricultural and industrial development has found place. The forest and savannahs of the interior still remain largely in their primitive and natural condition.

Communications.—The Report of the British Guiana Financial Commission of 1931 sets out the position with great brevity and precision in the following words:

Communications in the coast lands are easy. Except in the sparsely populated district in the extreme north west, a road runs close to the Coast line throughout the Colony, with small extensions up the rivers wherever there are villages; indeed it may be said that there is scarcely a village which is not on the road or a plantation settlement which is not connected with it.

An efficient ferry service has been provided across the great rivers. Two railways have also been constructed, one between the Essequibo and the Demerara and the other between the Demerara and the Berbice, while there are steamer services from Georgetown.

Communications in the hinterland are difficult. A cattle trail links the savannahs in the south with those in the north, and an unmetalled road is at present being constructed to the south from Bartica. Otherwise the only method of travel is by water. The great rivers permit of navigation up to distances of 40 to 60 miles.

History.—The territories of Essequibo and Demerara, which now form British Guiana, were originally settled by the Dutch, and came under the control of the Dutch West Indian Company early in the 17th Century. In 1814 these territories were ceded to Great Britain. The first twenty years of British rule appears to have been prosperous ones, as the heavy European demand for sugar in that era had to be met almost entirely by the South American coastal lands, and the West Indies. But prosperity was checked when the effects of slave emancipation were first felt in 1836. The sugar estates were obliged to find fresh supplies of

labour, or drastically curtail their production. Negroes (freed slaves chiefly) were first imported from the adjacent West Indian Islands, but proved to be just as unsatisfactory as the recently liberated negroes of Guiana. Then the planters went further afield and brought Portuguese from Madeira and Maltese from Malta. But the labour situation became gradually worse, and finally in 1838 the first batch of Indians to the number of 406 were brought in as indentured labourers for the estate of John Gladstone (father of the great Statesman) and gave complete satisfaction. But difficulties arose in regard to further importations of Indians and permission to recruit in India was withdrawn and an inquiry into the treatment of Indians already imported was held in 1839. It was not until 1845 that Indian immigration was again allowed, on the condition that each labourer was provided with a return passage after five years. Finally in 1853 the importation of Indian labourers under indentures was legalised.

From 1838 onwards till the system of indentured labour ceased in 1917 a total of 239,000 Indians (men, women and children) were introduced, and up to the end of 1920 some 69,000 of these had been repatriated to India.

India has always kept a motherly eye upon her children in far off Guiana. From time to time, there have been investigations and inquiries into the conditions under which Indian labourers in the country lived and worked, and in more recent times the Government of India has kept an Agent-General of Immigration in British Guiana to look after the interests of Indian immigrants.

In 1917 the Government of British Guiana was informed by the Secretary of State for the Colonies that immigration of Indians to British Guiana was to cease immediately, and that no further importation under the old system of indentures would be allowed. This was a blow to the Colony and in June, 1919, a deputation selected by the Colonial Government proceeded to England in order to "lay before His Majesty's Government a representation of the needs of the Colony, both for the maintenance of the present industries, and for their extension, and to show the advantages which the Colony offers to immigrants from other countries".

After deliberations in the United Kingdom, five of the delegates proceeded to India in October, 1919, and there presented to the Authorities a scheme for the colonisation of British Guiana by means of assisted emigration from India. This scheme was examined by a Committee appointed by the Indian Legislative Assembly under the Chairmanship of the Honourable Sir Surendra Nath Banerjee, which came to the conclusion that no schemes of emigration should be approved unless it was certain that the position of the immigrants in their new homes would in all respects be equal to that of any other class of His Majesty's subjects in the Colony. In order to satisfy this condition, the deputation laid before the Committee a draft Ordinance assuring to Indians equal rights with other classes of British subjects in British Guiana. This inclined the Committee to take a favourable view of the scheme, but, before recommending definite acceptance, the Committee advised the appointment of a deputation of three competent persons to proceed to British Guiana, investigate the conditions on the spot and report to the Government of India.

Subsequently the Secretary of State informed the Indian Government that the Government of British Guiana was willing to undertake legislation assuring to Indian immigrants equal political rights with other classes of British subjects, and the deputation was appointed consisting of:—

Mr. G. F. Keatinge, C.I.E., I.C.S., Director of Agriculture, Bombay.

M. R. Ry. Dewan Bahadur Pattu Kesava Pillai, Deputy President, Madras Legislative Council.

Mr. V. N. Tivray, M.A., Servants of India Society, Allahabad,—

(a) to investigate local conditions in British Guiana;

(b) to examine on the spot the suitability of the colonisation scheme above referred to; and

(c) to report whether any further guarantees in respect of the status of Indian immigrants are necessary before emigration is re-opened.

This Deputation made its investigations in British Guiana between the 12th of February and the 7th of April, 1922, and your Committee is fortunate in having been furnished with copies of the reports of its members, which contain much valuable information in regard to the general condition of British Guiana and especially the circumstances of the Indian community in the country.

The original scheme presented to the Government of India in 1919 (the Nunan-Luckhoo Scheme) by the deputation of that year was modified in 1920, and a second deputation under the leadership of Sir Joseph Nunan visited India in 1923 and explained the modified scheme (known as the Governor's Scheme) to the Government.

In September, 1925, Kunwar (now Sir) Maharaj Singh, M.A., C.I.E., was deputed to proceed to British Guiana and report on the modified scheme.

The important points in his terms of reference were:—

- (a) to report upon the progress made in providing suitable land for prospective settlers, and existing immigrants, the steps taken to supply them with materials and skilled assistance to put up residential accommodation, and with loans for agricultural development, and the measures instituted for improving the sanitary conditions in respect, especially, of drainage and water supply;
- (b) what improvements, if any, have taken place in the political and economic status of the resident Indian Community since the earlier deputation of 1922?

He visited British Guiana in October and November, 1925, and his report, dated December 18th of the same year, is a very valuable one.

In the following year (October, 1926) a Parliamentary Commission was appointed by the British Government under the Chairmanship of Mr. R. Roy Wilson, M.P. (now Sir Roy Wilson) "to consider and report on the economic condition of the Colony, the causes which have hitherto retarded and the measures which could be taken to promote development, and any facts which they may consider to have a bearing on the above matters".

This Commission visited British Guiana and made its report, which was presented to Parliament in April, 1927. One of its recommendations was that the previously existing Constitution should be altered so as "to confer power upon the Governor to carry into effect measures which he and the Secretary of State for the Colonies consider essential for the well-being of the Colony". On this recommendation a local Commission was appointed to advise on the precise nature of the constitutional modifications required, and on its report being received, an Act to make provision for the Government of the Colony of British Guiana was passed by British Parliament in 1928 empowering the King-in-Council to create a legislature for the Colony in such a form and with such powers as His Majesty might determine. Thereafter, by Order of the King-in-Council, a Legislative Council was constituted on the 18th of July, 1928, and the previously existing Court of Policy, and Combined Court, were abolished, and their power vested in the new Council.

This new Council comprises:—

The Governor as President.

Ten official members (2 being members *ex-officio* and 8 nominated).

Nineteen unofficial members, of whom 14 are elected, and 5 appointed by the Governor.

The first General Election under the new Constitution was held in 1930.

In the year 1931 another Commission, the British Guiana Financial Commission, reported on the financial position of the Colony.

Population and Vital Statistics.—The total population of the Colony is shown by the following figures:—

Race Division.	Number of Persons.			Percentage of total.		
	1911.	1921.	1931.	1911.	1921.	1931.
Europeans other than Portuguese.	3,937	3,291	2,085	1.33	1.11	.67
Portuguese	10,084	9,175	8,641	3.40	3.08	2.73
East Indian.	126,517	124,938	131,919	42.74	41.97	42.07
Chinese	2,622	2,722	3,019	.89	.91	.97
Blacks	115,486	117,169	124,838	39.01	39.36	39.81
Mixed Races	30,251	30,587	34,404	10.22	10.28	10.97
Aborigines	6,901	9,160	8,365	2.33	3.07	2.67
Not Stated	243	659	348	0.8	.22	.11
Totals	296,041	297,691	313,619	100	100	100

For the purpose of comparison it may be stated that the population in 1836 was 98,000 and in 1925, 304,000.

The Report of the British Guiana Commission in 1927 draws attention to the fact that the above increase of population from 1836 to 1925 was entirely due to assisted immigration of labour for the plantations and not to any natural increase.

British Guiana has always had a high death rate at times in excess of the birth rate, as will be seen from the particulars given in Annexure "A".

Public Health.—There are six public hospitals in different districts in the Colony, the largest being that in Georgetown which is well equipped and up-to-date. In the country districts some 14 Government Medical Officers serve the needs of the people, attend at estate hospitals and engage in infant welfare work in the villages. The Government Public Health Department supervise the sanitary activities of local authorities in village and country areas, 26 sanitary inspectors being stationed in the different districts of the Colony. In every official Report for the last few years, malaria has been characterised as the chief disease of the Colony, the number of deaths registered as directly due to this cause being as follows:—

1925	1,054
1926	1,234
1927	1,715
1928	1,563
1929	1,198
1930	1,104
1931	834

a maximum rate of 5.5 per 1,000 in 1927 and a minimum of 2.6 per 1,000 in 1931.

The Report for 1931 comments upon the reduction in the number of deaths, but states that the variation from year to year is appreciable. Tuberculosis and enteric appear to be the two other diseases which cause most concern, but elephantiasis and hookworm are also prevalent.

The Reports of Messrs. Pillai, Tivary and Keatinge in 1922 all refer to impurity muck of the water. Apparently pure drinking water in the coastal belt can only be obtained from artesian bores which fortunately tap a good supply at depths of 500 to 800 feet. Owing to the low level of the land, drainage constitutes a serious problem and Georgetown has more than once been described as "floating on sewage". With regard to malaria, Mr. Keatinge remarked that he did not see how malaria could ever be eradicated by surface drainage in a country like the coastal tract of British Guiana. Kunwar Maharaj Singh referred in terms of high praise to the efforts made by the Colony to improve both the water supply and the drainage system. In 1927 the British Guiana Commission also referred to the improvements made but pointed out the prevalence of malaria and dysentery in the interior and stated that the Colony's death rate was still excessively high, this being due principally to impure water supply and imperfect sanitation. The Commission considered that much of the disease was preventable, and, being due to unhygienic and insanitary conditions of life, might at least be greatly mitigated. In 1931 the Financial Commissioners, who were primarily concerned with proposals for economics, reported that the activities of the Public Health Department were so essential to the welfare of the Colony that no retrenchment was possible. On the contrary they suggested increased expenditure when the financial position of the Colony improved.

Principal Industries.—(a) *Agriculture.*—Sugar has always been the economic life blood of the Colony and to-day sugar and its by-products, rum and molasses, furnish 55 per cent in value of the total exports. There are 28 sugar estates in active operation, but the country is no longer dependent on its sugar crop to the same extent as it was in the 19th century. Development has taken place in other directions, and rice, coconuts, coconut oil, lime juice, copra, coffee, balata and rubber may now be regarded as staple products.

The natural resources of the country are considerable. The forests of the interior abound in valuable timber, of which there is a considerable export, while there are also gold and diamond diggings.

Sugar has for many years constituted the principal industry in the Colony and it was to set this industry on its feet that Indians were first introduced from India under the indenture system. In 1931 the production of sugar was 126,143 tons, of which 119,846 tons were exported, 38,962 tons being exported to the United Kingdom and 70,774 tons to Canada. The total value of the exported sugar amounted to £1,109,532. The area under sugar cultivation is reported as 61,097 acres.

Rice has also assumed a position of importance in the Colony and in recent years the Department of Agriculture have undertaken extensive propaganda work, with the result that the production of rice shows a considerable increase. There were in 1931 73,647 acres under rice cultivation, of which 5,719 acres yield two crops. The total yield is reported as 73,428 tons of paddy equivalent to about 47,056 tons of cleaned rice, of which 23,632 tons valued at £220,904 were exported.

Other agricultural products are coconuts, copra, coffee and limes. The following table is of interest showing the annual exports and values of the principal agricultural commodities during the five years up to 1931:—

		1927.	1928.	1929.	1930.	1931.
Sugar	Tons	109,816	114,687	100,449	114,542	119,346
	£	1,830,747	1,692,639	1,238,289	1,128,934	1,109,532
Molasses.	Gals.	2,677,457	2,873,468	2,536,623	3,851,337	7,106,907
	£	30,322	34,225	29,417	41,345	76,945
Rum	Pf-Gals.	1,081,020	1,269,923	1,109,482	846,319	772,076
	£	107,592	120,060	102,390	75,619	70,759
Rice	Tons.	11,497	18,083	14,091	22,480	23,631
	£	150,806	232,114	182,585	227,164	220,904
Copra	Lbs.	2,605,818	7,841,944	8,420,160	4,503,009	3,093,440
	£	24,276	73,442	65,489	29,880	17,214
Balata	Lbs.	753,057	647,566	599,997	995,459	765,475
	£	81,773	53,635	48,260	81,311	54,138

It may be noted in passing that the above table affords a striking illustration of the disastrous fall in prices which has hit the Colony so hard.

The British Guiana Financial Commission of 1931 draws attention to the fact that in 1930 the total cultivated area was 155,852 acres and that the largest area recorded under cultivation was 194,325 acres in 1918.

The Commissioners considered a further 100,000 acres in the coastal belt culturable if reconditioned and drained, while an additional area of 1,000,000 acres could be made fit for cultivation by the expenditure of capital on drainage empoldering and irrigation.

(b) *Mining.*—The mineral production at present is confined to gold, diamonds and bauxite. Gold has been produced since 1884 and the total production to the end of 1931 was 2,699,664 Ozs., valued at £9,849,092. Practically the whole of this has been obtained by native miners using simple hand methods. There are no mines in existence at present. The lowest output recorded was in 1928 when the total production was 6,083 ounces valued at £22,638. There has subsequently been some revival and in 1931, 11,093 ounces were produced, valued at £41,188.

Diamonds have been obtained since 1890 and the highest output was reached in 1923 when 214,474 carats were produced valued at £1,033,014. The production has since then been steadily falling and in 1931, 6,840 carats were produced valued at £105,257. The British Guiana Commission which reported in 1927 referred to this industry as a diminishing asset which cannot be regarded as a stable or permanent factor in the economy of the Colony.

Valuable deposits of bauxite exist in easily accessible localities. Mining operations have been carried on since 1914 in the Demerara River, where plant and buildings costing approximately £1,000,000 have been erected. The quantity and value of bauxite exported since 1921 is as follows:—

Year.	Tons.	Value.
1921	12,384	12,078
1922		
1923	100,346	110,488
1924	154,324	162,861
1925	174,909	184,654
		Dollars.
1926	183,859	920,682
1927	160,933	806,459
1928	167,621	839,615
1929	182,692	914,035
1930	119,616	598,080

(1 dollar=4s. 2d.)

Public Finance.—The following statement regarding the public finance of the Colony is taken from the Annual Report on British Guiana for 1931 (Colonial Reports, No. 1598). The ordinary revenue for 1931 amounted to £911,954, falling short of the estimate by £50,730 and of the revenue for 1930 by £70,887. The total Colony revenue, however, amounted to £916,930, which is £96,843 short of the figure for 1930. The total Colony expenditure was £1,075,983 which was £17,321 less than the expenditure in 1930. Special

receipts from the sources named and the corresponding expenditure, neither of which appear in the totals quoted above, are as follows:—

	Revenue.	Expendi- ture.	Excess.
Colonial Development Fund approved scheme	27,923	29,650	1,727
Unemployment Relief Works (Grants from Imperial Govt.)	145,000	145,102	102
Empire Marketing Board (Grant)	997	997
	172,923	175,749	2,826
Loan-in-aid towards 1930 deficit	50,000
Loans in aid towards 1931 deficit	180,000
	230,000		
	402,923		

The revenue and expenditure for the last 5 years are as under:—

Year.	Revenue.	Expenditure.
1927	1,068,865	1,148,028
1928	1,185,811	1,159,139
1929	1,252,322	1,126,218
1930	1,013,282	1,093,304
1931 (from all sources)	1,319,862	1,251,732

Assets and Liabilities.—The Balance Sheet of the Colony at 31st December, 1930, showed an accumulated deficit of £109,956. Including the items detailed in the preceding paragraph the revenue of the year having exceeded the expenditure by £68,130 at 31st December, 1931, the deficit was reduced to £41,826, which embraces expenditure of £2,826 recoverable from the sources indicated above, the total assets and liabilities at the close of the year being £919,357 and £961,183 respectively.

<i>Public Debt.</i>	£
At 1st January, the Colony's Funded Debt amounted to	4,667,468
During the year redemptions were effected to the extent of	35,308
Leaving a Public Debt at 31st December, 1931, of	4,632,160
(This debit is exclusive of a portion of the Railway Permanent Annuities and Perpetual Stock that has not been funded, namely, an annual debt charge of £17,625)	
Against the liability for the repayment of the Public Debt, Sinking Funds are estimated as at 31st December, 1931, to have a market value of	506,664

The members of the Financial Commission of 1931 have made some pertinent remarks in regard to the financial position and outlook of the Colony.

In Section 128 of their Report it is stated:

"We have explored every avenue possible and are unable to suggest how the budget can be made to balance during the current year, or even in future years, until there is a recovery in the price of the primary products of the Colony, or unless further and more drastic reductions are made in the cost of administration than we have been able to recommend."

These remarks are not, on the face of them, reassuring, but a casual study of the history of British Guiana shows practically no progress made for a hundred years.

In the phenomenal growth and expansion which generally characterised all European settlement of new countries in the 19th Century, British Guiana had no part.

The British Guiana Commission of 1927 draws attention to this stationary condition in the following words:—

"This era of expansion (i.e., from the Napoleonic War period until the Slave Emancipation of 1834) closed as abruptly as it began, and from 1836, the last year before the effects of emancipation began to be felt, to 1925, the last year

for which full figures are available, the economic history of the Colony can be shortly summarised as follows:—

	Popula- tion.	Exported Sugar Tons.	Value of sugar and by-products exported.	Total value of all exports.	Percentage of sugar etc. to all exports.
			£	£	
1836	98,000	59,000	1,847,876	2,135,379	84
1925	304,000	97,000	1,551,745	2,967,096	53
1931	313,619	119,346	1,257,236	2,010,462	62

The figures for the year 1931 have been added by your Committee in order to complete the picture of a British Colony left behind in the race of colonization. The Commission observes that throughout this period 1836 to 1925 the area under sugar has steadily declined; that the whole rise in sugar exports had been achieved over forty years ago, since when production remained stationary with a tendency to diminish. In assigning reasons for the stagnation revealed by the above figures the Commissioners say that the first place must be given to the sheer physical difficulties which have hitherto retarded the development not only of British Guiana but of the whole continent to which it belongs.

Previous enquiries relating to Immigration and Colonization.—The Nunan-Luckhoo Scheme of 1919 offered the following terms to Indians accepted as colonists:—

- (1) a free passage to British Guiana for the colonist, his wife and children; children;
- (2) on arrival, employment with a registered employer at current rates of wages. This employment included—
 - (a) free housing for 3 years;
 - (b) free medical and hospital treatment for 3 years;
 - (c) free milk for children under 5 years for the whole period of employment;
 - (d) free rations for limited period for children and wives during pregnancy, and period of nursing a child.
- (3) Free return passages to India after seven years' residence for adult colonists and their dependents. Passages to India after 5 years' residence on payment of one quarter of the cost, and after three years' residence on payment of one-half the cost. (Any individual or family to be sent back to India free of charge at any time on the direction of the Government of India's Supervising Officer).
- (4) A Special Reward Grant of prepared land (drained and suitable for cultivation) of five acres to each head of a family after three years' continuous agricultural work with a registered employer. The only cost to the settler of this land to be five annual payments of 4/2d. per acre. (This reward grant of land is made subject to the condition of beneficial occupation of the land by the grantee). At the end of eight years (i.e., 3 years' service, followed by 5 years' occupation of the land) the settler has the choice of—
 - (a) accepting absolute ownership of the land, or
 - (b) abandoning the land and accepting free return passages to India for himself and family.

The Modified Scheme.—A memorandum by the Governor of the Colony, in 1920, had the effect of modifying the original scheme, and it was this modified scheme which was put before the Indian Government by the deputation of 1923. The condition of three years' service under a registered employer was no longer made obligatory. Every immigrant would have a free choice of land or labour, and those preferring work for wages to taking up land would be at liberty to choose their own employers. If an immigrant who had received a free passage for himself and family should on arrival be in a position to support himself and family, and had some small means of his own, he might almost at once become a small farmer. He would be entitled to apply to the Government for a grant of land, and an advance of money repayable over a term of years to enable him to prepare the land and put it into a state fit for occupation. The grant both of land and of the necessary funds for agricultural development would, however, require the authority of the Legislature, and might be withheld in times of financial stress.

The immigrant who had paid his own passage to the Colony would receive much more liberal treatment, should he desire to take up and occupy land immediately on arrival.

Where a number of families were coming as settlers at their own expense, and the Colonial Government was advised beforehand, plots of land with dwellings would be prepared in advance for their reception, the Colonial Government bearing the cost of land preparation, and erection of buildings to an amount equal to the ordinary cost of introduction of immigrants.

These immigrant land settlers would not be entitled to free return passages to India, unless, of course, they complied with the condition of giving a minimum of three years' service under a registered employer.

The Colonial Government would not feel bound to make grants of land to any immigrant not previously approved by its own agent. It is understood that no immigrant would be allowed to participate in either the original or the modified scheme without such previously given approval.

The British Guiana deputation of 1923-24 emphasised the land settlement side of the modified scheme, and that every immigrant would have a free choice of occupation on arrival. But Sir Joseph Numan, the leader of the deputation, pointed out that the Colony's Commissioner in India would have the sole right of selecting the emigrants and would naturally take care that a proportion of the heads of selected families were men likely to accept agricultural employment to begin with, so as to avoid over weighting any land settlement scheme at the outset. But the Colony's Commissioner would have no power to bind anyone to accept employment; everyone would on arrival in British Guiana be offered the alternative of land or employment and, as already stated, would have an absolutely free choice.

The deputation of 1922 submitted two reports, one by Mr. Keatinge, dated October 9th, 1922, and the second a joint report by Dewan Bahadur P. Kesava Pillai and Mr. V. N. Tivary, dated 20th May, 1923.

Both reports are unanimous in emphasising the great potentialities of British Guiana for Indian colonisation for Indians from India.

Paragraphs 197, 198 and 199 of the Joint Report set out the position in the following words:—

197. *Suitable land for settlement not available.*—We consider that the climate and natural characteristics of British Guiana are such as to offer good opportunities for Indian immigration, and great possibilities for Indian settlers to obtain fertile land and become substantial peasant farmers.

198. At present, however, though unoccupied land is available to an almost unlimited extent, the physical conditions which govern the agricultural situation are such that it is hardly possible for ordinary settlers to take up land and cultivate it successfully immediately on arrival in the Colony.

199. We think that it would be possible to make available large areas of suitable land for the purpose of settlement by Indian agriculturists, and to call into existence the organisation necessary for securing this result and giving the settlers the assistance which they would need to overcome their initial difficulties. We consider the inauguration of such a scheme to be desirable, though we are doubtful whether, in the near future, it would be possible for the Colony to find the large funds needed for opening up the hinterland and making it suitable for settlement.

Paragraphs 88, 89 and 90 of Mr. Keatinge's report are almost in identical terms.

The joint report of Messrs. Pillai-Tivary lay stress upon two objections to the Colonisation Scheme, namely:—

- (a) that suitable land for settlement was not immediately available, and
- (b) that the health conditions of the country were unsatisfactory.

The report recommends the rejection of the scheme on the ground that the proposals of the British Guiana Government are merely tentative and not definite, but adds that, if a definite offer should at any time be made, the preparation of land for settlement and the improvement in sanitary conditions generally, as well as the carrying out of the other reforms, should be made a condition precedent to any consideration of such definite offer.

Messrs. Pillai and Tivary had good grounds for condemning the then existing sanitary conditions.

British Guiana has a bad reputation in this respect, even for a tropical country, and there can be no doubt that in the dark ages of medical science, which may be considered as having lasted until the end of the 19th century, the incidence of disease was unduly high, as was also the general death rate, a state of affairs which appears to have been accepted by the Government and people of the Colony with mediæval fatalism.

Mr. Keatinge's report, as well as the joint report, contains statements of fact which show that the arrangements for the domestic water supplies and sanitation in the towns and villages and on the estates as late as 1922 were primitive and unsatisfactory and a constant menace to the health of the community.

Mr. Keatinge's Report.—Mr. Keatinge recommended the re-opening of the gates to a carefully regulated stream of Indian immigration, not only in the interests of British Guiana but also in those of the resident Indian community there. He considers, quite correctly, that a steady influx of Indians would gradually strengthen the resident Indian community and would in future enable it to become predominant in the Colony.

To show the great possibilities of the undeveloped portions of the country the instances, in Chapter 10 of his report, the North Western Districts, a great uncleared and undeveloped area, not of coastal, but of interior land, which if opened up and reclaimed would offer ideal conditions for the settlement of small farmers. He points out that in this area one is no longer on a flat and fertile coastal belt below sea level, but among river valleys, with soil of fertility equal to that of the coastal land, in close proximity to low hills, which offer healthy sites for residence and pure drinking water within easy reach. He found a few Indian immigrants, about 400 in number, settled in one corner of this area, and living in apparent comfort. But the whole country is covered with virgin forest and the cost of clearing the land would be heavy, as would be the cost of opening up communication with a sea port by means of wharfs on river banks, or roads through the forest. He suggests that development of the area might advantageously be undertaken by a Land Company, assuming that the Government would make a grant of, say, 50,000 acres to such a Company on its undertaking to settle 5,000 Indian families as small holders on the land within a definite period. The Company would presumably recoup itself for its initial development expenditure from sales or leases of the improved land to the settlers. It must be remembered that, apart from the coastal belt, British Guiana is still, to all intents and purposes, an undeveloped country.

According to the joint report, the local Indian community in 1922 were strongly opposed to the admission of fresh Indian immigrants before the year 1930. The economically depressed state of the Colony at that time is stated to have influenced the Indians in forming this opinion.

When Kunwar Maharaj Singh visited British Guiana towards the end of 1925, local Indian opinion had changed with the improved economic position. He reports that the thinking Indians in the Colony were all but unanimous in favour of further immigration although opposed to any purely labour scheme, and states that since 1922, the Government had initiated measures for improving the water supply and the drainage of the Colony.

He considers too (paragraph 24 of his report) that suitable land for Indian Colonists could be made available in a short time and without excessive cost. The proposal was to allot 5 acres of land per family, and he considers that the Land Settlement Commission and Colonisation Board of British Guiana, acting in conjunction with an officer of the Indian Government specially appointed to protect the interests of settlers, were quite competent to carry out satisfactorily the details of any land settlement scheme.

In recommending rice growing as the most suitable form of agriculture for Indian colonists, he points out that most Indians from the middle and eastern districts of the United Provinces of India had an intimate knowledge of this method of farming. He considers the prospects of rice as a remunerative crop to be good, but points out that rice cultivation, even on a holding of 5 acres where two crops a year could be raised, would only take up a few months (not more than six) of the farmer's time and would not be sufficient to support a family in any degree of comfort. It is the general practice, however, in British Guiana for such small holders to take up employment on sugar estates or Government works in their spare time, and in this way the small farmer is able not only to live in comfort but to save money.

He recommends that colonists should be recruited from agricultural families in India and should be young, healthy and active with not more than one child per family, and, further, that the Recruiting Officer of the British Guiana Government in making his selection of colonists should be assisted by an officer of the local Provincial Government in India.

He suggests that the first recruitment of immigrants should be restricted to 500 families (say, 1,500 persons) as an experiment, and, if the experiment proved satisfactory, arrangements could be made for the immigration of 5,000 or 7,500 families. The Colony had at that time an amount of \$615,442 in its Colonisation Fund besides \$93,628 in its Immigration Fund.

The Report of the British Guiana Commission of 1927, which was presented to Parliament in April, 1927, alludes to the Government works in progress towards equipping the coastal villages with an efficient system of drainage and irrigation and with a pure water supply, "measures which should mitigate the evils of flood, drought and disease, which have for generations prevented the rise of a peasant family proprietary". The Report states that drainage schemes then in hand, when completed, would benefit 93 miles of coastal lands and, in addition to protecting cultivated land from flooding, would render available for cultivation a large extent of land formerly unused.

Mention is also made of the work being done by the Georgetown Municipality in providing up-to-date drainage system and a pipe borne water supply for the city.

In the view of the Commissioners these works constituted a necessary foundation for the building up of any scheme for future development.

As to the progress made on the improvement works, the Annual Report of the British Guiana Administration to the Colonial Office for the year 1929 (Colonial Reports, Annual No. 1496) may be quoted. It states:

60. All the approved schemes for the improvement of the drainage and irrigation of the coastal belt have been completed.

61. A total of 42 artesian wells of an average depth of 770 feet, of which 7 were for private estates, have been drilled, producing a good potable water. A number of these have been damaged by an element, corrosive to metal but otherwise harmless, recently shown to be present in the potable water, and the wells so affected are being reconditioned.

62. In connection with the City Improvement Schemes for Georgetown, the main drainage was completed and handed over to the Sewrage and Water Commissioners on the 6th July, 1929, and is working satisfactorily. A total of about 92 miles of house connections have already been laid, and it is hoped that the whole of the work will be completed shortly.

To return to the report of the British Guiana Commission, it appears that in 1926, no steps had been taken to bring into operation the Scheme of Indian Colonisation, pending the preparation of a detailed estimate of the cost, and consideration by the Government whether the finances of the Colony would allow of the expenditure. It is stated that the cost of introducing the initial 500 families would be £127,000, that is to say, about £254 per family or £84 per head, while the larger scheme of introducing 5,000 families would cost £1,147,000, being £229 per family.

The Commissioners, while expressing the opinion that British Guiana is exceptionally suitable for Indian colonisation, advise the Colonial Government, before embarking on any scheme of Indian Colonisation, to try again the recruiting of immigrants from Barbados and Jamaica, which had been dropped in 1924. Subsequently the Commission advised that the Scheme be abandoned on the grounds of expense.

Present conditions of Indians in British Guiana.—As has been shown the total Indian population of British Guiana is 131,919, constituting 42 per cent. of the total population. They constitute 5 per cent. of the industrial group (such as wood-cutters, gold and diamond seekers, mechanics, artisans, balata labourers, etc.) and 74 per cent. of the agricultural labourers. They are still employed in large numbers on sugar estates, but there is abundant evidence that they are more and more farming on their own account and it is they who are responsible for the large increase recently in the cultivation of rice.

Full educational facilities, such as exist at present, are open to Indians. The state gives special grants-in-aid to schools that teach an Indian vernacular to Indian pupils.

The report of the Immigration Agent-General, British Guiana, for 1932, shows a total of 14,374 Indian children attending school during the year (9,439 boys and 4,935 girls), while 67 Indians were employed as teachers, and 52 schools received grants for teaching Hindu.

Indians have full political rights. The only reason why, constituting as they do the largest racial group in the population, they have not been able to exercise their rights to vote to the same extent as other classes, is because many of them (quite a large proportion of the whole) are illiterate and are thus debarred from placing their names upon the Register of Voters.

The social position of Indians in British Guiana is satisfactory, the Indian citizen being on a footing of absolute equality with other elements of the population.

The stagnation in sugar and rice industries, coupled with the depression, has created a good deal of unemployment among Indians, as with others.

As recently as 1933, the Government of British Guiana appointed a local Commission consisting of the Hon. J. Mullin, Commissioner of Lands and Mines and Capt. F. Burnett, Deputy Director of Agriculture to carry out an agricultural survey of the areas suitable for Land settlement and Colonization by West Indians. The Commissioners carried out an extensive investigation and brought their special knowledge to bear upon the subjects of their enquiry and their Report is informative and deals with the latest position of the country in relation to possibilities of land settlement and colonization by West Indians.

The following facts are extracted from the Reports:—

1. When the demand for coastal lands set in, the lands bordering the sea from the Pomeroon to the Courantyne River were laid out by the Dutch in rectangular blocks—generally a mile or so wide by 2 miles and a half deep and given out under conditional grants of occupancy, which required the holder to empolder, drain, and cultivate them within a given period, when they became freehold. It was on these blocks that the sugar estates were established. Labour troubles following the abolition of slavery, increasing difficulty in maintaining sea defences and competition of bounty fed sugar from foreign countries gradually forced many of the sugar estates out of business. These freehold estates were taken over by freed slaves, or small owners, and many of them are now the sites of coastal villages.
2. With the advent of the East Indians as indentured labourers to the sugar estates, interest in rice growing commenced, and on completion of their indentures increasing numbers of these thrifty and industrious people settled on the abandoned estates and developed rice growing to such an extent that it is now second in importance to the sugar industry.
3. Any scheme of settlement along the coastlands today involves purchase of more or less derelict estates and considerable outlay thereafter in putting the dams, canals, trenches and sluices in order.
4. There is ample land along the coast and the lower reaches of the rivers within the coastal alluvial belt without overcrowding two or three times the number of the present population which is estimated to be 60 per cent. of the total population of the colony, provided that the necessary empoldering, drainage, and irrigation works are carried out.
5. The available Crown Lands immediately in rear of those privately owned estates would as a rule, however, require still greater expenditure in these necessary works of preparation, especially as drainage rights through the front lands have not been reserved, other than along strips between estates known as Company Paths or Kettings.
6. The Commissioners are of the opinion that until the estate authorities or the Sugar Producers' Association, can satisfy the Government that every possible means has been adopted to utilise the unemployment of the Colony, no steps should be taken to introduce outside labour merely as such, but there is much to be said for a system of infiltration leading to Settlement.
7. They are of the opinion that judicious introduction of skilled cultivators from the West Indian Islands, preferably for cane-farming, but also for cultivation of general crops, to which they are accustomed, would act as a stimulus and an example to the local population to take to the land.
8. As regards intermediate peneplain, (the hinterland) which as a rule, is of low agricultural value, attention should be directed chiefly to the possibilities of the savannah lands for cattle grazing.
9. Attention should be given to the possibilities of settling immigrants on and in the vicinity of the existing sugar estates, and every effort should be made to develop canefarming as an integral part of any settlement scheme.
10. Notwithstanding the importance of co-operation by the sugar industry in any scheme of colonization by West Indians, there are somewhat limited possibilities of settling such immigrants on the coastlands general agriculturists, if suitable lands are acquired and put in order.

11. It is generally far more economical to acquire abandoned estates, where these can be secured at reasonable cost and to extend on to the Crown Lands in rear thereof, rather than to empolder drain and irrigate virgin Crown Lands for that purpose.
12. Settlement schemes worked in conjunction with the estates can be more economically initiated and would more likely be a permanent success than settlements attempted independently.
13. The need for a pure and reliable water supply in connection with all Settlements should be a *sine qua non* of any settlement scheme.
14. A matter of great importance to successful land settlement is sanitation and particularly anti-malarial measures, as West Indians are peculiarly susceptible to malaria.
15. The history of past attempts at settlement has demonstrated the vital part malaria plays in determining the success or otherwise of settlement schemes in this Colony.

ANNEXURE "A" OF APPENDIX No. 2.

Birth and Death rates per 1,000 of the whole population, for the years 1900 to 1908, 1915 to 1919, and 1923 to 1931, are given below. The figures for the period 1915—1919 are taken from the report of Dewan Bahadur P. Kessava Pillai, M.L.C., and V. N. Tivary, M.A., dated the 20th May, 1923. All other figures are from the Annual Reports of the British Guiana Administration to the Colonial Office.

Year.	Classification.	Yearly. Birth and Death Rates per 1,000.			
		Sectional Rates.		Average Rates for whole Population.	
		Births.	Deaths.	Births.	Deaths.
1900				36.7	25.3
1901				35.0	23.6
1902				33.4	25.1
1903				29.3	28.9
1904	City of Georgetown (only)		44.7	30.3	28.8
1905	" " " " " "		42.6	33.6	27.4
1906	" " " " " "		42.2	32.9	28.8
1907	East Indians (only)	24.3	..	28.3	36.9
1908	" " " " " "	24.4	..	27.3	30.8
1915	" " " " " "	32.6	28.8	31.3	27.7
1916	" " " " " "	25.5	27.1	26.5	27.1
1917	" " " " " "	27.6	33.1	28.4	30.4
1918	" " " " " "	23.3	49.4	25.1	40.6
1919	" " " " " "	24.6	49.3	26.	40.4
1923	" " " " " "			30.4	28.3
1924				32.4	25.6
1925	East Indians (only)	37.3	27.7	33.5	24.2
1926	" " " " " "	38.3	23.4	34.7	25.5
1927	" " " " " "	39.3	27.5	32.6	26.
1928	" " " " " "	30.3	32.9	28.3	27.9
1929	" " " " " "	36.4	24.8	31.7	23.5
1930	" " " " " "	40.	25.4	33.4	23.
1931	" " " " " "	37.7	23.3	31.4	21.8

The years 1918-19 were abnormal years, as the Influenza epidemic caused great havoc in British Guiana, as in other countries. The death rate exceeded the birth rate for the whole population in the following years—1907, 1908, 1916, 1917, 1918, 1919, *i.e.*, in 6 years out of the 20 years for which returns have been obtained. There is a progressive fall in the Death rate from 1923 when it was 28·3 per 1,000 to 1931, when it was 21·8 per 1,000. The Birth rate over the same period is stable at an average of 32·1 per 1,000.

A Table of Infantile Mortality for 10 years from 1922 is given hereunder, as extracted from figures given in the Reports issued by the Administration of British Guiana. The Table shows the proportion of deaths of the children under one year of age of each race to every 1,000 births of each race in the whole Colony.

Year.	Whole Colony.	Euro-peans.	Portu-guese.	East Indian.	Chinese.	Black.	Mixed.
1922.	186	40	114	194	141	205	128
1923	177	56	205	179	77	136	186
1924	165	44	163	163	171	172	146
1925	155	..	102	168	115	160	123
1926	159	51	123	132	59	191	163
1927	158	..	104	163	26	163	139
1928	185	..	164	209	63	177	137
1929	146	..	116	136	62	169	123
1930	146	100	44	155	70	150	114
1931	139	..	95	140	66	146	129

The Table given below, also extracted from the Colonial Reports, shows the infantile mortality in the city of Georgetown and the town of New Amsterdam for ten years from the year 1922:—

Year.	Rate per 1,000 births.	
	George-town.	New Amsterdam.
1922	186	144
1923	181	188
1924	176	178
1925	156	162
1926	174	216
1927	138	113
1928	188	159
1929	158	153
1930	118	207
1931	129	188

APPENDIX No. 3.

SHORT DESCRIPTIVE ACCOUNT OF BRITISH NORTH BORNEO.

Physical Features.—The Island of Borneo, which is next to New Guinea in size, and the third largest island in the world, lies in the middle of the East Indian Archipelago and directly in the path of sea traffic between India and the Far East. The area of the whole Island is 290,000 square miles, apportioned as under:—

Dutch Borneo	213,000 sq. miles.
Sarawak (British Protectorate)	42,000 sq. miles.
Brunei (British Protectorate)	4,000 sq. miles.
The State of North Borneo (British Protectorate)	31,000 sq. miles.

The country consists mainly of mountain ranges from 4,000 to 13,000 feet in height rising somewhat sharply from ranges of low hills. These hills are traversed by valleys and occasional plains. The coast line is formed mainly by alluvial flats intersected by creeks and swamps. Hills and valleys in many cases are covered with dense forest and there is an extensive system of rivers.

The following information has been obtained in regard to the last named of the protectorates—the State of North Borneo:

Sandakan is the largest town in North Borneo, and is situated within the entrance to the harbour of the same name. The towns next in importance are Jesselton, the principal port on the West Coast, Papar, Beaufort, Tenom, Kudat, Lahad Datu, situate on Darvel Bay, and Tawau, situate on Cowie Harbour.

The climate of North Borneo differs not at all from the other islands of the East Indian Archipelago. There is a tropical heat, and a copious rainfall ranging from 80 to 150 inches per annum. The temperatures of the coast vary from an average minimum of 74° to an average maximum of 88°.

History.—The recent history of this Territory is of more than passing interest. The greater portion of it was granted by the Sultan of Sulu, on the 22nd of January, 1878, to Baron Overback, Mr. Alfred Dent and others. It was no mere formal cession for the Sultan took immediate steps to place the concessionaires in full and complete possession of the territory, sending with them some of his highest officers who read out to the natives at various points, a solemn proclamation, informing them of the transaction and commanding obedience to the new Overlords of the country.

Shortly afterwards the concessionaires made over their rights in the territory to a Limited Provisional Association, which had been formed in London for the purpose, and which promptly sent its agents to Borneo to establish and carry on an effective administration.

On the 2nd of December, 1878, the Provisional Association approached Lord Salisbury, then Secretary for Foreign Affairs, to obtain a Charter of incorporation for the formation of a Company, to administer and develop the country. There were, however, inquiries to be made, with the inevitable delays, and it was left to the government of Mr. Gladstone to grant the Charter on November 1st, 1881. The British North Borneo Company was then formed, with a capital of £2,000,000, £300,000 of which was allotted in shares to the Provisional Association, while £823,000 was subscribed by the public, the remaining shares being held in reserve.

With this capital the Company was in a position to begin the opening up of the country on proper lines. During the first few years of its control the original territory was added to, by negotiation with the adjoining States of Brunei, Sarawak, and Dutch Borneo, and by 1888 had attained its present dimensions when it became a British Protectorate under the title "State of North Borneo."

The country shows indications of early contact with Chinese civilization, and the agricultural methods of some of the aboriginal tribes are undoubtedly of Chinese origin. There are no traces of any earlier settlements by Hindus, Spanish or Portuguese in North Borneo.

Population.—The estimated population on 31st December, 1932, was 272,287, and the distribution of the population in 1931 was as follows:—

Dusuns	117,482
Muruts	24,444
Other Natives	63,292
Europeans	362
Chinese	47,972
Japanese	450
Others	16,221
	<hr/>
	270,223

As the area of the country is 31,100 square miles this gives a density of population of 8.71 to the square mile.

The principal languages spoken are Malay, Chinese and English, Malay being the *lingua franca* of the country.

Health and Vital Statistics.—The present system of registration of births and deaths does not embrace the whole of the country and therefore no complete Vital Statistics are available. The Administration Report of North Borneo gives registered births as 6,125 for 1932. The birth rate per mille was 22·5 compared with 25·7 per mille in 1931. The number of deaths registered was 5,313 for 1932, the death rate being 19·5 per mille compared with 19·4 in 1931. As figures given are based on a limited number of actual registrations no reliance can be placed on them in arriving at the general health conditions of the country as a whole.

In the Annual Report for the year 1931 rendered to the Colonial Office by the Administration of the adjoining State of Brunei, which has a population of 30,135 persons of all races, the crude birth rate is shewn as 38·02 per thousand, and the death rate as 31·39 per thousand, the figures for the previous year (1930) being 43·28 per thousand and 29·58 per thousand respectively. It may be assumed that these rates approximate to those prevailing in the more settled parts of North Borneo. A similar assumption may be made in regard to diseases generally the report just quoted ranks diseases causing death in the following order (infantile deaths being left out of account)—

- (1) Dysentery and Diarrhoea.
- (2) Malaria.
- (3) Tuberculosis.
- (4) Beri-beri.

Infantile deaths were mainly due to convulsions.

Malaria is stated to be the most prevalent disease.

Administration.—The British North Borneo Company has its own Civil Service. The Governor is appointed by the Court of Directors, his appointment being confirmed by the Secretary of State for the Colonies. The Office of the Company is 17, St. Helen's Place, London, E. C. 3, and from that Office the administration of the territory is controlled, through the Secretariat at Sandakan, the headquarters of the Local Administration in North Borneo. The Military and Civil Police were originally recruited from India, being mainly Pathans and Sikhs. Since the Great War fewer Indians have been recruited, and more Malays and Native Borneans have entered the ranks. In 1931 these Forces had a total strength of 7 British Officers, 7 Native Officers and 590 N. C. Os. and men. The Indian Penal and Procedure Codes and the Evidence Act apply to the territory.

The Company does not itself engage in trade, its revenue being derived from various forms of taxation. These were in 1931:—

- (1) a poll tax of one dollar imposed on every male native;
- (2) gaming house, opium and spirit monopolies;
- (3) customs due on imports;
- (4) export duties; and
- (5) royalties levied on certain products; as well as
- (6) land revenue.

Production.—The territory has experienced the usual vicissitudes of prosperity and depression common to new countries. Tobacco was the first product to boom, and for some years, towards the end of last century, the tobacco growers were unduly prosperous. But the inevitable reaction came, and there were some lean years before stable conditions of production and marketing were reached, and tobacco became a steady source of income to its growers, and of revenue to the Government.

At a much later stage rubber production went through the ordeal of boom and slump to emerge quite recently as a well-established industry.

Today the principal products of the territory are—timber, rubber, coconuts, tobacco, dried and salt fish and cutch.

Practically all tropical plants can be grown. Sugar cane does well, also the cocoa trees, sea island cotton, kapok, tea, sisal, sago, ground nuts, tapioca and sweet potatoes. The British Borneo Timber Company has a monopoly of the timber export. Coal Mining was carried on by the Cowie Harbour Coal Company for a few years but operation has been suspended during 1932.

Exports.—The progress made with the development of the territory will be seen from the undermentioned figures:—

(From Colonial Office List, 1932.)

Some Exports from North Borneo for the year 1930.

Products exported.	Quantity.	£	s.	d.
Timber (chiefly from Sandakan)		287,784	0	0
Estate Rubber	7,114 tons.			
Copra		72,055	0	0
Tobacco (chiefly from Darvel Bay)		71,475	0	0
Coal (from the Silipon Mines)		41,813	0	0
Dried and salt fish		44,500	0	0
Cutch (i.e., tanning material made from mangrove bark)		22,015	0	0

Trade and Shipping.—The chief ports of North Borneo, are Sandakan, which is also the Administrative Capital, on the East Coast, and Jesselton on the West Coast. The former is approximately 1,000 miles from Singapore, 1,200 miles from Hong Kong 1,600 miles from Port Darwin and 600 miles from Manila. The ships of the Straits Steamship Company give a weekly service between the local ports and Singapore, while ships of other lines give direct shipping connections to Hong Kong, Japan, Manila and the ports of Dutch East Indies in Java, Sumatra and elsewhere.

Immigration and Labour.—The policy of the Company not only favours but subsidises the importation of labour for the development of agriculture and the maintenance of industry. Until 1932 there was a state-sided scheme of assisted immigration for Chinese and Javanese who as indentured labourers furnish the man power for Rubber plantations, Tobacco estates and factories, the timber industry with its saw mills, the coal mines and other productive operations.

The ordinary period of labour contracts of Chinese and Javanese was 300 working days, and the recruiting and other costs amounted to £20 per head in the case of the former and £12 per head in the case of the latter. Indentured labour was abolished by law in 1932.

The Administration encourages the small alien planter and grants 999 year leases of land, at a yearly nominal rent for the first six years—thereafter 1/2d per acre rising to 7 per acre. There are many Javanese and Chinese smallholders under this land settlement policy who produce a considerable proportion of the Copra and Coffee exported from the territory. Market gardening is almost entirely in the hands of these Chinese smallholders.

A scheme of Chinese immigration, inaugurated in 1920, provides for the free grant of passages from Hong Kong to any relatives and friends of the existing settlers, who may desire to make a home, and they are allotted small holdings on easy "settlers' terms".

Native Productions.—The keeping of stock is almost entirely in Native hands. The water buffalo is the beast of burden and draught animal, and indispensable to the Native Bornean scheme of domestic and agricultural economy. Cattle, goats and ponies are also numbered in the Native catalogue of possessions.

Many of the native Borneans are fishermen and contribute by their efforts to the export of dried and salt fish. The principal crop grown by the natives on their own land is rice, in fact almost the whole of the rice production is in native hands. They also grow tobacco, sugar cane and sago, and as already stated potatoes and bananas, but little else.

The development of the country has only just begun. The greater part of the territory still remains unreclaimed jungle. Very little has been attempted in the building of roads, apparently because the need for internal land communication has not yet been seriously felt, as all land settlement to date has been confined to the coastal lands and river valleys within short distances from the sea. The only railway line, 50 miles long, is in the coastal belt between Jesselton and Beaufort on the boundary of the adjoining State of Brunei.

There is no vacant uncleared land in the territory and new concessions of land are either under virgin or secondary jungle. The preliminary work of clearing land is usually given out to native contractors who thoroughly understand the work. But the Administration does not encourage the natives to work on the Estates, in fact the recruiting of natives outside the district in which an estate is situated is forbidden and no written contract is allowed. Natives are not prevented from working where they want to, but the Administration will not allow them to be exploited.

Small Producers.—The whole of the rubber and most of the tobacco exported is produced on the large estates. North Borneo and Sumatra are the only areas in the world which produce superfine wrapper leaf tobacco. The cocoanut tree was formerly cultivated to a large extent by plantation companies but in 1921 there was only one European cocoanut company operating.

Many Chinese smallholders of from 10 to 100 acres have taken up the cultivation of the cocoanut and the bulk of the copra exported now comes from these small growers.

In 1921 small planters, European and Chinese, were responsible for almost the entire production of coffee, while the market gardens were owned almost exclusively by Chinese, who grew all the fruit and vegetables, for strange to say the indigenous native people grow no fruit except bananas and no vegetables other than potatoes.

It is probable that in the near future there may be a change in the present system of administration, and that North Borneo may be brought more directly under the Colonial Office.

Sir Cecil Clementi, Governor of Malaya, and British Agent for Borneo, at a private meeting of the "Colonial Affairs and Mandated Territories Study Committee" held in Westminster Hall on the 7th of May, 1931, made the following statement:—

"In Borneo also constitutional changes are being considered. At the present, Borneo consists of Labuan, which is one of the Straits Settlements, Brunei which is governed just as any unfederated State in the Malay Peninsula is governed; British North Borneo, which is governed by a Chartered Company, and Sarawak, which is governed by Rajah Brooke. I have during my leave here been discussing with the Chartered Company the question of whether the time has not now come for it to hand over its administrative functions to the Straits Settlements, and I found that the Directors were very ready to do so, provided the interests of their shareholders were safeguarded. I am going to discuss that matter in detail with the Straits Legislative Council when I get back, and also with the local authorities in British North Borneo.

Both the Rajah of Sarawak, and his brother, who is heir apparent, consider that the time has come when there ought to be an effort at greater union between the various component parts of British Borneo than exists today. The first step obviously, would be some form of Customs Union and Union of Posts and Telegraphs. It would mean free trade within the British constituents of Borneo, and a tariff as against all countries outside Borneo. The question is being discussed now."

APPENDIX No. 4.

SHORT DESCRIPTIVE ACCOUNT OF NEW GUINEA.

Physical features.—The island of New Guinea is the largest in the world. It has an estimated land surface of 312,329 square miles, and is therefore two-thirds as large again as the combined area of the Transvaal, Orange Free State and Natal. If the adjacent islands be added, its area equals that of the Bombay Presidency, Madras and United Provinces of India. The island is nearly 1,500 miles long, stretching from the equator in the north-west to 12°5' south in the east. It is described as hovering like a great bird over the north of Australia, of which it once, in Pleistocene times, formed a part. Its flora and fauna belong, in the main, to the Australian region, though developed into a tropical rain-forest with characteristics of its own; but, unlike the rain-forest of British Guiana which flourishes in sand, the tangled vegetation of New Guinea has its roots deep in fertile, loamy soils similar to those of Northern Queensland. Its close affinity with Australia, from which it is today separated by the narrow Torres Straits, should thus be early emphasised.

A central complex chain of mountains stretches through the whole length of the island, running down in giant spurs which end near the coast in the north, and in the alluvial deltaic plains which fringe the coast in the south. In the north-west the mountains attain a height of 16,000 feet (Mt. Garstens) set a midst snow and glaciers. Sloping down to 12,000—13,000 feet is the Owen Stanley Range in the south-east. The forest growth ceases at 10,000 feet and gives way to cycads growing on grassy slopes, preceded by 2,000 feet of giant bamboo. The forests contain plants and timbers of high economic value where more than 120 varieties of useful timber are known to exist, while the deltaic region is covered with a dense jungle of Nipa and Pandanua palms tangled in a riotous mass of rattans and other useful creepers.

The island lies in the track of the trade winds which blow with monotonous regularity for months from the north-west, and then after a time, turn round and blow equally monotonously and regularly from the south-east. The tropical heat on the coast is, therefore, tempered by the trade winds—the North West monsoon bringing the heavy tropical rain. The rainfall is nearly everywhere in excess of 80 inches; but variations as high as 250 inches to as low as 66 inches are known to occur. Under such circumstances rivers flow into the sea every few miles of the coast, fed by mountain torrents which dash their way through deep forest gorges to join the swift flowing streams descending by cataracts and rapids to the quieter reaches of the alluvial plains and sago swamps, when they split up into the numerous channels of a delta. Many of these rivers are navigable for some considerable distance. The Fly River, which flows into the Gulf of Papua in the south, can be ascended by launch and whale-boat for 600 miles. The Sepik on the north coast is navigable by sea-going steamers for 180 miles, and on most parts of the coast the river can be ascended for 40 or 50 miles. Rivers form the only means of communication in most parts of New Guinea, and even the paths through the forest follow the beds of mountain streams. Magnificent natural harbours exist around the coast, vying in some instances with the famed harbours of Sydney and Rio de Janeiro, the southern coast towards the east is protected by a barrier coral reef.

General Economic Resources.—The whole island is known to be rich in minerals, but the extent and diversity of these can only be guessed at. The difficulties of prospecting in the rugged mountain sections clothed with a tropical rain-forest, and in unknown country, have prevented any great advance being made. Gold, copper, silver, lead, zinc, osmiridium and graphite have already been worked. Coal is known to exist, and the search for petroleum, indications of which are plentiful, is being diligently carried on.

The distribution of good soils at varying elevations affords immense possibilities for the development of tropical agriculture. Cocoanuts, rubber and sisal hemp are, so far, the main plantation industries established. Coffee, cotton, vanilla, kapok, cocoa, tapioca, cinnamon, tea and tobacco have all been grown successfully. Sugar, nutmeg, bananas, yams, bread-fruit, ginger and many tropical fruits are widely grown. It is of interest to note that the best varieties of sugar cane grown in Queensland were obtained from the gardens of New Guinea natives.

A survey of the potentialities of New Guinea would not be complete without some reference to the enormous amount of water-power available. In a report made to the League of Nations (Report of New Guinea, 1921-22) the following passage occurs:

Water Power.

“By studying the map of New Guinea, one cannot fail to notice the high mountain-chains and the numerous rivers flowing from them to the coast—pointing to the fact that the rainfall in this tropical island must be indeed very great in parts. The traveller who has had the opportunity of seeing some of these rivers is at once struck by the

immense quantities of water flowing in them, and the unusually fast current due to the rapid fall. The rivers in New Guinea are not as large nor as long as some of the Australian streams, but that they, the former, carry a larger volume of water, over a relatively smaller distance, is obvious from geographical and topographical reasons. The area of New Guinea is 306,000 square miles, and is ten times smaller than Australia, three times larger than Great Britain and Ireland, and the average distance from the apices of the high ranges to the coast, exclusive of delta country, is something below 60 miles. Being abundantly supplied with large rivers through a short distance, and a heavy regular rainfall of at least 120 inches, at once suggests to the observer the enormous amount of water-power available, and its possibility of being utilised for the development of hydro-electric schemes. In a report forwarded to the Mines Department in Port Moresby in 1918, various phases of the subject are dealt with, and though pertaining to Papua in particular, this is nevertheless of value in discussing the utility of this force as applied to the New Guinea Territory.

“The possibility of utilising this latent power in New Guinea for the formation of nitrogenous fertilizers becomes apparent when one considers the large areas which are likely to become converted into plantations, where nitrogenous fertilizers are likely to be in great demand. Not only could New Guinea become one of the world's most important producing centres, in the nitrate industry, but such commodities as calcium carbide, potassium cyanide, etc., could be manufactured at a small cost by means of the fixation process. Only where the water-power is abundant is it possible to produce those articles at a very cheap rate, and New Guinea, adjacent to Australia is therefore ideal for the establishment of hydro-electric schemes. Not only could many articles be produced but cheap electricity for both power and lighting will be the outcome, thus saving the Governments the trouble of importing costly liquid fuels for those purposes.”

“In the report referred to above, it was shewn that in Papua alone, there is at least 10,000,000 horse-power available, whilst Australia is only capable of mustering 1,000,000 horse-power. If we include the whole of New Guinea the available horse-power would be something in the vicinity of 30,000,000. In commenting on the water-power in Papua, which would hold good also for the New Guinea Territory, the Water Power Committee of conjoint Boards of Scientific Societies states—“A study of the facts at present available show that the rivers of Papua have a highland catchment area of 50,000 square miles, having an elevation of between 2,000 and 13,000 feet. The average rainfall of this area is almost certainly in excess of 130 inches per annum. Were it possible to utilise only 50 per cent of this, through a height of only 500 feet, a total power of 8,500,000 horse-power would be developed . . . Its great possibilities would appear to call for an immediate survey of the more promising localities”.

History and Political Divisions.—The island was named “Nova Guinea” by Unigo Ortiz de Retez, who landed on the north coast in 1546, and thought the natives resembled those of the Gold Coast of Africa. Successive Dutch and English navigators explored the coastline during the succeeding centuries, but very little was learnt about the natives or the interior, until comparatively recent times.

The first annexation of New Guinea, strangely enough, was made in 1793 by the British East India Company. The Company maintained a garrison for some time on Manuswari Island in Geelvink Bay, and presumably Indian soldiers formed the garrison. After the departure of this garrison the island of New Guinea had no owner until the Dutch set up a claim to suzerainty on the grounds that a chief of a small island off the north end of the mainland, where the Dutch had established a trading station, was Lord of New Guinea. This vague claim, while subsequently crystallized into the annexation of all New Guinea west of the 141st meridian, remained without international recognition until 1885, when it was formally agreed to by Germany and Great Britain in the general clear-up which took place that year. In the preceding year, 1884, Great Britain had been forced by public opinion in Australia to annex the south-east portion of New Guinea, an annexation which had previously been proclaimed by Queensland after the ceremonious hoisting of the flag at Port Moresby, and repudiated by Great Britain. The information that Germany was about to annex the remainder of the island, led to immediate action by Great Britain and the Union Jack was hoisted for the third time at Port Moresby, just ten days before the German flag was hoisted and Kaiser Wilhelm-land annexed. The German annexation included the Bismarck Archipelago (New Britain, New Ireland and adjacent territories), the Admiralty Islands and several outlying groups, as well as the Solomon Islands. British New Guinea

was administered by Great Britain until a few years after the establishment of the Australian Commonwealth, when it was handed over to Australia and given the title of the Territory of Papua. German New Guinea, including all the islands, was mandated to Australia by the League of Nations, and is now separately administered from Rebaul, the Administrative headquarters on New Britain, by the Australian Government. The position to-day, then, is that Dutch New Guinea comprises the western half of New Guinea up to the 141st meridian; the Mandated Territory, comprising a quarter of the island, is administered from Rebaul under the Australian Commonwealth; and Papua, comprising the remaining quarter, under Australia, is administered from Port Moresby.

Population.—The number of natives inhabiting New Guinea can only be roughly guessed at, but probably does not exceed 1,000,000. It is commonly believed that the population is decreasing. The actual position is obscure as so much of the Territory is not under government control. The natives are the resultant mixture of waves of migrants which have swept over Indoesia and Melanesia in past ages. They are typical Oceanic negroes—frizzy-haired, brownish-black, tall in the west where the more Papuan type prevails, and shorter and lighter in the east under the influence of the Melanesian strains. They are extremely dolicocephalic usually with prominent nose and retreating forehead. Races, languages and social systems vary from place to place, so that there is no uniform Papuan society. Throughout the island the population is divided into mutually hostile groups, each carrying on an eternal vendetta with its neighbours, the only feature in common being an exaggerated localism, aided by the impassable character of the mountain country and by the prodigality of nature. New Guinea is still in the Stone Age, and the ancient craft of cutting and polishing stone implements is still practised in the interior—its disappearance on the coast being due solely to the ease with which the more efficient implements of the steel age are to-day obtainable. An acquaintance with the work performed by the Papuans with their stone implements, far surpassing in skill and beauty the work of the natives of Africa with their iron tools, brings a wholesome respect for the accomplishments of the Stone Age. The different Ethics of the African and Papuan is shown in the development of law and the art of government amongst the natives of Africa, which is completely absent amongst the natives of New Guinea. Generally speaking, there are no chiefs amongst the Papuans. Each village is ruled by public opinion. There is no legal restraint of the individual anywhere, the collective opinion of the villagers being the only guide to conduct. Consequently, control over native communities by European administration has to be established by the appointment of a village constable in each village, whose uniform gives him something of the prestige of a chief in other primitive countries, though without any of his power. The mere donning of a native policemen's uniform, however, does not change the Papuan character; and the only effect of the appointment, in most cases, is to establish some sort of connection between the village and the administration. This primitive communalism is largely responsible for the slow march of European control. The administrative occupation of an area in which there are so many isolated tribes speaking different languages and owing no allegiance to any authority, makes little impression on the bulk of the people and, in the absence of any form of revenue from the district itself for the payment of permanent occupation, coupled with the impassable nature of the country, occupation has, in most cases, been of a temporary nature in the interior, a mere interlude in the lives of the people, and all permanent occupation tends to be confined to the coast.

PAPUA.

The Territory of Papua consists of the south-eastern portion of the island of New Guinea and the groups of islands which lie within approximately three-hundred miles radius north and east of the south-eastern point of the Territory. These islands comprise the d'Entracasteaux and Louisiades groups having a total area of 2,754 square miles. The combined land area of the Territory is 90,540 square miles. From the borders of Dutch New Guinea to the south-eastern extremity of the mainland of Papua the distance is 800 miles; and the greatest depth, along the Dutch boundary, is 300 miles.

The territory is typical of the rest of New Guinea. A rugged range of mountains, reaching to a height of over 13,000 feet in Mt. Albert Edward and Mt. Victoria, covers nearly the whole interior, standing nearest to the sea along the northern coast and retreating to a depth of 200 miles near the Dutch border in the west, where the country flattens out into low-lying plains and swamps drained by large rivers. The mountain system is extraordinarily rough and precipitous, rising abruptly from deep valleys to lofty razor-backed spurs on which the root system of the forest trees grows in matted confusion several feet above the ground. The traveller attempting to cross the island must wade up the innumerable mountain streams, climb out of the valley to the heights

and follow along some spur running in the direction of his line of march, over the springing roots of the trees between which he may sink up to the middle at any moment. It may take days to cross from one ridge to another which is only a thousand yards distant, descending 6,000 feet to the valley, where runs often a foaming torrent and climbing laboriously with the aid of creeper vines 6,000 feet to the summit.

As elsewhere in New Guinea the rainfall of Papua varies greatly. The highest average rainfall has been recorded at the Government station at Kikori on the West Coast, where 239 inches falls. A strip of the coast, extending for sixty miles in the neighbourhood of Port Moresby, the capital, is, for some unaccountable reason, a dry belt where the rainfall averages only 39 inches a year, all of which falls in three or four months. The Territory contains numerous large rivers, most of which are navigable by whale-boat—the usual administrative means of locomotion. The Fly River, near the Dutch boundary, is navigable for 600 miles. Many safe harbours and anchorages exist, particularly along the south-eastern coast, some of them of large area, capable of sheltering whole fleets of ocean-going vessels. A large stretch of the south-eastern coast is also protected by a barrier coral reef inside of which, of course, shipping is protected from hurricane.

The native population, which many hold to be decreasing, is estimated at 275,000. The European population in 1932 was 1,152 and is also decreasing—in 1921 it was 1,252. Lack of revenue prevents more active steps being taken to bring the whole Territory under Government control; consequently, administration is chiefly confined to the coastal regions. In the interior the natives live their lives unmolested, though the influence of the civilization on the coast is gradually permeating even into the most distant parts. Head-hunting and cannibalism have practically ceased. Raids are fairly certain to lead to a visit of the Armed Constabulary; and Patrol Officers, with small detachments of police, are given more or less a free hand to make journeys into new regions.

The Mission influence is strong. The whole coast has been divided into mission spheres of influence, so that each denomination can work without fear of competition from the neighbouring missions, such as occurs in Africa. The northern coast is allotted to the Church of England, with headquarters at the east end; Wesleyans are accommodated along the east; the London Missionary Society has a strip of territory along the south-east; while the Roman Catholics, who were late-comers, were given Yule Island and the interior opposite, thus penetrating farthest inland. All the schools are mission schools. There is no doubt that the presence of so many devoted men and women in the mission field, living in or near the native villages and constantly visiting the isolated ones along the coast by means of schooner or whale-boat, renders the task of administration cheaper and easier than it would otherwise be. But the missions, with the exception of the Roman Catholics in their one area, do not go far inland; and the poverty of the missions, which corresponds to the poverty of the Administration, weakens the whole effect of their work.

The Papuan Administration could not carry on its present work without a subsidy from the Australian Government, amounting to £45,000—£50,000 a year. The Revenue for the past three years was as follows:—

1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.
£149,265	£134,918	£130,116

The above includes the Australian subsidy.

Revenue is obtained chiefly from Customs and Excise. The Imports and Exports for five years have been as follows:—

	1927-28.	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.
	£	£	£	£	£
Imports	403,561	361,271	373,918	240,074	221,843
Exports	350,363	337,365	324,775	274,354	269,254

From the above it will be seen that the financial position of Papua is gradually becoming worse. The world depression has hit Papua badly; and the Australian policy of applying its Navigation Laws to Papua, under which only Australian ships manned by Australian crews and paid at Australian rates can carry produce from Papua to Australia, has imposed a burden on all enterprise in Papua which it is unable to bear. This policy has restricted shipping entirely to Australia and, actually, to one firm in Australia.

The following paragraph from the Annual Report of the Lieutenant-Governor for 1930-31 sums up the position:—

“Such a ‘slump’ in the revenue would have brought disaster upon us had it not been for the very drastic reduction in expenditure carried out by the Treasurer and his staff, and by the Service generally, which resulted in a saving of more than £20,000 or nearly one-sixth of the total estimate; for the estimated expenditure for the year was £158,056 and the actual expenditure was only £134,965. This reduction of expenditure could only be carried out by a genuine and very persistent effort on the part of all concerned But unfortunately this economy cannot be carried out indefinitely without loss of efficiency It is conceivable that a reduction in the number of officers may be forced upon us our service in Papua does not tend to increase there are fewer officers now than there were ten years ago.

I cannot pretend to any special knowledge of commerce or finance, but it seems to me that copra will not attract investors to Papua again for a very long time, if at all; but with rubber the case is different. The preference should be sufficient to secure for us the Australian market if we can produce a sufficient quantity to supply Australian requirements and there is plenty of good rubber land available.

But the true solution of our difficulties would be the establishment of new industries. One such industry is gold-mining, and we still live in hopes that a new field may be discovered The search for petroleum has been abandoned, but I am loath to believe that it does not exist in payable quantities somewhere in the Gulf or in the Western Division; and I can appeal in support of my own extremely ill-informed opinion to an article by Sir Edgeworth David on “The Imperial Geophysical Experimental Survey” in the Journal of the Council for Scientific and Industrial Research for May, 1931. Referring to the ‘vast alluvial plains of the Fly River, and other rivers of Papua’ this high authority says: ‘There can be little doubt that under the alluvials of this great plain are, in places, what will eventually prove to be payable oil-fields’.

The question of a new gold-field should be solved before long for prospectors seem determined to leave no corner of the Territory unexamined, but petroleum I suppose must wait until money is more plentiful than it is at present.

But another new industry, more promising, perhaps, and nearer to realization than the others, is sugar planting, and applications have been received for large areas of land for this purpose, both in the Northern and the North-Eastern Divisions. Sugar cane is indigenous to the island of New Guinea, and, as some of the best cane in Queensland has come from Papua, there can be no doubt that the climatic conditions of this Territory are favourable to its cultivation. Certainly the wonderfully luxuriant growth of the sugar cane and the apparent excellence of its quality must have struck everybody who has travelled in the interior of Papua. Papuan sugar plantations will not affect the sugar industry of Queensland. Papuan sugar cannot enter Australia; it will be sold in the markets of the world, and it is confidently hoped that, with our advantage of soil, climate, rainfall, and labour, Papuan planters will compete successfully with all comers”.

The extract given above is illuminating.

Neither the effective administration of the Territory nor its economic development can be pursued because of the policy of Australia in the Government of Papua. The Mandated Territory of New Guinea, which lies next door, receives no subsidy from the Australian Government; nevertheless its revenue has increased from £290,233-10-1 in 1930-31 to £306,072-3-10 in 1931-32; its exports have increased from £919,431 in 1930-31 to £1,108,619 in 1931-32. The chief commodity exported was copra, which accounted for £618,298 of the exports, the only other export of any consequence being gold, which accounted for £398,939; and this despite the fact that the price of copra has fallen from £21-12-9 in 1913 to £10-8-0 per ton in 1931-32. On the one hand the Lieutenant-Governor of Papua says copra will not attract investors for a long time to come—if ever—in that country, while across the border the industry flourishes. The explanation is to be found in the application of the Australian Navigation Act to Papua which has cut out every foreign steamship service and rendered it impossible to market any product with profit in the Australian markets. In the Mandated Territory shipping is not an Australian monopoly and products can be carried to their destination at world rates of freight. Out of £618,298 of copra, only £115,920 went to Australia, the remainder going chiefly to France and the

United Kingdom. Australia is, therefore, losing the trade of the Mandated Territory, and by her action is making development impossible in Papua. These facts are well known and have formed the subject of much public comment.

Added to the above economic policy, Australia has insisted upon the application of the Australian Immigration Laws to Papua, in furtherance of her "White Australia Policy", with the consequence that there is everywhere insufficient labour for development, the Papuan labour barely sufficing to carry on the severely restricted industries which exist. Thus it comes about that while the Papuan administration is animated by the most humanitarian motives in its dealing with its natives, and proclaims its determination to maintain its trusteeship in accordance with the highest welfare of the natives, it has neither the money to advance the social and economic interests of the natives nor to carry on the effective policing of the Territory; its policy is a perpetual obstacle to the investment of capital and, in the absence of sufficient subsidy; the Territory is condemned to social and economic stagnation. The discovery of new payable gold-fields would, of course, alter the whole position; it would be changed entirely by the immigration of white prospectors of a roving type who would demand and obtain the services of the natives under indenture to perform the hard work of the alluvial diggings. These would be individual prospectors from the Australian gold-fields—unless gold was discovered in the reef when, no doubt, the capital which to-day shies at New Guinea, would be forthcoming.

Administration.—Papua is governed by a Lieutenant-Governor advised by an Executive Council composed of 8 official members and 1 non-official member; and a Legislative Council composed of the Executive Council and 5 non-official members, 4 being nominated by the Lieutenant-Governor and appointed by the Governor General of Australia, and the 5th being nominated by the Lieutenant-Governor as representing the interests of the Christian Missions of the Territory. There are 8 Magisterial Districts, each of them in charge of a Resident Magistrate, with sub-stations in charge of assistants, to the number of 20. There are 250 Native Armed Constabulary, recruited from all parts of the Territory, trained at Headquarters and distributed among the various magistracies. In addition, there are 1,160 village constables who wear a uniform (occasionally) and act as the Government agent in the villages, in the absence of any chief or local authority.

English common law is in force, supplemented by the Queensland Mining Laws and Criminal Code and certain other adopted statutes in addition to local ordinances. In the absence of any form of indigenous native law, certain native regulations have been made regarding the management of village and the control of social relations.

Medical.—Efforts are being made to carry out a proper survey of the native population for signs of disease, and for this purpose native medical assistants are being trained. These assistants carry out medical patrols and treat sufferers from yaws and the skin diseases which are prevalent, apparently with some success. As far as possible the native medical assistants are expected to make a house to house visit in the villages as they go. Much of the medical work amongst the natives is carried out by the various missions, a number of which have trained nurses. The condition in the interior, however, may be judged from the following extract from the Annual Report for 1931-32:—

"We had a bad epidemic of influenza this year, the worst epidemic I have known since I have been in Papua; and its effects were aggravated by the fact that it came from the North, and therefore reached the least known parts of the Territory first. So it had been raging for some time before we heard of it, and, even when we did hear of it, little could be done with the mountaineers who hardly yet under control. Thus the deaths in the interior were very numerous; but the mortality decreased rapidly as the epidemic approached the coast, and reached the districts in which our system of control was more complete."

This extract is indicative of the way in which the humanitarian work amongst the natives is necessarily confined to the coast.

In addition to the mission hospitals there are two Government hospitals for European and natives at Port Moresby and Samarai.

Agriculture.—There were on the 31st December 1931, 61,209 acres of land under cultivation by Europeans; 49,413 of these being under coconuts, 10,320 under rubber. The area is decreasing under the adverse economic conditions prevailing.

It is stated in the Report that the Custom's preference of 4*d.* per pound on rubber imported into the Commonwealth has kept that industry alive. This preference has now been withdrawn and the rubber planters will be hit in the

same way as other producers. The Annual Report for 1931-32 summarises the position as follows:—

“Were it not for the fact that copra producers have been enabled to carry on their operations solely through the increased price received by conversion of sterling into Australian currency (copra quotations are always in sterling), without which it would not possibly pay to make copra, and that rubber producers have continued to benefit by the 4d. per pound Australian preference, few planters would have survived.

As it is, none of the established planters has actually ceased operations, but I believe several have had to be carried by financial institutions, and possibly many have been harder hit than appears on the surface. Perhaps some planters favoured by heavy yielding areas, nearness to freighting ports, and other good conditions, can say they have made profits, and I believe there are some in that happy position.

All others, except those planting at a distance from shipping ports on other than good class land, must be just about keeping out of debt”.

Native production of marketable products is very small. The type of crops grown, however, consisting of yams, taro and bananas is not of a commercial nature. The natives are naturally improvident, and a scarcity of food often exists—yamas and taro cannot be stored indefinitely. Those living near the coast have always sago to fall back on, while the natives in the interior subsist very largely on forest fruits during these periods.

Mining.—The total amount of gold won from the alluvial fields of Papua is valued at £1,809,875 and is 573,014 ozs. The total value of the gold won for the year ending 30th June 1932, was £34,043 and 42 European miners with 510 indentured labourers were employed to win this amount of gold. All other forms of mining give practically no return for the year 1931-32.

Public Works.—No public works of any kind were being undertaken for the year 1931-32.

THE MANDATED TERRITORY OF NEW GUINEA.

The Mandated Territory is composed of some six-hundred islands and a portion of the mainland of New Guinea lying to the north of Papua and east of Dutch New Guinea. It comprises the islands of New Britain, New Ireland, Bougainville and the Admiralty Islands, and lies scattered over a million square miles of tropic seas. The total area and population is set out below:—

(Figures taken from Reports to League of Nations for years 1928-29 and 1929-30. Australian Parliamentary Papers, 1929-31, Vol. IV.)

Districts.	Population.			
	Area (Sq. Miles).	Non-Native.	Native.	Density per sq. Mile.
N. E. New Guinea (Mainland)	69,700	1,350	259,248	3.7
New Britain	14,600	2,116	88,740	..
New Ireland	3,800	422	38,480	..
Admiralty Is.	663	91	13,904	..
Portion Solomon Is.	4,100	176	56,569	8.6
TOTAL	92,863	4,155	456,941	4.9

The population figures are only approximate. Much of the area is not yet under Government control and some still remains completely unexplored. Actual counts of native population are being made in the districts under control. The actual counted population was, in the 1930-31 Report shown to be 392,816 natives; but even these counts are probably only approximate. No evidence is yet forthcoming disproving the current belief that the native population is

decreasing. Of the 4,155 non-natives 1,992 are British, 1,238 Chinese, 209 Dutch (probably Malays or Javanese), 348 Germans, 45 Japanese, 116 United States (probably natives of U. S. A. islands in the Pacific).

History.—New Britain and New Ireland were discovered by Captain Carteret in 1766-67 to be separate islands. He landed on the west coast of New Ireland and 'took possession of the country with all the neighbouring islands for the King of Great Britain'. This action was not confirmed, and the country remained unclaimed until 1884 when, after the annexations of the mainland by Australia had been repudiated—which led to considerable agitation—, a race began between Germany and Great Britain. Great Britain annexed the southern portion of New Guinea ten days before the Germans proclaimed the annexation of North Eastern New Guinea and the adjacent islands as Kaiserwilhelmsland. The Territory was occupied by the Australian forces in September 1914, and remained in military occupation until the 9th May 1921, when a civil administration was established under the Mandate conferred by the League of Nations upon "His Britannic Majesty for and on behalf of the Government of the Commonwealth of Australia".

Before the War, the German New Guinea Possessions included the island groups lying to the north of the Equator, which have been mandated to Japan. These are the Marshall Islands, the Mariana, Caroline and Pelew Groups, which were administered by the German Governor stationed at Rebaul in New Britain, the present administrative capital of the Mandated Territory of New Guinea. Australia and Japan are now brought within a few miles of each other by an extension of their territory in the Pacific.

Physical features.—The following description of the territory is taken from the Report for 1921-22 presented to the League of Nations by Australian Commonwealth.

INTRODUCTORY.

"1. To assist the Council of the League of Nations in understanding the problems which confront the Australian Government in its administration of the territory of New Guinea, it has been thought that it would be convenient to commence this Report with a brief geographical description of the territory and with some notes on the natives.

PART I.—GEOGRAPHICAL DESCRIPTION OF TERRITORY.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION.

2. *Situation.*—The Territory of New Guinea consists of the north-eastern part of the island of New Guinea—the remainder of which belongs to the Netherlands (Dutch New Guinea) and to the British Empire (Papua)—of the Bismarck Archipelago and of the northern islands of the Solomon Group. It lies close to the equator; its most northerly point, Sae (or Commerson) Island, is less than 50 nautical miles south of the equator, in latitude 0° 45' S. and longitude 145° 17' E.; and its southern boundary (with Papua) is the parallel of 8° S. latitude. From west to east it extends from 141° E. longitude (the boundary with Dutch New Guinea), to Nukumanu (Tasman Group) in latitude 4° 35' S. and longitude 159° 25' E. Its extreme points thus lie apart over 400 nautical miles from north to south and over 1,100 nautical miles from west to east.

3. *Boundaries.*—The only land boundaries of the Territory are in the island of New Guinea, between the Territory and Dutch New Guinea and Papua (British New Guinea). The boundary between the territory and Dutch New Guinea is the meridian of 141° E. longitude; it was traversed by a Dutch-German Boundary Commission in 1910 from the coast to within about 40 miles of the Sepik, and, further south, for a short distance in the upper valley of the Sepik.

The boundary between the Territory and Papua is a conventional line which runs from the boundary of Dutch New Guinea in latitude 5° S. to a point in latitude 6° S. and longitude 144° E., thence to a point in latitude 8° S. and longitude 147° E., and thence by the parallel of 8° S. to the sea. The southern boundary, along the parallel of 8° S. latitude, was traversed in 1909 by "an Anglo-German Boundary Commission from the sea to a point, a few miles east of 147° E. longitude, a distance of about 60 miles, and boundary stones and posts were erected at short intervals. The German Commissioner took ill during the work, but the German Government undertook to respect the frontier as marked by the British Commissioner until it was able to check his observations. As the work of checking had not been completed when war broke out in 1914, there was no final agreement between the British and German Governments as to the delimitation of the boundary. North-westwards from the angle in latitude 8° S. and longitude 147° E., the country

along the boundary has been mapped out as far as the vicinity of Mount Joseph, in latitude 6 50' S., longitude 145 30' E. The boundary has been reached in the extreme west by following the Sepik upstream; the remainder of the boundary between Papua and the Territory has not been explored.

By the Anglo-German Declaration of 1886, modified by a Convention in 1899 and by supplementary agreements in 1902 and 1904, the boundary between the British and the German spheres of influence in the Pacific was defined to be on the south the parallel of 8 S. latitude, and on the south-east a line extending from a point in 8 S. latitude and 154 N. longitude to the straits between Bougainville and Shortland Island, thence through these straits, and thence in a north-easterly direction passing to the south of Nukunanu (Tasman Group); thence the boundary passed north-easterly to the south and east of Bauru. All islands lying to the north and north-west of these boundaries, excepting Bauru, are in the Territory. To the north, the Territory includes, by virtue of the Mandate, all islands lying south of the equator and between 141 E. longitude and the eastern boundary.

4. *Area*.—The land area of the Territory is about 91,000 square miles, and the area of sea included within lines drawn through its extreme outer points is over 1,000,000 square miles. The coasts of the Territory not having been completely surveyed, the areas of the various islands are known only approximately. The areas of the principal islands are as follows:—

	Approximate Sq. miles.	Area. Sq. miles.
North-East New Guinea (called also "The Mainland" —formerly Kaiserwilhelmsland)		70,000
Bismarck Archipelago—		
New Britain	13,000	
New Ireland	3,000	
Lavongai (New Hanover)	800	
Admiralty Islands	1,000	
Solomon Islands—		
Bougainville	3,500	
Buka	200	
Total Bismarck Archipelago and Solomon Islands		21,000*
Total area of the territory		91,000

*There is an error in calculation in the Report. It should be 21,300.

5. *Distances*.—The distances by direct route between Rabaul, the seat of Government of the Territory, and some of the principal ports in neighbouring parts of the world are—To Melbourne, the present seat of Government of the Commonwealth, 2,420; to Sydney, New South Wales, 1,860; to Thursday Island, the nearest port in Northern Queensland, 1,010; to Yokohama, 2,512; to Batavia, 2,871; and to Honolulu, 3,358 nautical miles. Rabaul occupies a central position in the Territory; the distances to some of the principal out-stations are:—To Madang, 415 nautical miles; to Aitape, 610 miles; to Kieta, 270 miles; to Lorengau (Manua), 340 miles; to Kavieng, 170 miles.

6. *General Description*.—Geographically, the Territory is usually described in three parts—the north-eastern part of the island of New Guinea, called Kaiserwilhelmsland by the German Government, and now called North-East New Guinea; the Bismarck Archipelago (New Britain, New Ireland, Lavongai (New Hanover), the Admiralty Islands, and a number of outlying groups); and the Solomon Islands, being the northern islands, Buka and Bougainville, of the Solomon Group, of which the others lie in the protectorate of the British Solomon Islands, administered by a Resident Commissioner acting under the High Commissioner for the Western Pacific who is stationed at Fiji.

7. *Mountains and Vegetation*.—In geological structure and form of surface the various islands differ widely from one another; but there are two characteristics which are found in all of them, except few of the smallest—they are very mountainous and almost everywhere they are covered with dense vegetation. The island of New Guinea has vast mountain ranges, many of them over 10,000 feet high; near the coast and in the lower courses of the three principal rivers there is more or less level country, but this forms only a small fraction of the area, and almost the whole of the surface is covered with a dense and almost impenetrable tangle of forest trees, creepers, and undergrowth. So serious are the difficulties which the mountains and the vegetation oppose to travel that to this day over 15,000 square miles, or nearly one-quarter of the part of the island of New Guinea within the Territory remaining totally unexplored by white men.

8. *Unexplored area*.—In New Britain, New Ireland, Bougainville and the Admiralty Islands there are still considerable unexplored areas, and the total area in the Territory which has never been visited by a white man, and is

known only from such glimpses as can be had from a passing ship or from a distant peak; is probably over 25,000 square miles. The remainder can be said to be known in broad outline, but detailed maps have been made only of small areas. Scarcely anywhere in the Territory is there a plantation or a Government post or a mission station more than 10 miles from the ocean; the only exceptions are a post on the lower reaches of the Sepik, and a few mission stations in the Gazelle Peninsula and in the Huon Peninsula in North-East New Guinea.

9. *New Plains.*—The larger islands of the Bismarck Archipelago and the Solomon Islands are similar to New Guinea in their mountainous character and dense vegetation. Except in the swampy country in the lower courses of the large rivers of North-East New Guinea, and in the southern part of Bougainville, there is no considerable plain anywhere in the Territory, and nowhere is there any extensive area of grassy country or even of savannah.

10. *Difficulties in exploration and extension of Government influence.*—These features of the surface of the Territory must be remembered in forming any judgment of the progress made by the German Government and by the Australian administration in the exploration and material development of the Territory, and in promoting the moral and social progress of the natives. Exploration has almost everywhere met with very serious obstacles; the vegetation hides the surface and makes it difficult to discover the character of the soil or the nature of any mineral deposits the rocks may contain, and adds very much to the expense of clearing land for plantations, while the difficulties of travel have so far made it most difficult to get in touch with the natives in places where they cannot be reached by water or by the few roads and tracks that exist. These difficulties, added to those which result from the low state of culture, the scanty social organization, the diversities of language, and the customary warfare among tribes not under Government influence, have retarded the efforts that have been made to get in touch with the natives, with the result that the area under effective Government influence is still only a fraction of the Territory.

11. *The Islands.*—The islands in the Territory important enough to be named on the maps number over 600. They range in size from New Britain, about 13,000 square miles in area, to tiny atolls. In structure and surface, the smaller islands are very diverse. A number of them are volcanic craters, some still active, which rise abruptly from the ocean. A striking feature of the small islands, as of the large, is their mountainous surface. Several islands only a few miles across rise to heights of several thousand feet, with little low or flat land; other islands are of coral origin, some of uplifted coral rock, others are low reefs just below sea level. The crater islands stretch along the coast of the island of New Guinea from the Schuten Isles, north of the mouth of the Sepik, to Dampier Strait, which separates the island of New Guinea from New Britain; and there are other crater islands on the north coast of New Britain. In the Admiralty Islands are a few islands of eruptive rock. Other islands which look like the peaks of a submerged mountain chain are the groups off the north-east coast of New Ireland. The coral islands—some of which are built on submarine volcanoes—are the groups in the north-west of the Bismarck Archipelago, those to the north and north-east of Buka and Bougainville some of the islands of the Admiralty and Duke of York Groups, and a few islands off the coast of New Guinea. Among them are several examples of the coral atolls familiar throughout the Pacific—a low reef often round or elliptical, with a deep water lagoon inside, and a number of small islands on the reef and in the lagoon.



13. *Climate.*—New Guinea has a moist tropical climate, with small differences between daily and seasonal extremes of temperature. There is no cool season, rain falls in all months, and the humidity is high.

14. *Temperature.*—The mean annual temperature on the coast is about 26 to 27.5 C. (79 to 81 F.)—a moderate temperature for the latitude—and the difference between the means of the coldest and warmest months is not more than 2 F.

15. *Rainfall.*—There is no dry season. At Rabaul the period of the north-west monsoon, November to April, is wetter than that of the south-east trade from May to September or October; but in some other places, especially the south coast of New Britain and in the vicinity of Finsch Harbor, the south-east trade brings the principal rains. The position of the coasts in regard to the direction of the prevailing winds is the decisive factor for the annual rain period.

The annual rainfall amounts at nearly all the stations at which observations have been made, to over 80 inches. In Bougainville, southern New Britain,

and the island of New Guinea, the yearly average is from 100 to over 250 inches; but amounts as low as 66 inches have been reported from some stations on the coast of the island of New Guinea. The average rainfall at stations in the Gazelle Peninsula is about 95 inches. A region of high rainfall, reaching over 250 inches, is in the vicinity of Finsch Harbor.

There are large variations in the rainfall from year to year, and some districts of the Territory are subject to unusually dry periods. Thus in 1894 Kokopo (on Blanche Bay, north-east of New Britain) had only 65.6 inches, while in 1891 there were 133.3 inches; the average over a period of years was 74.4 inches. There is reason to believe that a severe drought which prevailed in New Ireland in the years 1914 and 1915 was in part responsible for the large decrease in the population of that island which took place during the period of the military occupation.

16. *Humidity*.—The humidity is very high. Observations taken at Rabaul during the years 1916 to 1921 showed an average humidity of 75 per cent., and the variation in the monthly means was only from 69 per cent. (October) to 80 per cent. (April). At Madang, during the same period, the yearly average was 80 per cent., the lowest month mean 77 per cent. (August), the highest 83 per cent. (April). During the same period at Kieta (Bougainville) the mean was 78 per cent., the minimum 74 per cent. (August and October), and the maximum 80 per cent. (June).

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17. *The Climate and White Settlement*.—The climate on the mainland and at many places in the Bismarek Archipelago and the Solomon Islands is enervating for Europeans. At some places, however, and notably at Rabaul, the heat and humidity are tempered by frequent breezes, and it is possible for Europeans, with careful attention to diet and exercise and precautions against diseases, to maintain good health. When the measures taken against malaria and other diseases have produced their full effect, and use has been made of places in the mountains suitable for healthy sanatoria, it may be hoped that a satisfactory average of health will be maintained.

18. *No Typhoons*.—The Territory is outside the area of typhoons, but strong winds are not uncommon, and damage is occasionally done to plantations.

19. *Vegetation*.—The flora of New Guinea is similar to that of tropical eastern Asia. Some 3,000 species have been described, of which about 900 are peculiar to the Territory. The greater part of the Territory is covered with high forest, which clothes it in a dense deep green mantle from the coasts to the summits of the mountains. The branches of the trees are covered with moss and ferns, and tangled creepers hang from the boughs of the trees to the dense undergrowth on the ground. Open grass country and savannah are found only in the drier regions where the soil is porous, such as the MacLay Coast and the coast near Finsch Harbor in the island of New Guinea, in part of the Gazelle Peninsula and in the North-west part of New Ireland, and on the slopes of some of the mountains, such as the Finisterre Mountains, near the upper valleys of the Ramu and Wussi (Markham). The natives put fires through the grassy country in dry weather, and so prevent the forests from encroaching on them.

20. *Swamps*.—The lower courses of some of the larger rivers flow through swamps, in which the sago and nipa palms flourish; on parts of the coast there are mangrove swamps.

21. *Sources of food*.—The sago palm is an important source of food for the natives. Food is also afforded by the coconut palm, which flourishes best on the small islands and along the coasts of the large islands, but which is also to be found inland up to heights of over 2,500 feet; taro, a tuberous plant, which requires rich soil and careful cultivation; yams; bananas; and the sugar cane, which grows wild and is also cultivated by the natives; and maize and the papaya (paw paw), introduced by Europeans, are now in common use. The natives also make use of the betel nut, tobacco (which, like the sugar palm, bamboo of numerous sorts, lianes, and rattan give material for houses and implements.

22. *Forest trees*.—Forest trees which yield timber include various species of eucalyptus, cedar, and other kinds of hardwood, and a tree resembling sandalwood.

23. *Animals*.—There is no big game in the Territory, nor, apart from crocodiles, are there any large living creatures dangerous to man. There are few mammals; among the larger may be mentioned wallabies, rats, and mice. The dog and the pig have been introduced. There are no monkeys. Flying foxes, or fruit bats, are numerous in the island of New Guinea. In contrast to the mammals the birds are numerous and of many species; in the island of

New Guinea are over 60 species of birds of paradise, but these birds are not found in the Bismarck Archipelago. Other birds of beautiful plumage are the heron (from which osprey plumes are obtained) and the crown pigeon. There is no scarcity of lizards, salamanders, and snakes of various species; among these may be mentioned the death adder of Karkar (or Dampier Island). Butterflies of large size and gorgeous colouring abound. Ants, mosquitoes, sandflies, and midges are numerous everywhere, and add much to the discomfort of life.

NORTH-EAST, NEW GUINEA.

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26. *Surface features*.—Plains of considerable extent are found along the coast from the Dutch border to the mouth of the Sepik and along the coasts of Astrolabe Bay, the Faclay Coast, and the inner part of Huon Gulf (lower valley of the Markham River). Inland there are large areas of fairly flat in the broad valleys of the Ramu and Sepik, and between the Sepik and the coast. But the chief feature of the interior is its mountains, many of them ferry high and steep, intersected by deep valleys and covered in dense forest.

27. *Mountains*.—The principal range is the Bismark Mountains, which lie to the south-west of the upper course of the Ramu. The highest summits of these are Mount Wilhelm and Mount Herbert, estimated to reach 13,000 to 14,000 feet. To the south-east of the Bismark Mountains, bounding on the west the upper valley of the Wussi (Markham), lie the Krätke Mountains, the highest point of which is Mount Zöller, about 10,000 feet. Between the upper Ramu and the Maclay Coast lies the Finisterre Range, whose highest points are Mount Dieraeli (or Mount Schopenhauer) and Mount Gladstone (or Mount Kaut), each estimated to be from 10,000 to 11,000 feet high. West of the middle and lower course of the Ramu lie the Hagan Mountains, with summits between 10,000 and 13,000 feet. Between the lower Ramu and Astrolabe Bay are lower ranges, reaching between 6,000 and 7,000 feet, still incompletely known.

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The mountains along the upper course of the Sepik, in which it runs in a northerly direction, have been observed from that river as far south as the border with Papua. In the extreme south-west of the Territory lie the Star Mountains, which are a continuation of the Nassau and Orange Mountains, the main west to east range of Dutch New Guinea; the highest summit of these mountains within the Territory is Mount Gapella, whose height is about 13,000 feet.

28. *Sepik rivers*.—The Sepik (or Kaiserin Augusta) River is the largest and most important stream on the north-east coast of New Guinea. Its mouth is about one nautical mile wide, and it is not closed by a bar, but is from five to eight fathoms deep, while on both sides there are shallow sand-banks. The speed of the current amounts to about $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 knots. It conveys such an immense quantity of water to the sea as to colour it a dirty yellow as far out as the islands of Kadovar and Bam (a distance of 15 to 20 nautical miles). Its variation in level is shown by visible high-water marks to be quite 20 feet. The banks on both sides lie under water for some distance, yet the river possesses no kind of delta formation.

The Sepik River is navigable for 60 nautical miles for large ocean steamers, and for 300 nautical miles (130 as the crow flies) from the mouth for steamers of draught from 10 feet to 13 feet; but the navigable water, with a breadth of channel of from 300 yards to one nautical mile is subject to continual change. The main direction of the river is west to east, but its course is serpentine. Up to about 40 nautical miles from the south the river has a depth of from $6\frac{1}{2}$ to 11 fathoms, and no sand-banks. Further up, places with depths of only 15 feet to 18 feet have been found. The character of the river is that of a lowland stream. On the side opposite the current its banks are bordered with reeds, and in the remaining parts wooded and covered with grass; in its middle course there are numerous lagoons on both sides. Three hundred nautical miles from the mouth the river widens like a lake, and has a depth of only from 8 feet to 9 feet.

A vessel which ascended the river in 1909 to a point about 150 miles from the mouth found that the width there was 830 yards, and the depth 8 to 11 fathoms.

In 1914, a vessel of 50 tons ascended the river for 450 miles. It was then in flood and 7 fathoms deep at this point; at low water the depth was said to be 4 fathoms.

The stream meanders through the broad plain of its valley in numerous windings and loops, the sides of which often almost touch; very often there are lagoons, dead-ends, and lake-like expansions. In the lower reaches, particularly,

floating islands are often found, many of great size, and thickly covered with grass and scrub, which have been torn away from the bank.

The banks of the river, up to the Hunstein Range, which it breaks through in latitude 4 17' S., longitude 143 E. about 270 miles from its mouth, are completely flat and level almost everywhere. In clear weather high mountain ranges are to be seen in the south, and also occasionally in the north, but all in the far distance. In the lower reaches the banks consist of far-reaching sago-palm swamps, which can only be crossed by means of small canoes in narrow canals in part artificially made by the natives. Further up the stream a patch of beautiful leafy forest comes almost to the left bank, but after that, on both sides of the river, there are grassy plains, occasionally interrupted by small groups of trees and woods, which seem to extend to the foot of the far-distant high mountains. In places, also, wide stretches of the banks are covered with very high reeds.

In spite of the level banks, the luxuriance of the vegetation forms a very varied landscape. Above the region of the lower reaches, thickly covered with sago palms and mangroves, there is a beautiful park district, in which copses of good building timber, more extensive forests and green meadows alternate. The meadows, however, are disappointing on closer examination, as they generally consist of very high reeds, clang along wild sugar cane, and wild maize. There are many deadends with lagoons, which, covered with lotus flowers and enlivened by innumerable white herons, make a most beautiful picture.

There are several large tributaries on the south bank of the river below the Hunstein Range, but none on the north.

The Sepik River breaks through the Hunstein Range, a mountain chain about 4,500 feet high on the right bank of the river, in 143 E. longitude. Northwards from this range, there is a swampy plain, with abundant growths of sago palms, extending about 30 miles up to the coastal range.

29. *Ramu River*.—The Ramu, the second in size and length of the rivers of the Territory, which enters the ocean about 15 miles to the south of the Sepik, is about 430 yards wide at its mouth, which is closed by a bar, with a depth of only about 2½ fathoms. Inside there is a greater depth, and the river is navigable for about 9 miles by vessels up to 10 feet in draught. In 1896, an expedition which crossed from Astrolabe Bay to the upper waters of the Ramu navigated it in canoes from a point in about latitude 5 40 S. and longitude 145 E. downstream to about 50 miles from its mouth. In 1898, a vessel of 8 feet 10 inches draught ascended, though with great difficulty, for 110 miles from the mouth. The depth of the river undergoes large and rapid changes.

In 1921, the Ramu was ascended to about latitude 5 8' S. and longitude 144 50' E., nearly 200 miles from the mouth, by an expedition sent out by the Commonwealth Government, in a vessel drawing 3 feet 9 inches.

For about 140 miles from its mouth the course is nearly northerly, but the river meanders a good deal through large swampy lagoons. The upper part of the course is from the south-east. Its source is in latitude 6 10' S. and longitude 146 10' N., and it is almost united with one of the sources of the Wussi (Markham) River at a divide only about 1,350 feet above sea level.

The lower portion of the river valley has many sago and nipa swamps and is subject to inundation. In the inhabited parts of the valley, higher up the river, the land is above flood level and is very fertile. Along the whole course there is much good timber.

30. *Wussi (Markham River)*.—Third in size is the Wussi which rises near the Ramu and flows south-easterly into the Huon Gulf. There is deep water at the mouth, which is about 450 yards wide, but the river soon becomes shallower, and owing to its rapid current it can be navigated only by small boats. Its lower course is through country similar to that of the lower Sepik valley.

31.From the mouth of the Sepik to the Dutch border, the ranges are close to and roughly parallel to the coast, and there are no rivers of importance.

32. *Unexplored regions*.—Much of the interior remains unexplored. The region lying between the parallel of 5 south latitude, the valley of the Ramu and the border with Papua—an area of over 10,000 square miles—has never been entered by any official or scientific party, and perhaps not by any white man. The Huon Peninsula and the country between the Upper Wussi and Ramu valleys and the coast are known only in part. North of the Sepik there have been several cross-country journeys between the river and the coast, and, although not mapped in detail, this part of the Territory can be said to be known in broad outline. There are parts of it, however, such as the country to the north of the Seepik...., of which little is known.

Islands off the coast.—Off the coast there are a number of islands..... Tendanye, Valif, Kairiru, Schouten Islands and others. The Tami Islands are inhabited by natives who are active traders and whose villages are clean and well kept.

THE BISMARCK ARCHIPELAGO.

New Guinea.

37. New Britain, the largest (except New Guinea) of the islands in the Territory, at the north-eastern end of which is the area of greatest economic development and the seat of the Government, is a long crescent-shaped island extending over 4 of longitude in west to east and then northerly direction..... New Britain is over 300 miles long..... On its coasts are a number of large bays..... near Blanche Bay is the principal economic development of the Territory.

39. *Interior.*—The mountainous country in the interior of New Britain consists of a series of separate ranges, some of which run across the island in a north to south direction; between these lie broad valleys..... The eastern northern, and western coasts of New Britain may be considered as a row of volcanoes, many of which are still active, usually connected with one another by level country, seldom by mountain chains..... Earthquakes are frequent and severe, but native huts and the timber-built residences of Europeans usually do not suffer.

Suitability for plantations.—New Britain is for the most part covered with virgin forest, which extends to the summits of the mountains. It is watered by a large number of rivers, some of which are navigable in their lower courses by flat-bottomed boats, and it possesses many excellent harbors. In the west there is a considerable area of low-lying land, much of it in river valleys, which appears to be very fertile. It is therefore better suited for plantations than the main islands of New Guinea, which does not seem to have a great area of land suitable for cultivation and close to good harbors.

49. *Towns and roads.*—The only towns in the island are Rabaul, the seat of Government, and Kakopo, both in the extreme north-west. Rabaul and Kokopo are connected by a good road. There are also roads from Rabaul to Toma and to the north coast of the Gazelle Peninsula, and a connecting road from Toma to the north coast, a total distance of about 70 miles, and from Kakopo 14 miles southerly to Bita Paka wireless station. In the district of Talasea there are about 200 miles of bridle tracks.

50. *Administrative districts.*—There are three Administrative Districts—Rabaul in the north-east, Gasmata, which comprises the southern half of the central and western part of the island, and Walasea the northern half. Gasmata and Talasea take their names from their principal stations, but neither of these is the centre of white settlement or of any important plantation area..... Besides the head stations there is a sub-station at Kokopo and police posts at Nambung and Wide Bay in the District of Rabaul, and a police post at Commodore Bay in the District of Talasea.

51. The area alienated in the island is 98,580 acres, of which 40,788 acres are planted.

Duke of York Group.—The Duke of York Group lies in St. Georges Channel between New Ireland and New Britain..... These islands are low, thickly wooded and well populated, and there are many plantations on them. The native population at the count made in 1921 was 2,685. The area alienated in the Group is 5,276 acres, and the area planted 2,761 acres.

55. *Vitu (or French islands).*—The Vitu Islands are a group of islands of origin..... There are several extinct craters, now covered with dense forest..... The natives have extensive cocoonut groves; and there are also large cocoonut and cacao plantations, formerly owned by the New Guinea Company, of a total area of 3,940 acres. These islands are the principal source of the cocoa produced in the Territory..... The natives were formerly numerous, but about 25 years ago there was a serious outbreak of small-pox; in 1913, they numbered about 2,200. There is an excellent harbor (Peter Harbor) in Garove (the largest island).

NEW IRELAND.

56. New Ireland (Neu-Mecklenburg)—the best known of the larger islands of the Territory—is a long, narrow island extending from Cape St. George in latitude 4 51' S. and longitude 152 54' E. to North Cape in latitude 2 33' S. and longitude 150 50' E. Its area is about 3,000 square miles.

The best harbor is at Kavieng..... Almost the whole island is occupied by mountains..... The north-western part of New Ireland is of coral formation and is bordered by coastal reef.

58. A few of the rivers in central New Ireland are navigable for boats; elsewhere the streams are too rapid or too shallow for navigation. . . .

Luxuriant tropical forest is found throughout New Ireland, except in the high mountains to the south, where trees are scanty and stunted, and in the north-west, where there are grass plains of moderate extent.

LAVONGAI (NEW HANOVER).

66. Lavongai lies to the north-west of New Ireland between 2 20' and 2 40' latitude, and 150 and 150 30SE. longitude. . . . Its area is about 600 square miles. To the east and north-east there is a chain of small coral islands, most of them inhabited, which form with the main island several good harbors. On the south coast also there are several harbors. The island is made up for the most part of young eruptive rock, but along the coasts there is much coralline rock, and on the north coast a large area of alluvial soil. It is very mountainous. . . . Lavongai is very well watered, and the lower courses of the larger rivers are navigable for small craft. Mangrooves abound along the coasts, and the interior covered with dense forest; in the south, however, there are grassy plains.

Lavongai is in the Administrative District of Kavieng. There is a road round the island at a short distance inland from the coast. There are ten plantations on the island, the largest of which are on the north-west coast. . . . The total area alienated in Lavongai and the islands off its coast is 5,461 acres, and the area planted 2,784 acres. The white population does not exceed 20; the native population is about 6,900.

ST. MATTHIAS GROUP.

68. The St. Matthias Group, about 40 miles northward of Lavongai, consists of three main islands, Mussau, Emirau, and Tench Island, and a number of smaller islands near the south coast of Mussau. They are not very fertile.

ADMIRALTY ISLANDS.

72. The Admiralty Islands lie between 1 53' and 2 48'S latitude, and 146 and 148 16' E. longitude Along the coast are a number of small islands . . . nearly all of them have plantations . . . Most of them are well watered and densely wooded. On the Purdy Islands there are deposits of rock phosphate.

Some 14,688 acres have been alienated in the Admiralty Islands, on which 10,490 acres are planted. Besides copra, the islands export trepang and other marine products, of which they are the principal source in the Territory The native population of the Group was estimated at 11,621 in 1921.

SOLOMON ISLANDS.

87. *Bougainville*.—Bougainville is the largest of the Solomon Islands. Along the coast the soil is often rich and deep. There is a heavy rainfall and the island is well watered. The rivers, however, fall rapidly from the mountains and are of no importance as means of communication. Along the coast the river waters often accumulate in swamps. There are few good harbors; the best are those of Kieta, Tonoloi and Buka Passage There are about 650 miles of roads and bridle paths in the District of Kieta. . . . Trade is but little developed. The most important product is copra; ivory nuts and some trepang and turtle shell also have been exported. Cotton thrives well at Kieta; and the luxuriant plant growth gives Bougainville a promising future as a plantation area. . . . The population along the coast has been counted, but no enumeration has been made for the greater part of the interior In 1921, 17,976 natives were enumerated and estimated The natives of Bougainville are strong and vigorous, and in the past have given much trouble to the Government. In the part of the island to the north of a line from Empress Augusta Bay to Kieta they are cannibals; while in the south the people abhor cannibalism. Man-hunting is systematically carried on by the coastal tribes as a matter of business. Between the coastal people and the inhabitants of the mountains there is almost constant war.

Buka.—Buka, the most northerly of the Solomon Islands, lies to the north of Bougainville The interior, except in the south-west, is a lowland of level and undulating country. Along the coast there are large areas of mangroves, and in the interior there is dense forest, but also some areas of grass land The rainfall is abundant. . . . The island is comparatively densely peopled The natives of Buka are much sought after as plantation labourers and as police in the Government service; they are eager for employment and a large proportion of them have been engaged.

Mining.—Gold is the only metal exported from the Mandated Territory. Other minerals have, however, been located in various parts of the Territory and will undoubtedly be worked in the near future.

Five applications for mineral leases for mining sulphur in the New Britain district were lodged during 1931-32. Four leases were in force at the close of the year, but production had not commenced. Two mineral oil and coal licences were renewed.

Gold is produced mainly in the Marobe Gold Field situated just over the Papuan border in the south-eastern part of the mainland. The quantity of gold produced in 1931 was 108,884 ounces. The declared value was £398,587 upon which a royalty of 5 per cent was paid to the Administration. Most of the gold comes from alluvial sources, from the beds of rivers, and it is won either by the primitive methods of the sluice-box or by dredge. An electrically driven dredge is in operation, for which power is supplied by harnessing the Bulolo River. No road between the coast and the gold-field exists, and the rugged nature of the intervening country, added to the considerable length of any practicable route, makes it impossible to construct one with the limited resources of the Administration. Consequently, machinery and stores and employees had to be transported by air. Three aerial transport organisations exist, one with 9 aeroplanes, one with 4 and the other with 2. 285,380 miles were flown in 2,593 trips during the years 1931-32; 1,887 passengers were carried (European and natives) and 4,335 tons of freight.

A new payable alluvial gold discovery was made during the year, of which it is reported as follows:—

“The value of the gold is much the same as that at Edie Creek, approximately £2 4s. per ounce on the £4 5s. per five ounce basis. The impurity is, in common with all gold on this field, principally silver. Much of the gold is of a dendritic nature, and apparently has only recently been shed from the parent manganesequartz leaders. This is an interesting feature, as it will stimulate the search for the veins from which the gold was shed.”

A very favourable feature is the commencement of production of gold from the reef. Considerable development is fore-shadowed in this direction.

The average number of persons employed during the year was 419 Europeans and 3,271 natives.

District Administration.—The areas of the Territory under the several degrees of control are stated in the 1931-32 Report to be as follows:—

	Sq. miles.	Sq. miles.
Total Area of Territory		93,000
Area under control	28,785	
Area under influence	7,920	
Area under partial influence	4,080	
Area penetrated by patrols	3,910	44,695
Total Area Unknown		48,305

The following information regarding Patrols is taken from the 1931-32 Report:—

All patrols conducted in the districts of New Ireland and Manus were classified as “administrative”. The whole area of these districts, with the exception of Tench Island in New Ireland, is under complete administrative control.

Penetrating, as well as administrative, patrols were conducted in the districts of Aitape, Madang and Kieta. In the Aitape district a number of cases in which natives had been murdered were investigated. No unusual features were reported in connexion with the patrols in the Madang district. The patrols in the Kieta district succeeded in establishing friendly relations with natives in “uncontrolled” areas. Considerable tracts of new country in this districts were penetrated by the patrols.

The area of the Morobe district is calculated at 14,200 square miles, of which approximately 6,500 square miles are under control, and 1,500 square miles are under some degree of influence.

The development of the gold-field in the vicinity of Eadie Creek and the activities of miners and prospectors in other parts of the district caused much patrolling work to be undertaken by officers of the Administration staff for the purposes of bringing new areas under control and establishing peaceful relations with hostile tribes of natives.

Patrolling in the interior of the Morobe district is particularly difficult owing to the nature of the country and to the opposition of the native inhabitants. The range which occupies much of the hinterland of the district is very rugged, and the country is broken, trackless and heavily timbered. Three miles travel

in a day is considered satisfactory progress for a patrol in that area. The nights are intensely cold, and mountain mists and rain are experienced almost continuously. Native foods are unobtainable in the area on account of the sparseness of the population, which, however, is sufficiently numerous and so hostile as to prevent the immediate return of surplus native carriers to the patrolling base after their loads have been exhausted.

Public Health.—Much good work has been done during recent years to improve the health conditions of the Territory. Medical patrols are made periodically and the natives in all the villages under Government control are examined. Previously there had been no provision for medical aid in the villages, except where there were Missions; now there are a large number of natives trained in hospitals capable of giving first aid and treating simple maladies. It is reported that 95 per cent of the natives were found to be suffering from hookworm. A thorough clean-up of this disease has been undertaken of all the natives on the census book. Efforts are made to induce the natives to form village communities instead of living in scattered huts, and to construct sanitary dwellings. The old custom of burying the dead under their houses has been forbidden and cemeteries have been laid out. The natives are encouraged to make roads between villages so that communication between neighbouring tribes might become more frequent, and supervision by local officers might be easier.

The medical staff consists of 11 practitioners, 1 pathologist, 32 medical assistants and 18 supernumeraries in addition to the trained native staff.

The chief cause of depopulation is tuberculosis, which is widespread. The native manner of living, the badly cooked and unsuitable food, combined with insanitary dwellings aid the disease.

Bacillary Dysentery is also prevalent in the absence of personal clean-living and sanitation. There are many skin diseases, the foremost being Frambesia or Yaws, which is communicated by contact. It is fortunately cured easily by intravenous injections. Beri-beri due to a deficient diet, is easily controllable. Malaria prevails chiefly on the coast.

Medical patrols visited 2,267 villages during 1931-32, which, according to the village census, had a population of 210,894. There are no vital statistics which would be of any value. In regard to the chief causes of death among natives which were ascertained at autopsies during a period of ten consecutive years, the Report says:—

“From the point of view of general mortality statistics the table is of limited value, as it does not represent the total deaths which have occurred. The information, however, relates to a large proportion of the total deaths, and when used in conjunction with other statistics forms a valuable index:—

	1922- 1923.	1923- 1924.	1924- 1925.	1925- 1926.	1926- 1927.	1927- 1928.	1928- 1929.	1929- 1930.	1930- 1931.	1931- 1932.
Dysentery . . .	8	9	9	28	16	17	15	11	5	16
Tubercle . . .	21	14	9	27	29	9	29	16	17	9
Pneumococcal . . .	33	5	36	27	12	12	34	27	10	13
Enteric	7	3	1	3	1	1	5
Tropical Ulcer . . .	9	5	4	5	4	3	6	3	8	6
Septic infections	6	6	5	17	2	9	11
Miscellaneous . . .	13	19	20	12	20	15	22	28	27	24
	84	52	78	112	90	62	126	88	77	84

“The combined mortality in respect of the three chief causes of death in natives over the same period was as follows:—

	1922- 1923.	1923- 1924.	1924- 1925.	1925- 1926.	1926- 1927.	1927- 1928.	1928- 1929.	1929- 1930.	1930- 1931.	1931- 1932.
Tubercle . . .	} 62	} 28	} 54	} 82	} 57	} 38	} 78	} 54	} 32	} 38
Pneumonia . . .										
Dysentery . . .										
Percentage of total autopsies.	73	53	69	73	63	61	61	61	41.5	45

The declining percentage of mortality of the three principal diseases bears testimony to the improvement in health conditions.

Administration.—"By the New Guinea Act, 1920, the Administrator is charged with the duty of administering the government of the Territory on behalf of the Commonwealth; and no limits to his executive power have been defined in any commission or document of general instructions issued to him. By various Ordinances defined powers are conferred on him; and, in general, he exercises these powers on his own responsibility, receiving instructions from the Commonwealth Government only on matters of important policy.

The power of legislation by Ordinance for the Territory is given by the New Guinea Act 1920 of the Parliament of the Commonwealth to the Governor-General of the Commonwealth, and no power of legislation is conferred directly on the Administrator. The Administrator, however, has been given power under various Ordinances to make regulations or issue proclamations for carrying Ordinances into effect, and under some Ordinances he may to a limited extent add to or amend the law."

(Report on Territory of New Guinea, 1921-22.)

APPENDIX No. 5.

ANNEXURE A.

Occupations of male adults (15 years and over) of the Indian Immigrant population, Natal, 1933
(i.e., all Indians originally brought to Natal under indentures and the descendants of such Indians).

The following figures are approximate and have been estimated from—

- (a) Census Returns, 1921.
(b) Agricultural Census Returns, 1930.
(c) Industrial Census Returns, 1931.
(d) Labour Returns of Mines Department, 1933.
(e) Returns furnished by the Protector of Indian Immigrants, August, 1933.

Nature of Occupation.	Numbers engaged, adult males.	Totals.
<i>Agriculture—</i>		
(a) Independent farmers (either as landowners, lessees or squatters)	2,750	
(b) Employees of or members of families of (a) (estimated)	4,480	
<i>Employed on farms or other land occupied by Europeans—</i>		
(c) Field labourers, Sugar and Tea Estates	3,943	
(d) " " Wattle Farms	246	
(e) " " Other Farms	7,897	19,316
<i>Mining—</i>		
Employees on Coal Mines	594	594
<i>Industries—</i>		
Employed in Factories	2,708	
Employees in Sugar Mills and in connection with the manufacture of sugar and tea	2,915	
Skilled Artizans and employees in Industries, other than Factories (estimated)	1,000	6,623
<i>Transport—</i>		
Employees of South African Railways and Harbours	610	
Employees, Motor Transportation (estimated)	600	1,210
<i>Commerce—</i>		
Independent traders such as hawkers and pedlars, and employees	2,000	2,000
<i>Public Administration—</i>		
Employees, Durban Corporation	2,180	
Employees, Maritzburg Corporation	196	
Employees, other Municipalities (estimated).	200	
Employees in Government departments (estimated)	400	2,976
<i>Hotels and Domestic Service—</i>		
Employees (estimated)	3,500	3,500
<i>Undefined occupations—</i>		
Unemployed, retired, and occupations undefined	2,519	2,519
Total		38,738

NOTES.

1. *Agriculture.*—The census of 1921 showed 19,023 male adult Asiatics engaged in agriculture in Natal.

The agricultural census, 1930 (page 94), shows 12,236 male adult Indians regularly employed on European occupied farms in Natal.

A special report of the Director of Census and Statistics in 1925 shows a total of 2,546 farms and holdings occupied by Indians in Natal.

It is assumed that practically the whole of the Indians mentioned above belong to the Indian immigrants section of the population. There are grounds for believing that the Indian Agricultural population has not greatly increased since 1921. There has, in fact, been some decrease in the number of Indians employed as field labourers on sugar estates since that year, but exact figures are not available.

2. *Mining.*—There has been a gradual reduction of the number of Indians employed on the Natal coal mines over the past eight years.

3. *Transport.*—In December, 1924, 1,813 Indians were employed by the Natal System of the South African Railways and Harbours. In December of last year (1932) the number was 609.

4. *Commerce.*—The Indian immigrant population of Natal at the present time is estimated at 147,516, while the non-immigrant Indian section of the population probably numbers 15,884. This latter section of the population is chiefly devoted to trade and commerce. A special report by the Director of Census and Statistics in 1926 showed that in Natal 3,433 Inland Revenue Licences, and 6,587 Municipal Licences were held by Asiatics. In November, 1933, 2,642 Inland Revenue Licences and 393 Municipal Licences were held by Asiatics within the Borough of Durban. The great majority of these are, no doubt, in the hands of the non-immigrant section of the population, but it is considered that at least, 2,000 male adults of the immigrant population are engaged in commerce, either as independent traders, or as employees.

ANNEXURE B.

AMOUNT OF LAND OWNED BY INDIANS IN NATAL.

(Information prepared by Registrar of Deeds, Natal, 1925.)

District.	Held by Asiatics.			
	Area, Acres.	Totals.	Roods.	Perches.
		Acres.		
Camperdown	235,520	287	1	10
Dundee	534,400	3,758	2	24
Durban	55,680	6,424	1	31
Estecourt	1,198,080	68	1	11
Harding	364,800	8	3	16
Helpmekaar	187,520	..	2	32
Impendhle	448,000	84	..	16
Inanda	284,160	18,987	1	11
Ixopo	624,840	497	3	37
Klip River	879,360	900	1	18
Krantzkop	274,560	419	1	34
Lions River	401,920	61	2	29
Lower Tugela	289,920	31,569	1	28
Newcastle	716,800	3,967	2	17
New Hanover	332,800	519	..	11
Pietermaritzburg	262,400	2,964	3	21
Pinetown	276,480	4,229	1	39
Polela	774,400	293	..	7
Port Shepstone	341,760	1,498	1	30
Richmond	332,800	202	2	3
Umsinga	461,440	25	2	..
Umvoti	559,360	3,171	2	14
Umzinto	430,080	9,863	2	2-
Bergville	740,000	1	2	..
Weenen	292,480	56	1	38
Total in Natal	11,299,360	89,841	2	39
Zululand	6,672,000	28
Total in Natal and Zululand	17,971,360	89,869	2	39

NOTES.

- (1) Approximately 1 acre in every 125 in Natal (excluding Zululand) is owned by Indians.
- (2) The return is not strictly accurate as a number of Indians have adopted European names and all such cases are not known to the Registrar of Deeds, Natal.
- (3) Indian property in Durban is valued at £1,300,000.

ANNEXURE C.

Return for month of October showing average labour employed on six representative collieries in the years 1925 and 1933 for purposes of comparison.

Name of Colliery.	1925.				1933.			
	No. of Employees.			Monthly Tonnage.	No. of Employees.			Monthly Tonnage.
	Whites.	In-dians.	Na-tives.		Whites.	In-dians.	Na-tives.	
Burnside (Glencoe)	71	431	2,068	37,055	51	140	985	33,498
Natal Steam (Wessels Nek).	12	81	480	10,547	11	84	401	7,551
Durban Navig. (Dannhauser).	109	179	1,564	38,272	78	111	1,331	34,340
Natal Navig. (Hlobane).	54	31	1,191	32,293	55	28	1,227	42,628
Natal Navig. (Dumbe). (1928)	40	45	588	22,609	30	29	807	34,097
Natal Cambrian (Dannhauser).	24	58	564	18,644	32	62	716	21,400
	310	825	6,455	159,420	257	454	5,487	173,514

Decrease : Europeans	17%
" Indians	45%
" Natives	16%
Increased Tonnage	9%

454 of the total of 594 Indians employed on Natal Coal Mines in 1933 are on the above six Collieries.

ANNEXURE D.

NATAL COAL MINES.

Extracts from the coal and labour returns for the month of August of the years 1926 to 1933 inclusive, published by the mines department in respect of Natal Province.

Year.	Average Labour in Service.			Total.	Ratio to Natives.		Coal sold Tons of 2,000 lbs.	Production per unit of Labour tons.
	Whites.	Asia-tics.	Natives.		Euro-peans.	Asia-tics.		
1926 . . .	728	1,462	17,658	19,848	1/24	1/12	421,553	21.2
1927 . . .	701	1,342	16,240	18,283	1/23	1/12	457,145	25.
1928 . . .	671	1,104	16,272	18,137	1/24	1/14	414,696	22.8
1929 . . .	623	1,117	15,595	17,335	1/25	1/14	426,573	24.4
1930 . . .	586	978	13,351	14,915	1/23	1/14	340,758	22.8
1931 . . .	467	789	10,541	11,797	1/23	1/13	314,004	26.6
1932 . . .	400	680	7,711	8,771	1/19	1/12	230,880	26.3
1933 . . .	411	594	8,636	9,641	1/21	1/15	302,259	31.3

ANNEXURE E.

The following give the birth-rate and death-rate among the Indian Immigrant Population in the Province (introduced at public expense) for the period of eleven years:—

1922 to 1932 inclusive.

Year.	Population.	Births.	Deaths.	Birth-rate.	Death-rate.
1922	113,725	6,113	1,542	50·96	12·988
1923	120,891	5,910	1,573	48·88	13·01
1924	123,193	6,248	2,170	50·71	17·61
1925	125,550	6,170	1,802	49·14	14·35
1926	129,080	7,331	1,805	56·79	13·98
1927	131,890	6,165	1,660	46·88	12·62
1928	132,322	7,386	1,720	55·83	12·99
1929	138,604	7,522	1,832	54·26	13·21
1930	142,979	7,145	1,969	49·97	13·77
1931	146,683	7,571	2,181	51·61	12·86
1932	147,516	6,318	3,017	42·82	20·45

Average Annual Birth-rate 50·71 per 1,000.
Average Annual Death-rate 14·35 per 1,000.

ANNEXURE F.

PERIOD OF ELEVEN YEARS 1922—1932, INCLUSIVE.

Return of Immigrant Indians repatriated under the Indians Relief Act, No. 22 of 1914 and Assisted Emigration Act, No. 37 of 1927.

Year.	Act.	Departures from South Africa.		Total.
		Adults.	Children.	
1922	No. 22 of 1914	1,739	560	2,299
1923	"	1,962	608	2,660
1924	"	760	269	1,029
1925	"	967	391	1,358
1926	"	1,410	690	2,100
1927	"	943	377	1,320
1927	No. 37 of 1927	1,082	573	1,655
1928	"	2,131	1,346	3,477
1929	"	839	475	1,314
1930	"	693	318	1,011
1931	"	1,229	732	1,961
1932	"	1,744	1,137	2,881
		15,499	7,566	23,065

Annual Average 2,097
being at the annual rate of 15·9 per thousand of the mean total population, viz., 131,890 in 1927.

APPENDIX No. 6.

List of witnesses who appeared before the Committee.

Date of appearance.	Place.	Name of witness.
1st Dec. 1933 .	Durban	H. Robinson, Acting Protector of Indian Immigrants.
Do.	"	M. S. Tobias, Divisional Inspector of Labour, Durban.
4th Dec. 1933 .	"	H. H. Clarko, Assistant Secretary, Lion Match Factory.
Do.	"	E. C. Rees, Manager, African Explosives.
Do.	"	W. E. R. Edwards, Chairman, South African Sugar Association.
Do.	"	D. M. Eadie, Secretary, Natal Sugar Millers' Association.
5th Dec. 1933 .	"	S. Tori, Manager, Natal Cotton and Woollen Mills.
Do.	"	D. R. Macintosh, Manager, Five Roses Tea and Coffee Works.
8th Dec. 1933 .	Pietermaritzburg	W. N. Shum, Compound Manager, Burnside Colliery, Dundee.
Do.	"	A. F. R. Collier, Secretary, Natal Tanning Extract Company.
Do.	"	W. J. McMillan, Acting Factory Engineer, Natal Tanning Extract Company.
Do.	"	J. F. Thomson, Manager, Harden Heights Wattle Company.
9th Dec. 1933 .	Durban	Kunwar Sir Maharaj Singh, Agent-General for Government of India in South Africa.
9th Jan. 1934 .	Capetown	V. S. C. Pather, A. I. Kajee, Sorabjee Rustomjee, } representing the A. Ismail, } South African D. M. Nursoo, } Indian Congress.