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Box #

113

BACKGROUND DATA ON CERTAIN PACIFIC ISLANDS

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E.O. 11652, Sec. 3(E) and 5(D) or (E)
DATE: 11/17/75
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data on certain
Pacific Islands

DATA ON DISCOVERY, EXPLORATION,
COLONIZATION, AND SOVEREIGNTY OF
WESTERN CAROLINE ISLANDS, MARIANAS ISLANDS,
MARSHALL ISLANDS, BONIN ISLANDS, VOLCANO ISLANDS,
MARCUS ISLAND, IZU ISLANDS, KURILE ISLANDS,
HOKKAIDO, AND SAGHALIN.

Most of the data contained in the attached report was lifted almost in its entirety from the Military Government Handbooks prepared by the Office of The Chief of Naval Operations. These handbooks, compiled under the direction of Captain Harry L. Pence, now a member of the Joint Post-War Committee, are available and are on file in this office. Each book is divided into three parts - (1) Basic Information, (2) Administration and Public Facilities, (3) Economics - each part being subdivided into chapters and topics.

Other references used in compiling this report were Terry's Guide to the Japanese Empire; Japan Among the Great Powers, by Hishida; The Development of Japan, by Latourtee; Japan, A Geographical View, by Guy-Harold Smith and Dorothy Good; The Pacific World, by Osborn; Islands of the Pacific, by Daniels; Japan's Islands of Mystery, by Price; The Island Dependencies of Japan by Salivey.

CAROLINE ISLANDSDiscovery and Exploration

The CAROLINE ISLANDS or at least those of the group known as the WESTERN CAROLINES appear to have been discovered in 1526 by the Portuguese captain, Diego Da Rocha, who sighted Yap and Ulithi on an exploratory voyage from the Moluccas. During the next century and a half the only visitors to the area, except for a voyage by Sir Francis Drake in 1588, were Spaniards, but Spain made no attempt to establish trade, colonies or missions in the WESTERN CAROLINES during either the sixteenth or the seventeenth centuries.

A probably incomplete list of the discoverers and principal early explorers of the various islands and atolls is given below:

Angaur - Probably discovered by early Spanish explorers, possibly Villalobos, 1543, and doubtless visited by English traders, but not specifically mentioned until late in the nineteenth century.

Eauripik - discovered by Lutke, 1828, though frequently referred to earlier on the basis of information from natives.

Elato - discovered by the Englishman, James Wilson, 1797.

Fais - discovered by Villalobos.

Faraulep - probably discovered by the Spaniard Lazeano.

Gaferut - no information.

Ifalik - discovered by Wilson, 1797.

Lamotrek - discovered by Wilson, 1797.

Kayangel - discovered by the British trader, John Meares, 1788.

Merir - discovered by Captain John Payne, 1769.

Ngulu - possibly discovered by Villalobos, 1543.

Olimarao - discovered by Lutke, 1828.

Palau - discovered by Villalobos, 1543; rediscovered by the Spaniard de Padilla, 1710; the scene of British activity under Captains Henry Wilson, 1783, John McCluer, 1790-94, and James Wilson, 1797; frequently visited by Spanish traders, 1800-30; the scene of violent mercantile enterprise by the British adventurer Cheyne, 1843-67 and the Irish trader O'Keefe, 1872-80, both ending in punitive visits by British warships.

Pikelot - discovered by the French explorer Duperrey, 1824.

Pul - discovered by the English trader Dewar, 1761.

Satawal - discovered by James Wilson, 1797.

Sonsorol - discovered by de Padilla, 1710.

Sorol - discovered by the Spaniard Alonso de Arellano.

Tobi - discovered by Rogers, 1710.

Ulithi - discovered by the Portuguese explorer da Rocha, 1526; scene of an ill-fated Spanish effort at colonization and missionization 1731-33.

West Fayu - discovered by Lutke, 1828.

Woleai - discovered by James Wilson, 1797.

Yap - discovered by da Rocha, 1526; rediscovered by Lazeano, 1686, who called the island Carolina, whence the name of the archipelago.

The contacts of the natives with the early Portuguese and Spanish explorers were exceedingly slight. Abortive attempts were made by the Spaniards to missionize Sonsorol in 1710 and Ulithi in 1731, but in both cases the missionaries were slain and the Spaniards withdrew and did not again become active in the WESTERN CAROLINES until late in the nineteenth century.

The first intensive contacts with the natives were made by British merchants engaged in the China trade. In 1790, Captain John McCluer raised the British flag over Palau, built a fort on the island and declared it British territory. Fifteen months later the attempted colonization was abandoned, and with a visit by Captain James Wilson in 1797 the first period of British interest in Palau came to an end.

During the first three decades of the nineteenth century, ships of several European nations visited the islands for the purposes of trade and explorations and there was some effort to missionize some of the islands.

Political History

From early in the discoveries period the WESTERN CAROLINES lay within Spain's sphere of influence, and so long as no other nation was interested in them they were tacitly regarded as Spanish possessions. Great Britain did not press the claims of Captain McCluer on Palau. On the other hand, Spain never made any formal assertion of sovereignty.

With the development of trade in the region in the middle of the nineteenth century, Spain, Great Britain, and Germany all experienced a quickening of interest in the matter of sovereignty. Great Britain sent punitive expeditions to Palau in 1867 and again in 1882, but made no territorial claims. German traders had opened trading stations on Yap and Palau, and in 1873 when a vessel belonging to one of the German traders was about to sail for Palau from HongKong, the Spanish consul at the latter port demanded that the trader pay customs duties for his trade with Palau. The British governor at HongKong refused to support the consul's demands. Spain took the occasion, however, to assert her sovereignty over the CAROLINES.

Germany, in 1875, protested to Madrid that there was no treaty entitling Spain to make any such claim, and that no representatives of the Spanish Government had ever been established on the islands. Great Britain supported the Germans. In 1876, Germany dispatched a corvette to Yap, Ngulu, and Palau to map the area and to protect the interests of German merchants and, at the request of the British Admiralty, of English traders as well.

An exchange of diplomatic notes between Spain, Germany, and Great Britain resulted the following year in an agreement whereby Spain recognized complete freedom of trade in all Pacific areas not actually occupied by a European nation.

Spain now began slowly to mature plans for occupation of the CAROLINES. A Spanish cruiser visited Yap and Palau in 1883, and on February 24, 1885, the Madrid government ordered the governor of the Philippines to take possession of the islands. On August 21 and 22 respectively, two Spanish vessels arrived at Yap with a new governor. Instead of raising the Spanish flag immediately the party spent five days in selecting a suitable site. Suddenly, on the morning of August 25, the German gunboat Iltis sped into port, landed a party, planted the German flag, and took possession of the islands in the name of the Kaiser. The resulting dispute was submitted to Pope Leo XIII for adjudication. In December 1885, the Pope confirmed Spain's claim to sovereignty on condition that she

maintain an orderly government, grant full protection to all eastern traders, allow Germany, in particular, to trade freely, to establish fisheries and plantations, and to establish coaling stations. In 1886 Great Britain reached an agreement with Spain and Germany whereby she too gained the above-mentioned rights. Germany meanwhile sent a warship to make surveys of Palau and her traders proceeded with their plans for commercial expansion.

Spain ruled the islands until 1899 when, at the close of the Spanish-American war, she negotiated a treaty with Germany by which the latter acquired the CAROLINE and MARIANAS ISLANDS, except for Guam, in return for a payment of 25 million pesetas (\$4,500,000). On July 18, 1899, an imperial edict declared these regions a German protectorate and placed them under the administration of the Governor of German New Guinea. The Germans took possession at once, establishing administrative headquarters for the WESTERN CAROLINES at Yap.

Although they encountered difficulties in imposing their administration in the EASTERN CAROLINES, the Germans met practically no opposition on Yap, and little more in the other islands of the WEST CAROLINES. In general, native chiefs were left in authority, though made subject to German supervision and deprived of certain of their powers.

The administrative control of the islands was centralized in 1907 by converting the district office for the Marianas at Saipan into a branch office subordinate to the headquarters at Yap. In 1910 another branch office was opened on Angaur in consequence of the growing economic importance of that island with the development of phosphate mining. The Germans succeeded in imposing their control throughout the WESTERN CAROLINES without unduly antagonizing the natives.

In October, 1914, a Japanese naval squadron took military possession of the CAROLINE ISLANDS, interning the German officials and businessmen. The squadron commander immediately established a military administration over the islands. In December of the same year the administration was taken over by the newly-created Provisional Naval Garrison or South Seas Defense Corps, which had its headquarters on Truk and established regional garrisons at Saipan, Palau, Truk, Ponape, and Jaluit to conduct civil affairs in five administrative districts centering on these islands. In April, 1915, a sixth district was created, with garrison headquarters on Yap.

On July 1, 1918, the Japanese established a Civil Administration Department which remained under control of the Naval Garrison. The regional garrisons relinquished their administrative functions, retaining only their police functions, and civil administration stations were set up by the new department in each of the six administrative districts. These stations were manned by civilian personnel, and were responsible directly to the Department.

By a secret agreement in March, 1917, Great Britain recognized the claims of Japan to all former German possessions in the Pacific north of the Equator, and the approval of France and Russia was also obtained. The peace conference at Versailles mandated the islands to Japan under a Class C mandate (see MARSHALL ISLANDS and MARIANAS ISLANDS History). In 1920 Japan was confirmed in her mandatory possession of the islands, but it was not until 1922, as a result of the Washington Conference, that the United States accepted the arrangement, and then only after prolonged negotiations and special assurance that American interests in Yap would be safeguarded.

The Yap dispute centered about the Pacific cable system. At the time of World War I the Deutsch-Niederlandische Telegrahengesellschaft owned and operated cables which ran from Guam to Yap and there diverged, one line going to Celebes and the other running north to Shanghai. Another concern, the American Commercial Pacific Cable Company, owned cables running from San Francisco to Guam via Honolulu and Midway Islands, from Guam to the Japanese Bonin Islands, and from

Guam to Manila and thence to Shanghai. In addition, the American company operated the Guam end of the German cable from Yap. During interruptions of service on the Guam-Manila cable, messages could be redirected over the German cable, via Yap to Shanghai and thence relayed to Manila by the American cable. This alternative route was regarded by American interests as of the utmost importance in maintaining uninterrupted communication with China and the Philippines. The seizure of Yap by the Japanese in 1914 and the diversion of the Yap-Shanghai cable to a Japanese island, Nawa in the Ryukus, deprived Americans of this alternative route and meant that, whenever the Guam-Manila service was interrupted, all American cable traffic with China and the Philippines has to pass through Japan.

Accordingly, when the question of mandates was discussed at the Versailles conference, President Wilson made certain reservations in regard to Yap, and these were apparently accepted by the Supreme Council. They were not, however, a matter of record, and when the Council of the League of Nations in 1919 confirmed Japan in her mandate over "all the former German islands situated in the Pacific Ocean and lying north of the Equator" it made no mention of special consideration in regard to Yap. The U.S. Government brought the matter to the attention of both Japan and the Council of the League, but considerably weakened her case by waiting for more than a year after the confirmation of the mandate before registering her protest. Then Japan declined to concede that her mandate was limited by any unwritten understanding at the peace conference, and the United States refused to acknowledge that the mandate thus granted by the League was valid.

In February, 1922, a treaty was signed between the U.S. and Japan. Article I of this treaty gave the consent of the U.S. to the Japanese mandate. Article II conferred upon the U.S. all the rights and privileges granted to members of the League by the terms of the mandate, including religious freedom whereby American missionaries might acquire and possess property and open schools throughout the island. Article III granted to American citizens free access to the Island of Yap on an equal footing with the Japanese "in all that relates to the landing and operation of the existing Yap-Guam cable, or of any cable which may hereafter be laid or operated by the United States or by its nationals connecting with the Island of Yap." Similar rights were pledged in regard to radio-telegraph, but with the reservation that these rights should not become operative so long as Japan maintained an adequate station. Article IV secured to citizens of the United States unrestricted rights of entry and residence in Yap, together with the privileges of acquiring and holding all kinds of real and personal property and exemption from censorship over cable and radio. Article V provided that the Japanese Government would exercise its power of expropriation in the island to secure for the U.S. or its nationals needed property and facilities for the purpose of electrical communication if such could not otherwise be obtained.

Japan thus acknowledged the special interests of the U.S. in Yap, but the matter never actually went beyond formal acknowledgment. In 1925, when the cable service between Yap and Guam was interrupted, the U.S. Navy, when approached by the State Department on the subject, declared that since the cable was not a naval undertaking the Navy would take no action. As late as 1929 the U.S. still retained technical control over the Yap-Guam cable, but there is no indication that it was in effective operation at that time.

In accordance with the terms of the mandate, the Japanese began to withdraw their armed forces from the islands in 1921 and completed the withdrawal in March, 1922. During the period from 1920 to 1922 the Civil Administration acted under direct instructions from the Minister of the Navy. In preparation for civilian administration, the headquarters of the Department were transferred from Truk to Koror in Palau in 1921. In March 1922 the Provisional Naval Garrison was abolished, and in the following months its place was taken by the South Seas Government, a civilian administrative organization which has governed the mandated islands ever since.

In 1939, Japan ceased submitting reports to the League of Nations. In that year all pretense of international supervision vanished, and the islands were increasingly treated as a closed military area. (REFERENCE: CIVIL AFFAIRS HANDBOOK, WESTERN CAROLINE ISLANDS, OPNAV-50E-7)

MARIANAS ISLANDSDiscovery and Exploration

Guam and Rota, and just possibly also Aguijan, Saipan and Tinian, were discovered by Fernando Magellan on March 6, 1521, who named them "Las Islas de las Ladrones," although he had earlier named them the Lazarus Achipelago in honor of St. Lazarus.

Three years later Magellan's subaltern, Eltano, revisited the island of Rota, and in 1526 the Spanish explorer, Loaisa, also visited the area. In 1564, Admiral Miguel Lopez de Legaspi, who was charged by Phillip II of Spain with the conquest of all the islands reported by Magellan, landed on Saipan in November, 1564, and there proclaimed Spanish sovereignty. Inappropriately, the next visitor was the English pirate Cavendish. In 1596 the Spanish explorer Quiros touched at Saipan. During the next hundred years Spanish galleons frequently stopped in the MARIANAS. A few Dutch vessels stopped at Guam for provisions, but the Dutch did not dispute Spain's claim to the islands although the Spaniards made no effort to administer them. In 1668 the Spaniards made the first real effort at colonization, sending missionaries and soldiers who subsequently brought the MARIANAS under effective Spanish control.

The principal islands and events in their history are tabulated in the following list:

Agrihan - discovered by Morales on his first mission journey, 1668.

Aguijan - possibly discovered by Magellan, 1521; visited by Morales, 1668.

Alamagan - discovered by Morales, 1668.

Anatahan - discovered by Morales, 1668.

Asuncion - discovered by Savitores, 1669; visited by the French scientist, La Perouse, 1786.

Guam - discovered by Magellan, 1521; visited by the Spaniards Loaisa, 1526, and Hernan Fortes, 1527; by the English buccaneer Cavendish, 1588, and by the Dutch naval commanders Oliver van Noort, 1600, Joris Spilbergen, 1616, and Jacob l'Heremite, 1625; Christianized and conquered by the Spaniards after 1668; visited by the English buccaneers Swan, 1686; Eaton and Cowley, 1685, and Woodes Rogers, 1710; visited and explored by scientific expeditions under the Spaniard Alessandro Malaspina, 1792, the Russian Otto von Kotzebue, 1817, and the Frenchman Louis de Freycinet, 1819, and Dumont d'Urville 1828 and 1839; regularly visited by many British and American whalers in the mid-nineteenth century; captured by the U.S. Cruiser Charleston, 1898.

Guguan - discovered by Morales, 1668;

Maug - discovered by Sanvitores, 1669.

Medinilla, - discovered by Spanish fathers, 1668 or 1669.

Pagan - discovered by Morales, 1668.

Pajaros - perhaps visited by Spaniards between 1668 and 1695 but possibly first discovered by the Englishman Douglas, 1789.

Rota - Discovered by Magellan, 1521; the scene of Legaspi's proclamation of Spanish conquest, 1564; visited by Quiros, 1596; Christianized and conquered by the Spaniards after 1668; the site of a brief-lived American colony, 1810-15

Sarigan - Discovered by Morales, 1668.

Tinian - possibly discovered by Magellan, 1521; the scene of the shipwreck of Spanish ship Concepcion, 1638; Christianized and conquered by the Spaniards after 1668; visited by the Englishmen Lord Anson, 1742, Lord Byron, 1767, Captain Gilbert, 1788, and Lieutenant Mortimer, 1789, and by Freycinet, 1819; leased to the Irishman Johnson and his sister, 1869 to 1877.

Political History

On June 15, 1668, the Jesuit father, Diego Luis de Sanvitores, arrived in Guam from the Philippines via Mexico and Spanish influence began to assert itself over the islands which were now renamed the "MARIANAS" in honor of Queen Maria Ana, widow of Philip IV of Spain and patroness of the missionary undertaking. The priests quickly established missions on Guam, then travelled by native canoe to explore and missionize Rota, Tinian, Saipan and other islands to the north. Within a short time the natives revolted, but in October, 1670, the Spaniards forced the natives to make peace. It was not long, however, before trouble broke out again, continuing until 1698 when most of the natives of the islands were moved to Guam where the Spanish administration had its headquarters.

Spain ruled the islands through a governor, almost invariably an army officer, who was until 1821 subordinate to the Viceroy of Mexico, thereafter to the Governor General of the Philippines. Local administration was first placed in the hands of high-born Chamorros, but later to Spanish-speaking islanders of the lower class.

The major event in the MARIANAS in the nineteenth century was the capture of Guam by the United States in 1898. By an executive order on 23 December 1898, the President declared the island under control of the Navy Department. In 1899 Captain Richard P. Leary, USN, arrived at the island to take formal control. From this point the history of Guam diverges from that of the rest of the MARIANAS and loses its relevancy to the sovereignty of the MARIANAS in general.

In 1899, by payment of 25 million pesetas (\$4,500,000) to the Spanish Government, Germany acquired sovereignty over the CAROLINE ISLANDS and the MARIANAS with the exception of Guam. These islands were made part of the protectorate of German New Guinea, and district offices were set up at Ponape, Yap and Saipan. In 1907 the Saipan district office was reduced to a branch station, and the MARIANAS were combined with the WESTERN CAROLINE ISLANDS as one administrative unit with headquarters at Yap. In the same year the German flag was raised over the northern MARIANAS. For the most part, the Germans maintained the Spanish system of local administration.

In October, 1914, a Japanese naval squadron took military possession of the German MARIANAS ISLANDS, interning the German officials and businessmen and eventually shipping them back to Germany. The Japanese naval squadron commander immediately established a military administration over the islands.

In December of 1914 the administration was taken over by a newly created Provisional Naval Garrison or South Seas Defense Corps which had its headquarters on Truk and established regional garrisons at Saipan, Palau, Truk, Ponape and Jaluit. In April, 1915, a sixth district was created with garrison headquarters on Yap.

By a secret agreement in March, 1917, Great Britain recognized the claims of Japan to all former German possessions in the Pacific north of the Equator, and the approval of France and Russia was also obtained. When the peace conference met at Versailles, therefore, it was faced with the fact of virtual annexation. American efforts were powerless to effect any significant change, although the situation was rendered somewhat more palatable by devising a

special category of Class C mandates to cover the case. On these terms, Japan was confirmed, in 1920, in her possession of the CAROLINE, MARSHALL and MARIANAS ISLANDS as a mandatory under the League of Nations, and in 1922 the United States accepted the arrangement in a special agreement with Japan.

In accordance with the terms of the mandate, the Japanese began to withdraw their armed forces from the islands in 1921 and completed withdrawal in March, 1922. During the period from 1920 to 1922 the Civil Administration Department acted under direct instructions from the Minister of the Navy. In preparation for civilian administration, the headquarters of the Department were transferred from Truk to Koror in Palau in July, 1921, and in March, 1922, the Provisional Naval Garrison was abolished. In the following month its place was taken by the South Seas Government, a civilian administrative organization which has governed the mandated islands ever since. The six administrative districts were retained, with a Branch Government at the head of each. The Saipan Branch Government administered all of the mandated MARIANAS.

The principal objectives of Japanese policy in the islands were political and military. In 1932 rumors gained currency that Japan was fortifying some of the islands, notably Truk. When questioned by the League of Nations, the Japanese Government categorically denied the reports. The islands were again brought into public notice as a result of the Manchurian affair when Japan threatened to withdraw from the League of Nations. When Japan did withdraw in March, 1925, she kept the mandated territory defining it as "an integral part of the Japanese empire," but continued to submit annual reports on the islands to the League of Nations. In 1939 she did not submit a report to the League and after that all pretense of international supervision vanished, and the islands were increasingly treated as a closed military area. (REFERENCE: CIVIL AFFAIRS HANDBOOK, MANDATED MARIANAS ISLANDS, OPNAV SOE-8; ISLANDS OF THE PACIFIC, BY HAWTHORNE DANIEL.)

MARSHALL ISLANDS

Discovery and Exploration

The islands were first sighted in 1526 by the Spaniard, Garcia de Loyasa, although credit for the discovery is usually given to his compatriot, Alvaro de Saavedra, who in 1529 reported seeing islands in a position which corresponds with the northern MARSHALLS. It is believed that these islands were Utirik, Rongelap, Ujelang, and Eniwetok. In 1542 and again in 1564, 1566 and 1567, Spanish ships visited the archipelago, but left only very inaccurate charts of them. Then for nearly two centuries the islands were virtually lost to the western world. Credit for rediscovery is usually given to the English captains Gilbert and Marshall who in 1788 sighted Mille, Aur, Majuro, Arno, Moloelap, Erikub, Wotje, Likiep, and Jemo. It was after the latter captain that the archipelago was named, but it is known that several other English captains had already seen the islands sometime previously. Byron (1765) passed through the islands; Wallis (1767) sighted Rongerik and Rongelap; and Carteret (1767) saw an atoll which may have been either Taka or Ailinginae. Following Gilbert and Marshall, Bond (1792) discovered Namu, Ailinglaplap, Namorik, and Einwetok; Dennet (1797) sighted Kili and Ailinglaplap; Patterson (1809) discovered Jaluit; and the ship "Ocean" (1804) discovered Kwajalien, Ujae, and perhaps Lae.

The first systematic exploration of the islands was made by Kotzebue, a lieutenant of the Russian Navy. On a scientific expedition to the northwest coast of North America in 1816 and 1817 Kotzebue stopped at the islands, and in 1824 he returned to make further investigations. He visited Mejit, Wotje, Erikub, Moloelap, Aur, Ailuk, Utirik, Bokak, Wotje, and Likiep atolls, and made the first accurate hydrographic reports.

Among the more important subsequent explorations were the following: 1824 - Duperrey, a Frenchman, explored Mille and Jaluit and charted their lagoons; Ray discovered and explored Ebon; 1829 and 1831-32 -- Chramschenko, a Russian who had been with Kotzebue, explored Mille and Jaluit; 1835 - Schantz of the Russian Navy discovered Wotho; 1853 - Hammond visited Ujae; 1858 - Brown discovered Lae, the final atoll to be discovered.

Prior to Kotzebue's exploration in 1816 there is no record of any extended contact with the natives. Subsequent dealings with the natives were confined mostly to trading stops.

Political History

Until 1885, when they were annexed by Germany, the islands were independent, ruled by native clan chiefs. Lemari, the first great chief of whom there is any record, had gained control over all the Ratak chain by 1823. Later in the century the local chiefs of the southern atolls revolted and established their independence. The first powerful chief reported for the Ralik chain was Kaibuki. From 1845 until his death in 1870 he dominated all but a few of the northern atolls. In 1870, Kabua, a native of Rongelap, succeeded to Kaibuki's throne by marrying his widow and gaining the support of the German traders on Jaluit. In 1878 Kabua made a treaty with a German naval officer, ceding to the Germans exclusive use of Jaluit harbor and guaranteeing protection to the German companies. Shortly thereafter, in 1880, Kabua was defeated by Lojak and driven from southern Ralik to Ailinglaplap, but he returned to Jaluit under the German administration to share the rule until his death in 1910.

In 1885 Lojak was the dominant chief in southern Ralik. Murjil, chief of Aur, controlled northern Ratak. In northern Ralik and southern Ratak, individual atolls were in most instances ruled by independent local chiefs.

The German treaty of 1878 was followed in 1885 by the formal assumption of a protectorate over the archipelago when the commander of a German warship ceremoniously raised the German flag on Jaluit, Likiep, and the five southernmost atolls of the Ratak chain and concluded nineteen separate treaties with local chiefs. This precipitated disputes with both Spain and Great Britain, but by 1886 both nations had formally conceded sovereignty over the MARSHALLS to Germany.

By 1887 an imperial administrator had been established on Jaluit, and had begun to issue ordinances and collect taxes. In 1888 he concluded an agreement with the Jaluit Company whereby, in return for certain privileges such as the sole right to annex unowned land and to exploit the pearl fisheries and guano deposits, the company assumed the total cost of administration. The company also reserved the right to be heard beforehand whenever the administrator made any important decision.

In 1906 the resident administrator was placed under the Imperial Governor of German New Guinea, instead of being directly responsible to the home government. In 1911 a single administration for both Ponape and the MARSHALLS was established with its seat at Ponape, the resident in the MARSHALLS becoming a station governor. This state of affairs continued for the remainder of the German period.

Despite the fact that German administrators attempted to maintain the native political structure by dealing with the natives through their chiefs, native political structure changed considerably during the German regime. The chiefs were shorn of certain of their traditional powers, and by 1900 there were no more native leaders of any real stature.

In 1914 the Japanese took military possession of the MARSHALL ISLANDS, interning the German administrators and business men and eventually shipping them back to Germany. The islands were administered by a Japanese naval garrison stationed on Jaluit until 1918 when a civil department of the naval administration was created.

When the peace conference at Versailles came to deliberate the disposition of the former German possessions in the Pacific, it was faced with a delicate situation in consequence of the secret agreement made in 1917 between Great Britain and Japan. This agreement assigned to the Japanese all former German possessions north of the Equator, including the MARSHALL ISLANDS, and to the British those south of the Equator. With annexation in accordance with this agreement already virtually accomplished, the peace conference was powerless to effect any significant change, but it was able to bring the disposition of the German Pacific possessions under the mandate system by devising a special category of Class C mandates. Such a mandate differed from outright annexation only by imposing upon the mandatory power a number of obligations, notably, to promote the material and moral well-being and social progress of the natives, to prohibit slavery and forced labor, to control traffic in arms, to refrain from building fortifications and military bases, to permit freedom of worship and missionary activity, and to submit an annual report to the League of Nations. On these terms Japan was confirmed, in 1920, in her possession of the MARSHALL, CAROLINE AND MARIANNAS ISLANDS as a mandatory under the League of Nations, and in 1922 the United States accepted the arrangement in a special agreement with Japan.

In 1922 Japan set up a government, consistent with the terms of the mandate, to administer the former German islands north of the Equator. Its responsible head was the Director of the South Seas Bureau, with headquarters on Palau. The MARSHALL ISLANDS, with the exception of Ujelang and Einwetok, assigned to the Ponape Branch Bureau, were organized as an administrative district, the Jaluit Branch Bureau, under the South Seas Bureau.

In 1932 rumors gained currency that Japan was fortifying the islands, and the League of Nations questioned the accredited representative of the Japanese government, who categorically denied the reports. In the same year the islands were again brought into public notice by Japan's threat to withdraw from the League of Nations as a result of the Manchurian affair. This provided an opportunity for international jurists to pronounce the opinion that if Japan withdrew she would thereby forfeit her mandate, and the islands would revert to the League. Japanese jurists held the opposite opinion. When Japan actually did withdraw in March, 1935, she kept the territory, defining it as "an integral part of the Japanese empire," but she continued to administer it in much the same way and to submit annual reports to the League through the year 1937.

Unlike the Germans, the Japanese conducted their administration in a manner designed to undermine native political institutions. The Japanese greatly restricted the functions of the native political heads, the hereditary clan chiefs of aristocratic lineage who exercised jurisdiction over their own people and who exacted tribute from the chiefs of inferior or conquered clans. The Japanese superimposed an administrative hierarchy of local village chiefs and headsmen appointed by the head of the Branch Bureau.

(REFERENCE: MILITARY GOVERNMENT HANDBOOK, OPNAV 50E-1, MARSHALL ISLANDS; ISLANDS OF THE PACIFIC, BY HAWTHORNE DANIELS.)

BONIN ISLANDS

Discovery and Exploration

There is some question as to the actual date of the discovery of the BONIN ISLANDS. They may have been sighted by the Spaniards Torres and Villalobos in 1543. A group of islands called the "Arsopispo Archipelago" appears on the early Spanish maps and seems to indicate knowledge of other islands to the north as well as of the Volcano Islands discovered in 1543 by Torres. It is possible that the Hollanders Quast and Tasman sighted the BONINS in 1639.

The Japanese attribute discovery of the BONINS to Sadayori Ogaswara, possibly a legendary figure. Ogaswara is supposed to have visited the islands in 1593, to have received them as a fief from the Japanese emperor and to have established a colony which survived for about 30 years. Japanese sailors are said to have visited the islands several times, one such visit being recorded in 1670 and another in 1675. Brief contact with the islands was established again in 1728 by another Ogaswara. In 1785 Shihei Hayashi recommended establishment of an agricultural colony, but the Japanese took no action for almost a 100 years.

The first authenticated Western visitors to the BONINS were American and British whalers. In 1823 the American Captain Coffin visited Haha-jima (frequently called Coffin Island thereafter) and claimed it for the United States. It is quite possible that he visited the northern islands and included them in his claim. American claim to the BONINS was reiterated in 1853-54 by Commodore Perry and Captain King.

The English whaler Supply touched at Chichi-jima in 1825 and claimed the BONINS for Great Britain. In 1828 the English whaler, William, was wrecked in Chichi-jima harbor; another whaler, the Timor, appeared soon after and took off most of the crew, but two men remained and thus became the first Europeans to live on the island. Captain Beechey of the British sloop, Blossom, entered the Chichi-jima harbor on June 9, 1827, and remained for six days, again claiming the islands for Great Britain. Captain Beechey charted the BONINS and named the northern and southern groups Perry and Bailey, respectively, and the three principal islands of the central group, Stapleton, Buckland, and Peel, and the main harbor of the latter island Port Lloyd, all after contemporary British figures.

The following year a Russian scientific expedition under Frederick Lutke explored the islands and appraised them as promising for colonial exploitation. Lutke is said to have claimed the islands for Russia, but he predicted that the British soon would establish a colony in the BONINS as a port of call for whalers and as a center for both legal and contraband trade with China. Events soon proved Lutke's prediction partly right; the founding of a British-sponsored colony in 1830 opened the BONINS to international development.

Political History

In 1830 Captain Charlton, British Consul in the Sandwich Islands encouraged and assisted a group of colonists to settle in the BONINS. The colonists consisted of one Genoese who was probably a British subject, one Englishman, two Americans, one Dane and several dozen Hawaiians. Arriving at Port Lloyd (Omura) on Peel Island (Chichi-jima) they formally raised the British flag. For a number of years the colonists seemed so little concerned with the question of sovereignty that all of them, and particularly, the Americans, seemed to regard themselves as subjects of the country of their origin and the colony as a purely independent venture. Leadership of the colony fell on the shoulders of Massachusetts-born Nathaniel Savory. British and American whalers stopped at the islands regularly. After a ship of undetermined nationality had stopped at the islands, destroyed property and abducted native girls, the colonists appealed both to British and American authorities for protection, but neither the British nor Americans exhibited the slightest inclination to accept responsibility for the colony until 1853 when Commodore Perry visited the islands.

Commodore Perry's visit to the BONINS in 1853 was not accidental. Perry had formulated a bold Pacific policy of his own and was making strong recommendations to the Department of State in Washington that the United States should take immediate and forceful action to establish itself in those Pacific Islands which were still unclaimed. He proposed establishment of United States naval and commercial bases in HAWAII, the BONINS, the RYUKUS, and FORMOSA and many other islands. Informed that at Port Lloyd there was a non-colonial, American-dominated settlement he sailed for the BONINS to confirm American control of them for future use as a coaling station.

Perry consulted with Nathaniel Savory and for payment of \$50 he obtained title to a piece of property with 1,000 yards of frontage on the bay, favorably situated for construction of offices, warehouses and a pier, and upon his departure he appointed Savory as his agent to manage the property. He encouraged the settlers to organize a definite local government and he was largely responsible for the wording of the constitution for the "Colony of Peel Island." Four months after his departure, Perry ordered Captain Kelly of the Plymouth to proceed to the BONINS to take possession of the southern group for the United States. Captain Kelly did so on October 30, 1853, renaming the group the COFFIN ISLANDS in honor of the American captain who had discovered and claimed them.

The British entered a protest, but Perry reasserted American claims to the islands, declaring that British sovereignty had never been clearly established. Britain at the time was too busy with the Crimean War to press her claims and soon after the U.S. became involved in the Civil War. Furthermore, the opening of Yokohama to foreign shipping eliminated the necessity for a coaling station in the BONINS. Infrequent visits of foreign vessels kept alive interest in the BONINS for the next 20 years.

After Perry's departure from the BONINS, the islanders soon forgot about their experiment in formal self-government and relapsed into unorganized community life. The colony maintained a stable degree of peace and prosperity until the last quarter of the nineteenth century when a reawakened Japan suddenly intervened.

The Japanese had visited the colony as early as 1840 and shipwrecked Jap sailors visited the colony at frequent intervals after that. Soon after Perry's visit Japan began to realize the importance of the BONINS. In 1861 Manjuro Nakanama, a whaler, began operations in the waters off the BONINS. Late in the same year the Japanese Government formally notified Townsend Harris that it intended to occupy the BONINS which it claimed by right of discovery in the sixteenth century. Secretary of State Seward allowed the matter to pass without comment. The Japanese dispatched 100 colonists who acquired land from the other settlers and started an agricultural community at Ogiura. Within fifteen months nearly all of the Japanese colonists returned to their homeland, their venture in cultivation a failure. The other settlers, alarmed at the Japanese attempt at colonization, appealed to Washington but got no satisfaction.

In 1870 Tokyo dispatched a group of Japanese to explore the islands and in 1873 the United States Minister at Tokyo, acting on a request by an American resident of Peel Island, asked for a statement from Washington on the official attitude toward the colony. Secretary of State, Hamilton Fish, ruled that inasmuch as possession of the islands had never been expressly sanctioned by the American Government and the colonists had received no promise expressed or implied of American protection, the Americans in the islands were to be regarded as having expatriated themselves.

The Japanese were not slow to see their advantage after Fish's ruling. Four commissioners suddenly arrived at Port Lloyd and claimed BONIN for Japan. The British, having heard of Japan's intentions, made belated efforts to take steps of their own, but the vessel carrying British officials arrived too late to interfere with Japan's action. The British envoy however investigated the affairs

of the island in behalf of both Britain and American interests. As a result of his findings, Great Britain decided to make no further claims to the islands, and the American authorities recommended to Washington that no further steps were necessary to protect American interests. The Japanese guaranteed foreign rights.

The Japanese proceeded to re-establish their settlement at Ogiura and to bring in new colonists and the BONINS then were duly annexed by Japan. In 1880 they were organized under the Ogasawara island office and placed within the jurisdiction of the Tokyo Prefectural Government.

(REFERENCE: CIVIL AFFAIRS HANDBOOK, IZU AND BONIN ISLANDS, OPNAV 50E-9; JAPAN'S ISLANDS OF MYSTERY, BY WILLARD PRICE; THE ISLAND DEPENDENCIES OF JAPAN, BY G. M. SALIVEY.)

VOLCANO ISLANDSDiscovery and Exploration

The VOLCANO ISLANDS, first discovered by the Spaniard Torres in 1543, were sighted repeatedly thereafter by Pacific voyagers, including the Hollanders Quast and Tasman (1639), the English Captains King (1779) and Gore (1784), the Russian Admiral Krusenstern (1805), and a Captain Solis in 1813. The islands, however, were not landed upon or explored until the Japanese arrived in the region in the later part of the nineteenth century.

Political History

There is no record of attempted colonization of the VOLCANO ISLANDS or of any official claim of sovereignty until after Japan absorbed the BONINS. In 1887 the mayor of Tokyo, with a party of others, visited the VOLCANO group. In 1891 the islands were declared part of the Japanese Empire and were placed under the supervision of Ogasawara island office. A few permanent settlers immigrated to Iwo-shima in 1897, and both Iwo-shima and Kita-iwo-shima have experienced slow development. Minami-iwo-shima remains uninhabited and undeveloped to the present day.

(REFERENCE: CIVIL AFFAIRS HANDBOOK, IZU AND BONIN ISLANDS, OPNAV 50E-9).

MARCUS ISLANDDiscovery and Exploration

MARCUS ISLAND was one of the very last of the significant Pacific islands to become known to the world, escaping discovery until 1896. The Japanese navigator Shinroku Mizutani came upon the uninhabited island in the course of an exploratory voyage to Kulaonus Island and claimed MARCUS for Japan. It is possible that the island may have been sighted by early Spanish explorers and later by English and American whalers but there is no record of this.

Political History

MARCUS ISLAND was immediately annexed by Japan and placed under the supervision of the Ogasawara island office in 1898.

(REFERENCE: CIVIL AFFAIRS HANDBOOK, IZU AND BONIN ISLANDS, OPNAV 50E-9).

IZU ISLANDSDiscovery and Exploration

The IZU ISLANDS were discovered during a period remote in Japanese history. Japanese legend attributes the earliest development of the islands to the sons and descendants of Mishima Myojin, a pre-historic emperor. Chinese legend records that ancient Chinese searchers after the elixir of eternal life ventured as far afield as the IZUS. It is more historically probable, however, that the first discoverers were farmers and fishermen from the IZU Peninsula on Honshu. The population was subsequently augmented by considerable numbers of criminal and political prisoners who were banished from Japan to the islands in punishment.

Political History

The islands were always under the jurisdiction of Japan.

(REFERENCE: CIVIL AFFAIRS HANDBOOK, IZU AND BONIN ISLANDS, OPNAV 50E-9)

KURILE ISLANDS

Discovery and Exploration

Much of the early history of the Kurile Islands is obscure. Indeed, until 1643 when the Dutchman, Martin Gerrits Vries (or de Vries), visited Hokkaido and then continued farther east to the Kuriles, there are only fragments of fact. But upon such fragments as exist and upon tradition and legend historians have been able to build at least a reliable outline of record.

From the earliest times the islands were inhabited by the Ainu, the aborigines who are believed to have retreated from the main islands of Japan to the Kuriles for refuge before the more advanced Yamato warriors. There is some evidence to support the contention that the Ainu were once indigenous to Japan, but features and physical characteristics of the Ainu suggest that they are a primitive race with Caucasian rather than Mongolian affinities. It is believed by some that the Ainu were the people whom Jimmu Tenno encountered when he crossed from Kyushu to the main islands in about 660 B.C. For centuries after the Japanese established themselves in Yamato the aboriginals maintained determined resistance against them, but from the ninth century onward the Ainu lived more or less docilely under Japanese domination, though it appears significant to note that at that time the Japanese had neither conquered the Ainu nor were actually governing them.

Captain Vries' visit to the Kuriles in 1643 is the first record of European contact with the islands. After leaving Hokkaido Vries sailed to Kunashiri, then to Etorofu, and Uruppu. He took possession of the islands in the name of the East Indian Company.

Here again there are gaps in history. It is known that a storm-driven Japanese ship reached Etorofu and Kunashiri in 1672 and that Russians, coming from the north, visited the islands in about 1697. It is entirely probable that the Russians had made visits to the islands before that date in trading or hunting expeditions, but it was not until 1711 that the Russians established permanent contact. In that year a government-sponsored expedition under the direction of Kozyrevskoi and Antsiferov explored the northern Kuriles. The next official Russian visit to the islands was in 1799 when Captain Spanberg of the Russian Navy visited Paramushiru and Shimushu as a member of the Bering Expedition.

While Russia thus continued to show interest in the northern Kuriles, Japan was establishing contact in the southern group. The first accurate information about the southern Kuriles was probably brought to Japan by Migami Tokunai in 1786. At the same time other European nations arrived upon the scene. La Perouse cruised between the islands of Uruppu and Shimushiru in 1787, and Captain Broughton of the Royal Navy visited some of the northern islands in 1796. In 1805 the Russian fleet, under Krusenstern, explored the volcanic chain, bringing the early period of exploration and discovery to a close.

Russia's contact with the natives of the northern islands is evidenced by the fact that as early as 1747 the Greek Orthodox Church was established in the northern Kuriles. Many of the Ainu became familiar with the Russian language, adopted the clothing of the Russians and became acquainted with European technology. Soon afterward the Russian-American Trading Company established posts in the northern islands and imported a number of Aleuts as hunters of sea animals. Only a step behind, in the south, were the Japanese who began employing natives of the southern Kuriles as fishermen and hunters. In this way the southern Ainu became familiar with Japanese language and customs, but it was not until 1875 when the northern islands became part of the Japanese Empire that the Japanese had any extensive contact with the natives of the islands north of Uruppu.

Political History

Russian and Japanese interests clashed sharply in 1806-07. By the end of the eighteenth century Russia had established political control over the northern Kuriles, and was, in fact, collecting tribute from the Ainu in the form of skins. At the same time the Japanese had extended their sphere of influence up into Kunashiri and Etorofu and regarded the southern islands as part of the possessions of the lord of what is now Hokkaido. In 1807 the Russians seized Etorofu and Saghalin (also

Saghalein, Sakhalin). This dispute was not settled until 1854 when, by agreement, the boundary line between the Russian and the Japanese sections of the Kurile Islands was fixed at the Etorofu Straits. From then until 1875 the islands south of Uruppu belonged to Japan, while Uruppu and all the islands to the north were held by Russia.

In 1875 the Russian islands were ceded to Japan in exchange for a waiver of Japanese claims to the southern part of Saghalin. (See history of Saghalin) Under the terms of the agreement, inhabitants of the northern islands were free to move to Russia or to remain and become Japanese subjects. Under this arrangement, the Russian and Aleuts returned home. Most of the Ainu population remained.

Almost immediately after Japan acquired control of the Kuriles, strict control was exercised over hunting and fishing. The islands were poorly charted and in the fog-bound waters many ships were wrecked. Ships that were forced to put in for shelter were confiscated by Japan.

In 1884 the Japanese Government transported all the Ainu living in the Kuriles to Shikotan where they were made to work and to cultivate plots of land. Japanese supervision was severe, and soon the Ainu lost all semblance of being an independent people. At the intercession of Captain Snow, a fur hunter and trader, the Japanese permitted some Ainu to return to Paramushiru in 1891, but they were brought back to Shikotan soon after. Today the Ainu constitute only an insignificant element in the population of the islands.

In 1893, an attempt was made to settle the northern islands with Japanese. A society of former members of the army and navy established a colony on Shimushu, but the community did not survive.

The Kuriles do not have the status of a colony. The islands fall within the prefecture of Hokkaido, and for governmental purposes they are treated as a part of Japan proper.

It is interesting to note that in the preliminary negotiations which preceded by some years the purchase of Alaska by the United States, the Grand Duke Constantine, brother of the Russian Czar, hinted at a possible cession of the Kurile Islands to the United States as "these islands were commercially a part of Alaska". This suggestion was vetoed by an officer of the Russian Navy who considered that it was not good policy to have the Americans too close.

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HOKKAIDO

Discovery and Exploration

Like the Kuriles to which it is closely linked historically, Hokkaido has a dim early record. It is known that the island was inhabited by the Ainu, perhaps the original race of Japan, and to them it was known as ~~XXXXXXXXXX~~, or Ferry Island. It came into the foreground of history when one Abe no Hirafu explored the greater part of it in 662 A.D., and established a garrison in the present province of Shiribashi.

Until the Ainu retreated farther north to the Kuriles, Hokkaido was a battleground between the Japanese and those Ainu who did not see refuge in the islands to the north. At length the Ainu resistance ended and those who remained lived more or less docilely under Japanese domination.

Little was heard of the island again until efforts at colonization were made by Takeda Nobuhiro, one of whose descendants, Matsumae Yoshihiro, had his authority recognized by Tokugawa Ieyasu in 1604. The Matsumae continued to govern the southwestern part of the island until 1868 with headquarters in the old town of Matsumae, now Fukuyama.

It is believed that the Dutch navigator, Captain Maerten Gerrits Vries (or de Vries), was the first European to sight the island, but it is by no means improbable that other European explorers had sailed through its coastal waters prior to 1643, the date of Vries' discovery. Late in the seventeenth and early in the eighteenth century, the island was visited by Dutch and English but by this time Japan had already extended domination over the southern and southwestern part of the island.

Political History

At the time of the Imperial Restoration in Japan, Enomoto Takeaki designated Hokkaido, or Yezo as it was then called, as an independent fief of the expiring Tokugawa dynasty. With the aid of the shogunal fleet he captured Hakodate, Matsumae and other towns and succeeding in holding the Imperial army at bay for several months. He was forced to surrender in June 1869, and in the same year the new government divided the island into nine provinces, called it Hokkaido, placed it in charge of Governor Kuroda, and established a Colonial Development office. In 1881 this office was abolished and the island was divided into three departments, Hakodate, Sapporo, and Nemuro-Ken, which in turn were suppressed in 1886 and a new administration called Hokkaido-Cho was inaugurated.

Hokkaido is a prefecture administered by a Governor, who is controlled directly by the Minister of Home Affairs. The Government of Hokkaido is also the central administrative unit for the Kurile Islands.

SAGHALIN

(Saghalien - Sakhalin)

Discovery and Exploration

As in the case of the Kuriles and Hokkaido, trustworthy early records regarding Saghalin are lacking. Its proximity to the Kuriles and to Hokkaido links it closely with the early history of those islands. It is known that the Ainu lived there from earliest times, but whether the aborigines encountered the island in a migration from the Asiatic mainland or whether they retreated to it from the main islands of Japan is open to question.

Karafuto, the name of the lower half of the island, is of Ainu derivation.

Both Russia and Japan exercised some influence over parts of the island as far back as the seventeenth century, but such contacts as were established consisted mostly of hunting, fishing and fur trading posts. In 1785 the Tokugawa Government of Japan ordered Hidemochi Matsumoto to organize an expedition and report on the island. Shortly afterward the feudal lord of Matsumae at Yezo (Hokkaido) was entrusted with the administration of the island and it was proclaimed a Japanese possession.

Political History

Japan's declaration of possession brought a protest from Russia. Thereupon Japan sent colonists to Saghalin and placed the settlements under control of the high commissioners at Hakodate. Russia followed this move by affirming possession of the northern half of the island. The controversy over possession reached an acute stage in 1852, and a Russian commissioner was sent to Japan to attempt a settlement, which resulted in a stalemate. Again in 1859 Russia sent another envoy to negotiate a settlement on a border line but that attempt also hung fire.

In 1875 an agreement was reached whereby Russia ceded to Japan the northern Kurile Islands in exchange for a waiver of Japanese claims to the southern (Karafuto) part of Saghalin.

In 1905, the Portsmouth Treaty brought to an end the Russo-Japanese war. By the terms of the treaty, the southern part of Saghalin (below 50 degrees latitude) was restored to Japan, while Russia retained the northern section. The Japanese called their portion of the island Karafuto, the Russians retaining the name of Saghalin for the northern section.

Island or Groups of Islands	Discovery	Exploration and/or Colonization	
Carolines	By Da Rocha, Portuguese captain, in 1526	Sir Francis Drake, 1588; Spaniards and British traders (1600 - 1797) explored islands and established missions and trading posts. German traders followed in 1860 - 70.	Reg sph Spa clai unt and clai mit Pop con clai isla 1899 tary was in
Palau	By Spanish in 1543	Scene of British trade activity in 1780 - 1800. German traders opened stations in 1870. Spain established missions in 1710. British claimed island in 1790.	Span Germ abov
Yap	By Da Rocha in 1526	Scene of early Spanish mission attempts. German traders well established by 1860 - 70.	Span Germ abov
Bonins	Undetermined. Japanese say by Ogasawara in 1593. More likely by Spain in 1543.	Japs said to have established colony in 1543 - 1573. American Captain Coffin visited Haka-jima in 1823 and claimed island for U. S. British claimed Chichi-jima in 1827. Lutke claimed islands for Russia in 1828. British sponsored colony in 1830. Colony, under leadership of American, Nathaniel Savory, regarded as independent venture under sovereignty of no nation.	Reg unt visi by J

(cont'd)

Exploration and/or Colonization

Sovereignty

Prior American Claim

ain,	Sir Francis Drake, 1588; Spaniards and British traders (1600 - 1797) explored islands and established missions and trading posts. German traders followed in 1860 - 70.	Regarded as in Spain's sphere of influence; Spain made no formal claim of sovereignty until 1873. Germany and Britain disputed claim, finally submitting matter to Pope Leo XIII. Pope confirmed Spain's claim. Spain sold islands to Germany in 1899. Japan took military possession in 1914, was granted Class C mandate in 1920.	
513	Scene of British trade activity in 1780 - 1800. German traders opened stations in 1870. Spain established missions in 1710. British claimed island in 1790.	Spanish until sold to Germany in 1899. See above.	
1526	Scene of early Spanish mission attempts. German traders well established by 1860 - 70.	Spanish until sold to Germany in 1899. See above.	American interests on Yap recognized by Japan in 1922 treaty, i.e., on Yap-Guam cable.
Japan- wara likely .	Japs said to have established colony in 1543 - 1573. American Captain Coffin visited Haka-jima in 1823 and claimed island for U. S. British claimed Chichi-jima in 1827. Lutke claimed islands for Russia in 1828. British sponsored colony in 1830. Colony, under leadership of American, Nathaniel Savory, regarded as independent venture under sovereignty of no nation.	Regarded as independent until Commodore Perry's visit in 1853. Annexed by Japan in 1880.	Early colony under leadership of American; Captain Coffin's claim for U. S. in 1823. Perry's claim in 1853.

(cont'd)

<u>Island or Groups of Islands</u>	<u>Discovery</u>	<u>Exploration and/or Colonization</u>
Bonins (cont'd)		Commodore Perry asserted American rights to the islands in 1853, obtained title to waterfront property. Captain Kelly, USN, took formal possession of southern group in October, 1853. Japan started colony in 1861 and formally claimed islands in 1873. British and U. S. did not protest.
Marshalls	1526 by Spaniards. Re-discovered in 1788 by English Captains Gilbert and Marshall.	By the Russian, Kotzebue, in 1816-17 and 1824. By French in 1824. Subsequent explorations by English, Russians, and Germans who established trading posts.
Marianas	Credit for discovery of the group is given to Magellan, 1521, although individual islands of the group were discovered by other explorers more than a century later.	Explored by Spain, English, French. Early colonization by Spanish fathers.

Exploration and/or Colonization

Sovereignty

Prior American Claim

Commodore Perry asserted American rights to the islands in 1853, obtained title to waterfront property. Captain Kelly, USN, took formal possession of southern group in October, 1853. Japan started colony in 1861 and formally claimed islands in 1873. British and U. S. did not protest.

By the Russian, Kotzebue, in 1816-17 and 1824. By French in 1824. Subsequent explorations by English, Russians, and Germans who established trading posts.

Independent, ruled by native clan chiefs, until annexed by Germany in 1885. In 1914 Japan took military possession. In 1920, League of Nations granted islands to Japan under Class C mandate.

Explored by Spain, English, French. Early colonization by Spanish fathers.

Spanish until sold to Germany in 1899 (excepting Guam). Japan took military possession in 1914. Japan granted a Class C mandate by League of Nations in 1920. Mandate accepted by U. S. in special agreement with Japan in 1922.

Visited regularly by American whalers in 19th century; Americans established brief-lived colony on Rota in 1810-15. See islands of Guam and Yap.

Discovery given dual group by more later.

Island or Groups of Islands	Discovery	Exploration and/or Colonization	
Guam	By Magellan 1521.	Visited by Spaniards, Dutch, English, Russians, French. Spanish priests established missions on island in 1688.	Sp ta 18 of 18
Rota	By Magellan 1521.	Scene of Legaspi's proclamation of Spanish conquest in 1564. Americans started colony in 1810, lasting until 1815.	Sp to
Volcano	By Spaniard, Torres, in 1543.	Explored by Japanese in latter part of 19th century.	An in
Marcus	By Japanese navigator, Mizutani, in 1896.	Explored by Japan in same year.	An in

Exploration and/or ColonizationSovereigntyPrior American Claim

21.	Visited by Spaniards, Dutch, English, Russians, French. Spanish priests established missions on island in 1688.	Spanish until captured by U. S. in 1898. Under control of U. S. Navy from 1899.	
21.	Scene of Legaspi's proclamation of Spanish conquest in 1564. Americans started colony in 1810, lasting until 1815.	Spanish until sold to Germany in 1899.	American colony on island in 1810-15.
erres,	Explored by Japanese in latter part of 19th century.	Annexed by Japan in 1891.	
avigator, 1896.	Explored by Japan in same year.	Annexed by Japan in 1896.	