ESSAY 3

Western New Guinea: The Geographical and Ethnographic Context of the 1926 Dutch and American Expedition (With appendices of Matthew Stirling’s unfinished Notes on the expedition, and “Materials for an Editor’s Foreword” for his Journal)

Paul Michael Taylor

The region explored by Matthew Stirling in his 1926 expedition was then known as Dutch New Guinea (or Netherlands New Guinea), and was at that time the easternmost part of the Dutch (or Netherlands) East Indies. It is now the easternmost part of the Republic of Indonesia. The region has a long history of external contacts along its coastal areas. The sultanate of Tidore, which along with neighboring Ternate formed the two primary sultanates of the northern Moluccan or “Spice Islands” lying just west of New Guinea, already claimed western New Guinea as a tributary and trading area when Europeans arrived looking for spices in the early sixteenth century. Yet western New Guinea is also an internally diverse part of the Melanesian cultural area, and it has long been recognized that the island contained many “refugia” of historically isolated populations in its interior.

Matthew Stirling probably intended for the journal of his expedition to be preceded by an essay on the geography and anthropology of the region. He is undoubtedly the author of undated draft introductory matter, now in the Smithsonian’s National Anthropological Archives, that has been appended to this essay, which however was apparently abandoned by him and left incomplete. It has been transcribed and reproduced here because it clearly describes the journal-writer’s intent in undertaking the expedition described in his journal, and also gives a draft statement of the expedition’s accomplishments.

Stirling’s statement about New Guinea in this document’s opening paragraph, “it is today less known than any other habitable area of equal size on the globe,” may well still be true for the western (Indonesian) half of the island that he visited, where beyond a few modern cities roads are few and communication systems are poor, and permits for research and study have been quite difficult to obtain.

Clearly Stirling had intended to provide a better introduction to the geography and ethnology of New Guinea than the draft documents he left. Undoubtedly he would have corrected some factual errors in his description of the island, prior to publication. For example he writes, perhaps momentarily forgetting Greenland and confusing the Australian continent with an island: “With the exception of Australia, it [New Guinea] is the largest island in the world.” Though this material seems to constitute early drafts for introduce the island and its people, it also represents an authentic personal recollection and assessment of the journal, and of the expedition recounted there.

Consequently, this essay attempts to supplement his abandoned drafts intended as introductions with some of the background on the geography and people of western New Guinea, of the kind that Matthew Stirling might have included. This will also serve

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1 This essay partly draws from my earlier paper on “Irian Jaya: The Land and its Peoples,” published in German (Taylor 1995) and English (Taylor 1996).
to place his expedition in context by bringing the political and ethnographic situation of the island up to the present day.

Politically, western New Guinea became Indonesia’s “Papua” province in 2002 (the province had previously been called “Irian Jaya”), and at that time it constituted Indonesia's largest, least densely populated, and easternmost province. It was formed entirely from the western 47% of the great continental island of New Guinea and its nearby offshore islands, covering an area of 421,841 square kilometers (162,873 square miles). Indonesia's 1990 census counted a population of 1,649,000 in the province; that nation's Central Statistics Bureau estimated the 1995 population at 1,953,600 (Biro Pusat Statistik 1993:41). Indonesia’s 2000 census (whose data is critically examined, on a regional basis, by Muhidin 2002) gave a total population of 2,113,000 for Irian Jaya (western New Guinea), out of Indonesia’s total 203,456,000 (Muhidin 2002:15). Straddling the equator, the province is bordered by the Moluccan Sea and Indonesia's Maluku Province (the Moluccan islands) to the west, by Micronesia and the Pacific Ocean to the north, and by Australia across the Arafura Sea to the south. It shares a land boundary to the east with the Republic of Papua New Guinea, which occupies the remaining 53% of the island of New Guinea itself (and its own nearby islands) and has a population over twice as large as the population of western New Guinea (1995 estimate: 4,197,000)

Since an Indonesian law passed in 1999 proposing the division of Irian Jaya (Papua) province into three provinces, there have been several Indonesian government steps toward such an administration division. At this writing (2005) the province has been officially divided into Irian Jaya Barat (West Irian Jaya) and Papua (an eastern portion), with the official launch of the province of Irian Jaya Tengah (Central Irian Jaya) postponed for an indeterminate period following protests and riots in Timika in mid-2003. Central Irian Jaya province remains part of Papua province, and in November 2004 the Constitutional Court of Indonesia (Mahkamah Konstitusi Republik Indonesia) invalidated the legal basis for the future implementation of this province. The three-way division of Papua based on Indonesia’s Law 45 of 1999 (UU45/1999) has been vetoed by one decision of the Constitutional Court. Moreover, some government officials continue to maintain that a presidential instruction of 2003 should be revoked and West Irian Jaya along with Papua should thus be reconstituted as the old province of Papua (= Irian Jaya), while others advocate a division of the original province of Papua into five (rather than three) new provinces. In this essay, we refer for convenience only to “Papua” as the most recent Indonesian name of all of western New Guinea, as the province (formerly named “Irian Jaya”) was renamed by Indonesia’s then-President Abdurrahman Wahid in 2000; a name later recognized by parliament in 2002.

The name “New Guinea” was given to the main island by the Spanish captain Ynigo Ortiz de Retes, who upon his arrival in 1545 was reminded of Guinea (west Africa) by the dark color of the Papuan inhabitants' skin. The local name “Papua” began appearing in European sources with the arrival of the Portuguese captain Antonio d'Arbreu in 1551. Koentjaraningrat (1994:4) summarizes several opinions about the origin of the name “Irian,” including the widely held view presented by Frans Kasiepo at

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2 This summary is condensed from the description of the current legal status of the Papuan administrative divisions provided on the website www.papuaweb.org, as posted in 2005; the Indonesian language text of the relevant legislation and court decisions is provided there.
the Malino Conference (a 1946 Dutch-Indonesian conference held at Malino, Sulawesi, to discuss the formation of a federated Indonesian nation). Kasiepo stated that “Irian” (actually indsay) was the word for the island in the language of Biak (an island in Irian's Cenderawasih Bay), where indsay means “the rays of sun that drive away haze at sea.” (Such phenomena were said to be associated by Biak sailors with their landings on the New Guinea mainland.) Indonesia’s President Soekarno is also said to have popularized the word “Irian” as an abbreviation for indsay indsay (United Republic of Indonesia Against the Netherlands). The “alternative” name for the island, “Papua,” is the word used in the Ternatean and Tidorese languages for the island of New Guinea; there are still many villages on Tidore (in the northern Moluccas) called “kampong Papua,” populated by the descendants of migrants from Papua (western New Guinea) who came to Tidore in the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries as subjects (or slaves) under the sultanate. This name “Papua,” during 1980s and 1990s, became associated with the “Organisasi Papua Merdeka” or “Papuan Independence Movement” (a movement for the independence of western New Guinea from Indonesia), and was thus strongly discouraged. Elmslie (2002) examines the development of West Papuan nationalism, locating its strength in the perception that the province’s economic development had bypassed its indigenous populations. Other studies, such as Rutherford’s (2003) description of the “limits” of national identity felt by the inhabitants of Biak (an island off the province’s north coast) have also examined the resurgence of separatism against a backdrop of participation in Indonesian institutions and a continued longing for the foreign (even Dutch colonial) components of their history.

After the fall of Indonesia’s president Suharto in 1998, pressure for autonomy in various provinces increased, and president Abdurrachman Wahid announced in 2000 that the official name of the province would be changed from “Irian Jaya” to “Papua,” as a means of encouraging a greater sense of autonomy while still within the Indonesian governmental system, which was becoming increasingly federalist. There was however much opposition outside Papua to this name change and it was only approved by Indonesia’s Parliament in 2002. This use of the term “Papua” as the name of the province reflects the fact that the indigenous people of western New Guinea also use the term today to distinguish the Melanesian inhabitants of the island from the large number of migrants who have come to the island from elsewhere in Indonesia.

It is important therefore to note that one of the central distinctions that interested Matthew Stirling in 1926, the differences between “Papuans” and “Pygmies,” does not currently correspond to any indigenously recognized distinction among the peoples of western New Guinea. Today, those groups whom Stirling considered “pygmies,” like all other Melanesian-descended peoples of western New Guinea, consider themselves indsay indsay or Papuans, within the identification of ethnic groups in the current Republic of Indonesia. At the time they were contacted by Stirling, of course, these interior New Guinea populations had no term (nor any need for a term) to distinguish Melanesian inhabitants from non-Melanesian inhabitants of New Guinea, since the latter were unknown. Populations along Stirling’s route were then (and are still today) self-identified by location and by language spoken. Stirling’s grouping of these populations into “Papuan” and “Pygmy” did not reflect any indigenous categories, though it reflected the same categorization used by prior explorers of New Guinea, including that of the British Ornithological Expedition (Wollaston 1912) — which, like Stirling’s expedition,
considered reaching the pygmies of interior New Guinea to be among its primary goals. As reflected in this incomplete draft “Material for Editor’s Foreword,” Stirling considered that reaching the Pygmies was one of the expedition’s successes. He writes, “We had obtained our objectives, which was [sic] the discovery of the pygmies inhabiting the Nassau Mountains in the region of the Carstensz Top.”

Still, in Stirling’s more detailed notes and photographs from the expedition, one can see that his classification of peoples visited into Pygmies and Papuans does also recognize that there were also a few examples of people who represented mixtures of these two ideal types or races, but nevertheless identified themselves as (and culturally and linguistically could be classified as) one or the other. “A group at Damuneru,” begins his handwritten caption on a highland photograph taken as he was probably passing through Wano territory on the way to the Dem region. “The man on the left is apparently mixed with Papuan blood, although culturally and linguistically he is in every way a pigmy. Note the contrast in stature with the other pigmy men.”

Just as coastal “Papuan” and interior people had long intermarried, the coastal people of Papua (western New Guinea) had in fact long traveled to, and received migrants from, surrounding Melanesian islands as well as the Moluccas – despite the frequent “narrative” of New Guinea’s isolation that recurs in most New Guinea expedition accounts. Western New Guinea’s modern political history has been much influenced by contacts with foreign powers, especially along the island’s northern and western coasts and their offshore islands. Moore (2003) has recently written a new integrated history of both eastern and western New Guinea, summarizing the long span of 40,000 years of human history in the region from archeological investigations, as well as including chapters on the island’s integration into “the Malay world” of traditional
Southeast Asian trading and exchange networks, and the history of European trade, settlement, missionization, colonization, and later independence. His writing reflects the more recent trend of emphasizing the extent to which New Guinea was part of, not isolated from, the wider world.

By the 16th century, when Spanish, Portuguese, English, and Dutch explorers began to arrive, western New Guinea's coastal regions had long been visited by Chinese and Arabic traders. Both Moluccan court traditions, and the earliest European explorers, considered the region an important tributary territory of the sultanate of Tidore in the Moluccas. As mentioned above, Tidorese and other northern Moluccans indigenously referred to the island by the local name “Papua,” which Matthew Stirling, in his later “Smithsonian War Background Series” book The Native Peoples of New Guinea (Stirling 1943:4; cf. Anonymous 1883) suggested might be related to a Malay word pua-pua meaning “kinky-haired.” Andaya (1993:103-110) summarizes evidence for a long history of links between Tidore and the coastal communities of northern and western New Guinea. Those links were established long before European arrival in the area and were given a basis in some Moluccan and coastal Papuan myths of origin; they included extensive trade networks and population movements, the sultanate's bestowal of titles to local chiefs in exchange for tribute, and the spread of Islam as well as foreign goods by way of these coastal communities. When needed, the Papuans also provided an indigenous “navy” of seaworthy boats and sailors to the clove- and nutmeg-growing Tidorese sultanate. In short, far from being isolated, New Guinea’s north and western coasts were already, in Christopher Columbus's day, quite integrated into the international economy of this part of the world that Columbus was actually trying to reach. Yet by the eighteenth century, European observers were still struck by the differences between “Tidorized,” Islamic Papuan communities and the more isolated communities of the New Guinea interior, who nevertheless wanted to trade for Tidorese valuables like iron implements and cloth, obtained through coastal communities.

Integration into foreign trading networks dropped off quickly beyond the Moluccan-influenced coastal regions, due to factors such as difficult terrain, unnavigable waterways, prevalence of warfare, and reduced demand or need (on both sides) for available trade-goods. Similarly, (western) Indonesian influences and evidence of trade are prominent in the art of western New Guinea's north coast but diminish quickly as one moves inland (see Taylor and Aragon 1991:66-67, 253-277).

Yet indigenous trade networks (e.g. for shells and stone tools) connected the heterogeneous peoples of the interior. Two of New Guinea's most well-established cultivated plants, the sweet potato and tobacco, had been introduced from America and spread rapidly throughout the island's agricultural communities. Nevertheless, great barriers to direct contact with outsiders remained, in the highlands and elsewhere. The vast mangrove and freshwater swamps of New Guinea's south coast, for example, were not only outside Tidore's effective influence, but were also literally bypassed each year in the extensive trade with northern Australia (especially Arnhem Land) carried on by Macassarese of southern Sulawesi Island. Perhaps these traders seeking tripang, pearls,

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3 Among other sources on the traditional integration of western New Guinea with Maluku, see also Masinambow 1984; and my introduction to the edited translation of F.S.A. de Clercq’s 1893 monograph on the Dutch “Residency” of Ternate (Taylor 2001).
and shellfish in more coralline areas found western New Guinea's southern coastal swamps uninviting.

The Netherlands was the first power to gain political hegemony over both northern and southern halves of western New Guinea (Dutch New Guinea) as part of its larger colony, the Dutch East Indies (now Indonesia). The first Dutch fort of 1828 was abandoned in 1836, but permanent posts were eventually established at Manokwari and Fak-fak (1898), Merauke (1903), and Humboldt Bay (1910). Dutch influence, like earlier foreign influences, was initially limited to the coastal regions and navigable rivers. New Guinea's physiography made most of the province impenetrable. Yet the Dutch outfitted numerous expeditions of exploration to the interior. Matthew Stirling's 1926 expedition was the first use of an airplane for exploration; but the airplane's increased use in the 1930s, along with the development of petroleum and mineral resources in the region, led to continued great improvements in cartography and exploration. Dutch New Guinea, like the rest of the Dutch East Indies, was occupied by Japanese forces during World War II, but returned to Dutch control in 1945 as Indonesia itself declared its independence.

When, after a difficult war of independence, the Netherlands recognized Indonesia in 1949, the Dutch did not include recognition of West New Guinea as part of the new republic. The continuing Dutch presence in West New Guinea (which Indonesians immediately called West Irian) became a strong focus of Indonesian national attention, leading to a break in Indonesian-Dutch diplomatic relations and to military engagements beginning in 1960. One of the slogans of Indonesian independence had been *Dari Sabang ke Merauke!*, meaning that the new nation must stretch "From Sabang..." (a small island off northern Sumatra) "...to Merauke" (the town near the Papua New Guinea border which forms the capital of the *kabupaten* of the same name). A compromise resolution was reached, by which "West Irian" was in 1962 turned over to the United Nations, and then placed under Indonesian administration in 1963, for a U.N.-sponsored plebiscite or Act of Free Choice. The outcome of that process was the transfer of sovereignty over the province to Indonesia in 1969, whereupon the province was renamed "Irian Jaya," or "Glorious Irian." As mentioned above, the name of the province was changed to "Papua" in 2002.

In overall shape, topographers compare the island to a bird, whose "head" projects northwestward as the Bird's Head Peninsula (=Dutch *Vogelkop*, Indonesian *Kepala Burung*). The mountains of New Guinea's Central Dividing Range run like a backbone from the Bird's Head to the southeastern tail of the island. Within Papua province, these mountain ranges include the Sudirman Range (formerly Nassau Range) in the west and the Jayawijaya Range (Star Mountains) extending eastward toward the Papua New Guinea Border; those two ranges are separated by the great Baliem Valley. The four remote, snow-capped peaks that crown this cordillera include the snow-capped Mt. Jaya (4884 m) with its nearby glacier at the Carstensz Pyramid, Mt. Idenburg (4717 m), Mt. Trikora (4730 m) and Mt. Mandala (4640 m). Like the earth's two other regions of equatorial glaciers (east Africa, Andes), the Carstensz glacier has been diminishing in size but in 1972 had an area of 6.9 sq. km. of ice (Petocz 1989:7). There are belts of highland agricultural communities throughout this region, mostly between 1300-2300 m, and highland valleys like the Grand Valley of the Baliem have high population densities and extremely intensive tuberous-crop agricultural communities. Yet until the development of a light-airplane transportation network in the twentieth century, the
rugged, geologically youthful topography of these mountain ranges kept New Guinea's highland communities among the world's most isolated populations.

The central mountain range divides the island into its two major lowland districts. Western New Guinea's northern coastal plain has extensive foothills interspersed with lowland swamps, as well as several isolated coastal blocks of mountains such as the Cyclops mountains (2160 m) near heavily populated Lake Sentani in the east, as well as the pristine forests of the Foya mountains. The northern watershed of the central cordillera forms the Lakes Plain – a vast system of swamps and meander-belts between the central mountains and the north coast, which is drained from the east by the Taritatu (Idenburg) river, and from the west by the Taritau (Rouffaer) river. These two rivers converge to form Irian Jaya's largest river, the Mamberamo, which slices through gorges in the coastal mountain blocks to empty northward into a swampy delta in the Pacific Ocean. Though the massive cascades of the Mamberamo had been bypassed before, Matthew Stirling's expedition accomplished the feat of using an amphibious airplane to survey the route progressively further up the Mamberamo, then still further to explore the Mamberamo's Rouffaer (Taritau) tributary to the westernmost Lakes Plains. The airplane itself did not survive long in the jungle environment\(^4\), and the actual movement of the expedition upriver (after the initial surveying of the route, and movement of some supplies upriver) was mostly by canoe up the Mamberamo to its Rouffaer river tributary, then by hiking uphill into the central highlands, to the home of the Dem tribe.

The lake plains and mountain blocks of Irian's northern watershed, explored by Matthew Stirling in 1926, contrast dramatically with the more expansive lowlands to the south of the Central Dividing Range, explored by previous expeditions also looking for “pygmy” populations of the interior, such as the expeditions recounted in the books by Wollaston (1912) or Rawling (1913), cited by Stirling as a source of his inspiration in his draft introductory materials. The coastal plains descend from the central mountains with a much gentler slope, sliding along the parallel lines of innumerable rivers which, arriving at low elevations, converge and split again forming wide, slow-moving, meandering, silt-depositing waterways, often through vast swamplands or seasonal lakes as well as spectacular lowland rainforest, then finally reach the sea and mix with it to become the brackish-water habitat of the mangrove swamp. Petocz (1989:20-23) points out that these lowland rainforests, swamps, and mangrove areas all have a rich species diversity. Here tribal peoples such as the Asmat and the Korowai make their home. Indigenous tending (though not strict cultivation) of the sago palm undoubtedly has helped establish within these areas of southern New Guinea the world's most extensive sago palm forests, scattered throughout shallow freshwater swampy areas.

Within this range of habitats on the island of New Guinea, from coastal swamps to snow-capped equatorial peaks, from 0 to almost 5000 m elevation, lives Indonesia's richest concentration of plant life. Mainland New Guinea holds an estimated 16,000 species of plants, as well as more than 200 species of land animals, over 700 species of birds, perhaps 6000-7000 species of fish, and perhaps 80,000-100,000 insect species (Petocz 1989:29-34).

\(^4\) A forlorn last photo of the plane was taken on July 15, 1926, perched on a bank near the expedition’s Batavia camp, after the glue had dissolved on the pontoons making it inoperable. Despite the title of Stirling’s lecture tour (and of this publication), the majority of the expedition took place without any use of an airplane, though that innovative craft had determined the route and made the expedition possible.
Western New Guinea’s indigenous cultural diversity, measured by the number of languages spoken per unit of area, is among the world's highest, though defining units of measurement is obviously not so standardized as for biological species. Generally, there is no more agreed-upon way of counting ethnic groups than by counting languages. Estimates of languages spoken in in western New Guinea range widely, from around 100 to about 250. These apparent differences merely arise because of alternative ways analysts can draw the language-dialect boundary, which determines whether we consider two speech communities to be speaking different languages or different dialects of the same language. For example, Indonesian government sources such as the Indonesian Language Development Project cite an estimate of approximately 350 languages in all of Indonesia. By contrast, Grimes (1988) lists 669 living and 3 known extinct languages in Indonesia, of which she itemizes 248 living languages and 1 extinct language (Mapia, formerly spoken on the island of that name in Cenderawasih Bay) from Irian Jaya province (i.e. western New Guinea, including its offshore islands). Clearly this region has nurtured a wealth of linguistic diversity, which can be considered a measure of its ethnic or cultural diversity. An excellent source of information with an estimate of number of current speakers of every western New Guinea language, and an ethnolinguistic map against which the route of the 1926 expedition can be compared, is provided by Silzer and Clouse (1991).

New Guinea's ecological diversity and difficult terrain have sometimes been put forward to explain its cultural diversity, just as it provided many “refugia,” or regions protected by their isolation, for plant and animal species. By this explanation, western New Guinea's impressive cultural diversity is partly due to the physical isolation of its component regions (which obstructed mass migrations, conquests, etc.) or perhaps partly due to parallel variations in fauna and flora, which provide diverse “niches” for separate human populations. Such generalizations are appealing and may be correct, but are difficult to test. Still, the remoteness and difficult physiography of New Guinea's interior have always diminished trade and contact, let alone centralized political control. In a few remote areas, tribal groups are still virtually independent of higher-level authorities. Throughout the region there are peoples who have faced abrupt and bewildering social, political, and technological changes in only the last one or two generations – a process that, for many local communities along the Mamberamo, Rouffaer, and through the Moni and Dem regions, began with the 1926 joint expedition of Matthew Stirling and his scientific counterparts representing the Dutch East Indies government as it first contacted its new subjects in the interior of this island.
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APPENDICES TO ESSAY 3

Western New Guinea: The Geographical and Ethnographic Context of the 1926 Dutch and American Expedition

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The appendices presented here are documents from M.W. Stirling papers in the Smithsonian’s National Anthropological Archives. All are clearly unfinished drafts.

The first document, though its author is unknown, seems to be a list of reasons why the expedition journal should be published. This might be a draft list, made by Stirling or someone else (indeed its style is different from the style of writing in the other three documents and in the journal itself) to outline the reasons why this journal should be published. The second document seems to be the most finished draft of an Editor’s Foreword, and (though no author is stated) is probably by Stirling. The third document provided here gives another version of a draft Foreword, much longer but incomplete. It exists in two incomplete typed versions of the document, each having different handwritten modifications in Stirling’s own handwriting, plus one more complete version of the same text written entirely in Stirling’s hand (thus presumably the basis from which the typed versions were derived). The version presented here constitutes a transcription of the written text, modified as noted by (presumably subsequent) handwritten modifications of the typed text.

The fourth appendix consists of the detailed notes for a speech that Matthew Stirling delivered at the 604th meeting of the Anthropological Society of Washington, on March 27, 1927. It is included here, even though nothing directly connects it to his journal, because it largely follows the outline of materials he had prepared for other introductory essays for his journal.
Appendix 1 of Essay 3

[List of reasons to publish the journal]

Short untitled document. Typed. 1 page. Author uncertain.

This single typed page relating to Stirling’s field journal is different in content from any other in the National Anthropological Archives’s “Stirling Papers.” From the typeface and paper, it seems to have been typed by the same person who typed Stirling’s journal and some other documents within the Stirling papers in this archive.

The document consists of a list of arguments for why this “raw” type of journal or diary format could be considered superior to a more polished one.

Its style is more that of a public relations or sensationalized press statement, perhaps like a publisher’s blurb on the back cover of a paperback; and it is possible that someone prepared this brief, somewhat sensational piece as dustjacket or back cover material for a book. The document itself is shown in the attached Figure:
The diary form in which this record is cast will be found to contain certain elements marking a decided deviation from the typical composed book ordinarily written to surmise the results of such expeditions. A certain vividness is obtained in transcribing events as pages a the of their actual occurrence, a vividness which is inevitably lost in any subsequent recollection. This diary has a certain informal intimacy composed of these elements.

First, the leader of such an expedition has quick decisions to be made. He must make his plans and he must re-adjust them to emergencies. Watch his thoughts meet his problems and solve them.

Secondly, these problems, major and minor, contain decided elements of suspense. Wait tensely with him for their outcome.

Third, let his alert senses record for you the sights and sounds of this wild exotic jungle. See the shifting scenes which mark the progress of the expedition.

Fourth, watch the humorist and wit in this man enjoy the comedy-drama of stone-age culture in its first contact with civilized man.

Fifth, watch the thinker adjust the novel to the known. Appreciate his sane perspective.

Figure 1 (Appendix to Essay 3). Document listing reasons to publish the Journal in diary form.
The diary form in which this record is cast will be found to contain certain elements marking a pleasing variation from the typical composed book ordinarily written to summarize the results of such expeditions. A certain vividness is obtained in transcribing events on paper on the day of their actual occurrence, a vividness which is inevitably lost in any subsequent recording. This diary has a certain informal intimacy composed of these elements.

First; the leader of such an expedition has quick decisions to be made. He must make his plans and he must re-adjust them to emergencies. Watch his thoughts meet his problems and solve them.

Secondly; these problems, major and minor, contain decided elements of suspense. Wait tensely with him for their outcome.

Third; let his alert senses record for you the sights and sounds of this wild exotic jungle. See the shifting scenes which mark the progress of the expedition.

Fourth; watch the humorist and wit in this man enjoy the comedy-drama of stone age culture in its first contact with civilized man.

Fifth; watch the thinker adjust the novel to the known. Appreciate his sane perspective.
Appendix 2 of Essay 3

“MATERIAL FOR EDITOR’S FOREWORD”

Typed. 2 pages.
Anonymous (presumably by Matthew W. Stirling)

This document is almost certainly written by Stirling, and typed by the same person who typed Stirling’s journal and the other documents located with it. Unlike the document in Appendix 1, which advertises the form and style of writing, this is meant to give an introduction to the content, and especially to introduce the members of the expedition.

MATERIAL FOR EDITOR’S FOREWARD

The writer of the following article was formerly assistant curator in charge of the Division of Ethnology of the United States National Museum. During the year 1925, being interested in the problem of pygmies in the Netherlands New Guinea, he organized an expedition, the purpose of which was to penetrate the unexplored regions of the Nassau mountains. In the hopes of overcoming many of the physical difficulties of the country, a high powered airplane of modern construction was obtained, with Mr. H.H. Hoyte as pilot, and Mr. A.E. Hamer as chief mechanic. An up to date motion picture equipment was part of the expedition, and the photography was ably taken care of by Mr. R.K. Peck. The other member of the party was Mr. S.A. Hedberg, historian of the expedition, who, with Mr. Peck, assisted the writer in the work of organization.

When the expedition arrived in Java the Indian Committee for Scientific Research, becoming interested in the project, joined forces with the Americans and co-operated in obtaining the services of 130 Dyaks from Central Borneo as river men and carriers. The scientific personnel of the expedition was enlarged by the addition of Dr. Docteurs [sic] van Leeuwen, director of the famous Botanical Gardens at Buitenzorg, Java, and Mr. C.C.F.M. le Roux, cartographer and ethnologist of the Batavia Museum.

The Netherlands Colonial government extended every courtesy possible to aid in furthering the work of the expedition, and thro [sic] the departments of war and Navy, furnished more than 200 Malay convict coolies, a detachment of 75 native Ambonese soldiers, and transportation for this large personnel to New Guinea and return. The military officers accompanying the expedition were Capt. Posthumous [sic] in charge of transportation, assisted by Lieuts. Jordans and Kortemann, [sic] and Capt. Hoffman, medical officer, assisted by Lieut. Wirtz.
The expedition sailed from Java in April, 1926, under the official title of “The Netherlands-American Scientific Expedition To [sic] the Nassau Mountains of South Central New Guinea.”

A tragic feature of the trip was the death of Mr. Hoyte, the pilot, who, after accomplishing one of the most difficult flying feats on record, died of typhoid fever in Egypt while returning home.
Appendix 3 of Essay 3

Untitled Foreword material.

Handwritten (1 draft) and typed (portions of at least 2 incomplete drafts, with handwritten modifications).
20 handwritten pages; and also
19 typed pages (including duplicate pages).

This Foreword is much longer, and less finished, than the document in Appendix 2. The handwritten draft is in Stirling’s own hand, and has many markings, deletions and interlineations; and at least two typed transcriptions of this have additional markings in Stirling’s hand. This Foreword goes further than the previous one; Stirling not only introduces the characters on this expedition, but also gives a brief geographic setting, a short history of the expedition, and some acknowledgements.

The handwritten document begins: “Lying north of Australia, sprawled across the map live some great prehistoric monster with open mouth, facing towards the west, is the island of New Guinea.” The typed documents begin: “Lying north of Australia, sprawled across the map like some great prehistoric monster with open mouth facing the west, is the island of New Guinea.” The two changes in this example (deleting the comma after “mouth” and the word “towards”) leave the handwritten sentence essentially intact. The typed documents continue as transcripts of the handwritten draft, with very few changes. However, the typed documents are incomplete, with some pages missing, though there are at least two copies (with separate markings). All versions (typed and handwritten) are clearly unfinished, even leaving blanks for names (e.g. “Mr. [blank] Governor of the Moluccas...”).

Since the handwritten version is the most complete (thus presumably the basis from which the incomplete typed versions were derived), and in Stirling’s hand, the version presented here constitutes a transcription of the handwritten text.

Lying north of Australia, sprawled across the map like some great prehistoric monster with open mouth, facing towards the west, is the island of New Guinea. With the exception of Australia, it is the largest island in the world. Fifteen hundred miles in length and more than five hundred miles in breadth, it is today less known than any other habitable area of equal size on the globe.

Because of its position just beneath the equator, it is a region of heavy rainfall and practically the entire surface of the island is cloaked with a dense tropical jungle.

Politically the island is divided into two parts, the eastern portion being under British and Australian control while the western half is owned by Holland. This latter portion is at the present time is very little known. The central portions of Netherlands New Guinea consists of a large, low swampy plain, extending from east to west, which was formerly the bed of a huge fresh water lake. This plain is bordered on the north by the van Rees Mountains, a low rugged range some 75 miles in width. On the south the plain is flanked by the snow clad Nassau Mountains, a great range forming the backbone...
of the island culminating in the Carstenz top, 16,000 feet above the level of the sea. The central lake plain is drained by two large rivers, the Idenberg flowing from the east, and the van der Willigen-Rouffaer flowing from the west, joining to form the Mamberamo, this river system comprising the largest single drainage basin in New Guinea. From the junction of the Idenberg and van der Willigen rivers, the Mamberamo flows due north. Breaking through a gorge in the van Rees Mountains, it pursues its course through a series of cascades, finally emerging into the northern coast plain through which it winds its way until it discharges its debris laden waters into the Pacific at Cape D'Urville. The rapids of the van Rees Mountains constitute a bar to navigation and have constituted the greatest individual barrier to the exploration of the interior of Dutch Netherlands New Guinea.  

In the swampy lowlands, overland transportation is practically an impossibility while in the mountains it is slow and difficult. The streams which form the natural means of ingress to the country are frequently filled with rapids or choked with logs, greatly increasing the difficulty of canoe transport.

Inhabiting the jungles of the low plains and the region of the van Rees Mountains are many savage tribes of Papuans; those inhabiting the central lake plain living representing probably the in a pure stone age culture and representing the stone age and representing the most primitive culture on earth today.

The presence of negrito peoples entirely living in the great Nassau range, has long been suspected by scientists anthropologists. The first discovery that brought to the notice of the scientific world to the existence of true pygmies in New Guinea was that made by the expedition sent out by the British Ornithological Society under Captain Rawling in 1910. At the headwaters of the Kapare River, one of the many streams draining the southern slopes of the Nassau Mountains, they encountered a small group of pygmies whom they named the Tapiro. Because of many unforeseen difficulties encountered by the expedition, they were unable to pursue their discoveries and were compelled to return without having made a study of these interesting people.

In 1920 a Dutch military expedition found a large population of a similar people inhabiting the rugged valleys north of the Wilhelmina Top in the eastern portion of Dutch territory. This expedition accomplished a great deal towards casting light in the eastern Nassau Mountains, but returned leaving the western half still unknown. This, the greatest unknown blank spot on the map of New Guinea was the objective of the present expedition.

When we had completed the comparatively easy but exciting rapid fast trip back to our through down stream through the rapids to our base camp, we had the opportunity to sum up the results of the expedition.

We had obtained our objective, which was the discovery of the pygmies inhabiting the Nassau Mountains in the region of the Carstenz Top. We had filled in on the map a large portion of the blank area formerly existing here.

We had made anthropological and ethnological studies not only of the pygmies but of several Papuan tribes as well, and have made collections comprising more than 10,000 ethnological specimens representing the last great stone age culture of the world. We had made botanical studies & collections in a region as new to the biologist as to the anthropologist.
During the time we had been among the pygmies and Papuans we had taken more than 20,000 feet of motion pictures illustrating their customs and mode of living, and approximately 2000 still pictures as a permanent record of a culture.

We had taken the first aeroplane into Netherlands New Guinea and had flown more than 3000 miles in the interior without accident, demonstrating the practicability of this method of reconnaissance and transportation in exploration work.

Although these goals were obtained at the cost of considerable money and human life, it is as a tribute to the work of the medical men of the expedition, it is worthy to note that there was the lowest rate of fatalities on record for any large New Guinea expedition in what is unquestionably one of the most unhealthy and inhabitable regions of the world.

The account following is a personal narrative of the expedition. It consists of the daily record of the expedition; each entry being written under the date of the events occurring. It was the original intention of the author in presenting a popular account of the expedition to rewrite the incidents of the trip in orthodox style. Friends who read the daily record insisted that it should be published exactly as written in the field, on the grounds that the freshness of impressions so recorded gave to the journal a vividness and an intimacy that would inevitably be lost in any attempt at chapter head rewriting.

As will probably soon become evident to the reader, no attempt has been made to put literary style into the entries - and so they are represented in their original crudity. If it has the effect of carrying the reader with the expedition, sharing its hardships, its fun, and its suspense the writer is willing that his reputation as a litterateur may suffer.

Excepting all scientific technicalities have been omitted, the diary having been written with no intention of its publication, purely as a personal record by the writer under the auspices of Smithsonian Institution for the purpose of making anthropological studies of the natives in this region and the gathering of an ethnological collection for the United States National Museum.

The personnel of the expedition in addition to the writer consisted of M. R. K. Peck.

It was believed that a good aeroplane would be of considerable use for reconnaissance purposes and for the transportation of supplies to the interior. For this purpose, a Yackey-Brequet aeroplane with a 400 H.P. Liberty Motor was procured. Hans Hoyte, chief pilot of the Yackey Company, accompanied the expedition as pilot, and Albert Hamer as chief mechanic. The later results obtained from the aeroplane proved these men to have been an excellent selection. The death of Mr. Hoyte in Alexandria, Egypt from typhoid fever, while returning from Java was a tragic feature of the expedition.

Richard K. Peck accompanied the expedition as photographer and assistant aeroplane mechanic. Working under the most trying conditions, the excellent photographic and motion picture record of the expedition are the result of his skill.

Mr. Stanley Hedberg, the fifth member of the American party assisted the writer in the work of organization and accompanied the expedition as historian.

As originally conceived, the expedition was to have been comprised of this number together with such officials as the Dutch Colonial government wished to accompany the party, in addition to the necessary group of carriers. With a limited party,
it was hoped that many of the difficulties and hardships encountered in overland travel could be overcome by using the plane to bring the members of the expedition and their necessary supplies, inland. It was deemed best to reserve final decision on the location of the base camp and the route to be followed inland, until arrival in Java where information could be had which could not be obtained in America.

Upon arriving in Java, the Indian committee for Scientific Research became interested in the expedition and joined forces with the Americans, making the expedition a cooperative venture with the title of “The Netherlands American Expedition to the Nassau Mountains of Netherlands New Guinea”, the Dutch party to be under the leadership of Dr. W. M. Docters van Leeuwen, director of the famous Botanical Gardens at Buitenzorg, Java, who accompanied the expedition as botanist and entomologist. As his fitness for this position requires no comment, as his status as the leading contemporary botanist of the East Indies is well known.

Mr. C. C. F. M. le Roux of the Batavia Museum accompanied the expedition as cartographer and ethnographer. As secretary for the Indian Committee, it was principally the plan of procedure for the expedition as later followed, was the work of Mr. le Roux. Eighteen years in the East Indies as army officer, map maker, pioneer road builder and ethnologist, the work of Mr. le Roux had carried him to all parts of the archipelago. This experience combined with a natural enterprise and force rarely to be found, made him an ideal addition to the party. It was his untiring efforts during the days of preparation in Java that made possible the speedy departure of the expedition.

The Colonial Military department furnished the expedition with an escort of native soldiers, principally from Ambon and Manado, under the direction of five Dutch officers. In command of the military detachment was Captain Posthumus, who had charge of transportation for the expedition as well as its military protection. Capt. Posthumus is an officer with long experience in several of the more remote East Indian islands, and a fine record of exploration work in the interior of Borneo. As his assistant was chosen Lieut. Jordans, an officer whose record in the jungles of Sumatra, winning him won for him decorations from his government, and who was selected because of his proven record for courage and resourcefulness.

New Guinea is unquestionably one of the most unhealthy spots on the globe and an adequate medical detachment is indispensable. In charge of this important work was Capt. Hoffmann, an army doctor with having years of experience with tropical maladies and knowledge of methods of working in the field jungles. Later, after the expedition was in the field, Lieut. Wirtz was sent from his station at Ambon as assistant to Dr. Hoffmann.

For an expedition consisting of more than 400 men, the problems of handling supplies is of great importance. This work was placed under the capable direction of Lieut. Korteman. The supplies for the expedition were drawn from the military warehouses in Java. In the humid climate of New Guinea, all foodstuffs must be sealed in air tight tins, and great care must be taken in their selection, as they must be balanced in such manner as to prevent beri-beri and similar diet deficiency diseases which are so often the scourge of expeditions in the tropics where the problem of portability makes rice and dried meats and fish the staple food articles.

Two hundred Malay convicts were furnished to the expedition as coolie carriers and they too were under the charge of the military detachment. These men were
especially selected with regard for their fitness for the arduous work ahead of them. Natives from the island of Madura predominated, although among the convicts were representatives from most of the islands in the Dutch archipelago.

Finest of all the native peoples of the East Indies are the Dyaks of Borneo. Because of their ability at handling canoes in dangerous rapids, their tireless strength as carriers on difficult mountain trails and their general resourcefulness in the jungle they may be considered as practically indispensable for expedition work of this nature. With the co-operation of the Dutch resident in Borneo, seventy mountain Dyaks were recruited and sent to Maccassar where they were picked up by the expedition. Later, as the need for additional canoes on the transport line became evident, sixty more Dyaks joined the first group, making a total of 130 with the expedition.

The two radio sets were brought by the expedition, one furnished by the army and the other by the navy department; the latter set in charge of Sergeant Hayes, assisted by Corporal Becker who also assisted in the operation of the two motor boats supplied to the expedition by the navy department.

Transportation for this large personnel was furnished by government steamers. During the course of the expedition the steamers Fomalhout, Albatross, Swallow and Wega, were put into use, as well as the K.P.M. steamship Von Noord. The Wega, used as the private steamer of the governor general was courteously supplied at the close of the expedition to bring the scientific staff of the expedition from Albatross camp to Batavia. This generous cooperation on the part of the Dutch government was the principal item making possible the conduct of the expedition on a large scale.

As this book was intended for popular distribution the writer would take this opportunity to express his thanks and appreciation to the many friends and officials of the American and Netherlands governments who assisted in making the expedition possible.

The late Dr. Chas. D. Wolcott, secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, Dr. C. G. Abbott, acting secretary and Dr. Alexander Wetmore assistant secretary, were of the greatest assistance in laying the plans of the expedition and Dr. Walter Hough, curator of the Department of Anthropology at the United States National Museum, were of the greatest assistance in their sympathy with the project and making possible the carrying out of the preliminary plans of the expedition.

Through the offices of Assistant Secretary of State, Harrison and Castle, negotiations were carried on with Netherlands officials through the American Ambassador Tobias of at the Hague and permission secured for the conduct of the expedition in Dutch territory. The writer and his assistants were also rendered every courtesy by the Netherlands Ambassador to Washington Mr. [blank] whom we again had the pleasure of meeting in Java as Governor General of the Netherlands East Indies, where he was once more of the greatest assistance to us, furnishing his private steamship the “Wega” for transporting the scientific staff of the expedition from New Guinea to Java. Just as [blank] did all in his power to insure the best possible results for the expedition during the latter part of its work, so did his predecessor H.E.[blank] Foch during the period of organization and departure of the expedition from Java. The work of the Americans in particular was facilitated by his waiving of all formalities which would ordinarily be required of foreigners and placing offering any services we might require from the Colonial government.
His excellency Admiral Gosseus similarly placed at our disposal such services as could be rendered by the Navy department. Among these services might be mentioned the use of the Naval Air Station at Soerabaia, commanded by Col—where the Ern, the aeroplane of the expedition was assembled by Hoyte, Hamer and Peck where every facility and courtesy was supplied to them by the air station Commander Col [blank] and his staff of officers.

The radio equipment and motor boats furnished the expedition by the Navy department have already been mentioned.

During the ten day visit of the expedition at Ambon are the result of the many courtesies and fine fellowship extended to our party by Capt.[blank] of the cruiser Java and the officers of his fleet under his command, whose visit to Ambon coincided with our own.

Special thanks are due to Naval Lieutenant 1st class, LACM Doorman, who as a member of the military expedition to New Guinea in 1914 was assigned the task of exploring the Rouffaer river and mapping the territory lying in the neighborhood of its headwaters where he made observations from the peak which now appropriately bears his name. As it was primarily the object of the expedition to retrace the route of Doorman and to extend further his explorations, his advice and information were invaluable in making preparations for the expedition. His maps and personal recollections of conditions to be encountered were used as the basis on which the transport was to proceed. Not only did Lieut. Doorman give every personal courtesy possible to the writer and his companions as well, but his interest in the welfare of the expedition was such that he succeeded Mr. le Roux, who accompanied the expedition, as secretary for the Indian Committee, in which capacity he bore the brunt of attending to the needs of the expedition during its absence.

[blank] the governor of the Moluccas, under whose jurisdiction is the territory of Netherlands New Guinea, likewise extended in a practical way every courtesy and assistance reasonably within his power.

The K.P.M. steamship company who have always maintained a praiseworthy interest in all matters which might assist in the development of the East Indian Colonies, likewise not only rendered courteous service to the expedition, but as is their custom with scientific parties gave greatly reduced rates on their steamers.

Finally the writer would like to express his appreciation to the members of the Indian Committee for Scientific Research, who as partners in the conduct of the expedition, did all in their power as a group and as individuals to bring about the complete success of the expedition.

During three months spent in Java making final preparations for departure the writer and his companions were frequent recipients of the hospitality of Mr. Chas L. Hoover and of Mr. Clark B. Kuykendall, American consuls at Batavia, who with Mrs. Hoover were most successful at making pleasant the visit of their fellow countrymen in a strange land, and who in their official capacity always rendered the expedition such assistance as required.

It is the regret that space prevents mentioning the many friends in Batavia and Soerabaia who with characteristic Dutch hospitality made pleasant our recollections of Java.
References cited

Rawling, Cecil Godfrey

Wollaston, Alexander Frederick Richmond
This fourth appendix consists of the detailed report of a speech that Matthew Stirling delivered at the 604th meeting of the Anthropological Society of Washington, on March 27, 1927. It is included here, even though nothing directly connects it to his journal, because it largely follows the outline of materials he had prepared for other introductory essays for his journal. For example, it begins with similar language: “A few miles north of Australia, in latitudes 0 – 10 and longitudes 130-140, lies the largest known island in the world. It is New Guinea.” Like the longer Foreword, this speech goes on to provide a brief history of the expedition and thus can also serve as an introduction to the source material. However, here Stirling (who undoubtedly reviewed, and probably wrote, this detailed report) is not primarily preparing an introduction to the journal, nor does he introduce the other expedition members. He does provide a summary of his understanding of the ethnography of the Papuan groups and Pygmies met by the expedition.


A few miles north of Australia, in latitudes 0 – 10 and longitudes 130 – 140, lies the largest known island in the world. It is New Guinea. The interior of the island is unknown as it has never been completely mapped or penetrated. In 1911 two Dutch military expeditions went up the Rouffaer River in the north, penetrating to the central mountains. Little, however, was accomplished by this group, due to the hostility of the natives and the almost inaccessible nature of the country.

The purpose of the expedition under Mr. Stirling’s leadership was three-fold, namely, map-making; to complete the knowledge of the country; and, a study of the peoples inhabiting this region. Mr. Stirling’s group was scientifically outfitted; motor boats and an aeroplane were used as means of transportation.

Entrance was effected from the northern coast, thence up the Rouffaer River which is bounded by an almost impenetrable jungle on either side. This leads to the central range which is called the Nassau Mountains, one of the greatest ranges in the world. Between this range and the Van Rees[e] mountains lies a great lake plain which is
a swampy jungle clad region. As the Rouffaer passes through the Nassau Mountains[,] it becomes rough and full of rapids, making the manipulation of canoes almost impossible; it can indeed, be done only by the Dyaks of Central Borneo, of whom a major portion of the expedition’s forces were composed.

The island is inhabited mainly by Papuans, of which three distinct groups were visited. Those of the coast, those of the great lake plain, and the group inhabiting the Van Reese Mountains. The coast[al] Papuans have long woolly mop-like hair. The inhabitants of the Van Reese Mountains wear their hair in plaits hanging down the back or coiled on top of the head. The Lake plain natives wear their hair short and clipped closed to the skull excepting for a tuft on top of the head. The group inhabiting the lake plain are larger in stature than the previous groups. They are very Savage, with the crudest culture. They are tempermentally unstable and distrust everyone. The expedition saw but little of the home-life of this group, and little or nothing of the women. The main article of dress is a belt of braided palm fiber[,] occasionally with an apron suspended in front and behind. The principal article of food is sage.

The foothill region after leaving the lake plain and entering the Nassau Mountains is uninhabited for a distance of about thirty miles. After passing this belt[,] the Negrito peoples are encountered. They are a pigmy race, the average height of the men is 152 centimeters and that of the women 145 centimeters; as compared to the average height of the white man[,] which is 165 centimeters.

A permanent camp was established at Tombay, located in the interior of the Nassau Mountains. The peoples were very hospitable, and did not even exhibit the shyness usually attributed to primitive people upon the first sight of white men. They treated all members of the expedition alike; gave the same amount of food to the members of the staff and the Malay convicts, (of which there were about 200 on the expedition.) There seemed to be no caste distinction whatever.

Each village or group was self-sufficient, raising all the vegetable food in a community plot located on the steep hill sides. All are treated impartially, and all have to contribute to the work. The women plant the crops, the men build the fences to keep the wild boars out, and keep the jungle growth cut down. Besides these duties they hunt, and build the houses. Even the cooking is done at a community fire in the center of the village. They have an advanced system of agriculture, of which the staples are: sweet potatoes, sugar cane, taro root, bananas and lemons. They have a loose type of clan organization, groups related by blood; and between clans there are frequent wars which really amount to nothing more than family feuds. The people themselves were of quiet even temperament and easy to get along with. They are polygamists in theory and monogamists in practice, due to the fact that the men outnumber the women three to one. The causes of this numerical inequality of the sexes the expedition was unable to ascertain. They are smokers; both sexes and even the children. Tobacco was evidently introduced at an early date, and in[,] now cultivated in the community plot. It is smoked in pipes, and also in cigarette and cigar form. Their only weapons are the bow and arrow; they do not have spears or blow-guns.

They believe in some form of immortality, but the details of their religious concepts were hard to investigate, as they were very reluctant to discuss anything concerning these matters. The pigmies[,] bury their dead while the Papuans have a
platform burial near the house of the deceased; and after the body reaches a certain stage of decomposition the jaw bone is hung from the platform, and the skull and long bones are hung from the rafters of the home of the deceased. The religion of the whole area is undoubtedly animistic and is dominated by a belief in ghosts.

They have a definite medium of exchange, and have names for numerical abstractions up to ten which correspond to the names of the fingers of the hands. This does not necessarily mean that they cannot count beyond ten, but that they have names for the numbers up to ten only. Their most valuable medium of exchange is the cowry shell, which reaches the interior mountains in very small quantities; one cowry shell is equal to the value of one full grown pig, etc. The next unit of exchange of less value than the cowry shell is a rare species of pink seed. The smallest unit of exchange is the tail of the cuscus, a small marsupial [sic, = marsupial].

Their medicinal practices insofar as the expedition was able to ascertain are almost nil. The most characteristic diseases are a form of leprosy and goiter, which many of the women are especially noted as having. Scrofula is prevalent among the Papuans.

On March 17, 1927, Mr. Matthew W. Stirling, who had just returned from his several months’ exploring expedition among the pygmy and other native peoples of Dutch New Guinea, gave an address upon “Recent Explorations in Dutch New Guinea”. The interior of the island is largely unknown as it has never been completely mapped or penetrated. The purpose of the expedition under Mr. Stirling’s leadership was three-fold: the making of maps; completion of the knowledge of the country; and a study of the peoples inhabiting this region. The expedition was scientifically outfitted, and motor boats and an aeroplane were used as means of transportation. Entrance was effected from the northern coast, thence up the Rouffaer River, to the central range known as the Nassau Mountains, one of the greatest ranges of the world.

The island is inhabited mainly by Papuans, of which three distinct groups are noted, those of the coast, those of the great Lake plain, and those of the Van Reese Mountains. The foothill region, after leaving the Lake plain, is uninhabited for a distance of about thirty miles. After encountering [sic] passing this belt, the Negrito peoples are encountered. The average height of the men is 152 cm, that of the women 145 cm.

A permanent camp was established at Tombay [sic, = Tombe], located in the interior of the Nassau Mountains. The people have an advanced system of agriculture, of which the staples are: sweet potatoes, sugar cane, taro root, bananas, and lemons. They have a loose type of clan organization. They are polygamists in theory and monogamists in practice. They believe in some form of immortality, but their religious concepts were hard to investigate, as they were very reluctant to discuss anything concerning these matters. The pygmies bury their dead, while the Papuans have a platform burial near the home of the deceased.