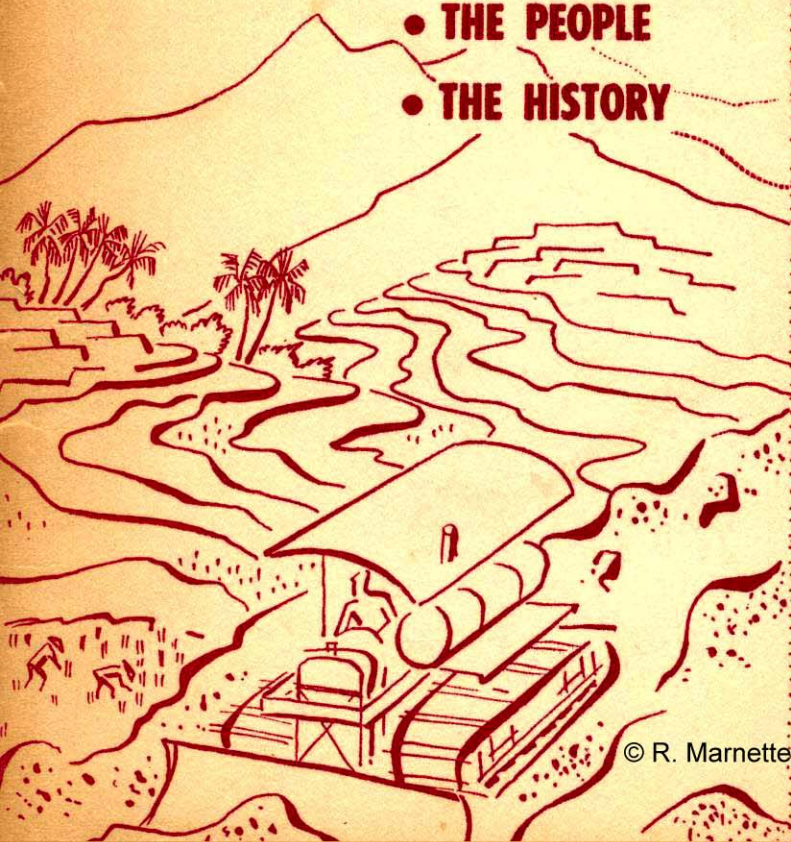


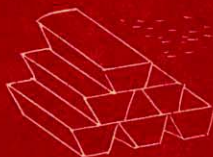
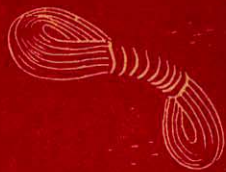
**The
Republic
of**

INDONESIA

- THE COUNTRY
- THE PEOPLE
- THE HISTORY



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**THE COUNTRY
THE PEOPLE
THE HISTORY**

REPUBLIC
of
INDONESIA

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PREFACE

The most recent addition to the world's family of nations is the Republic of Indonesia.

Centuries-old in culture, Indonesia has existed as a free and democratic state only since August 17, 1945. (International *de jure* recognition did not come until December 27, 1949, when the Government of the Netherlands legally transferred sovereignty to the Indonesians.)

On the former date, the freedom of the Indonesian people and the sovereignty of the fledgling Republic were proclaimed to the world by Soekarno and Mohammed Hatta, the nationalist leaders who had become, respectively, President and Vice-President.

The new state was thus suddenly thrust upon the stage of world events and during the ensuing five-year struggle to preserve the new-found independence, Indonesia became the daily subject of foreign editors the world over.

Confronted with the sudden global importance of what had formerly been an obscure colony in far-off Asia, readers began asking: "Who are the Indonesians?" . . . "Where is Indonesia?"

This booklet has been prepared as a partial answer to those questions.

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PRESIDENT SOEKARNO



VICE-PRESIDENT MOHAMMED HATTA



COAT OF ARMS
REPUBLIC OF INDONESIA

INDONESIAN COAT OF ARMS

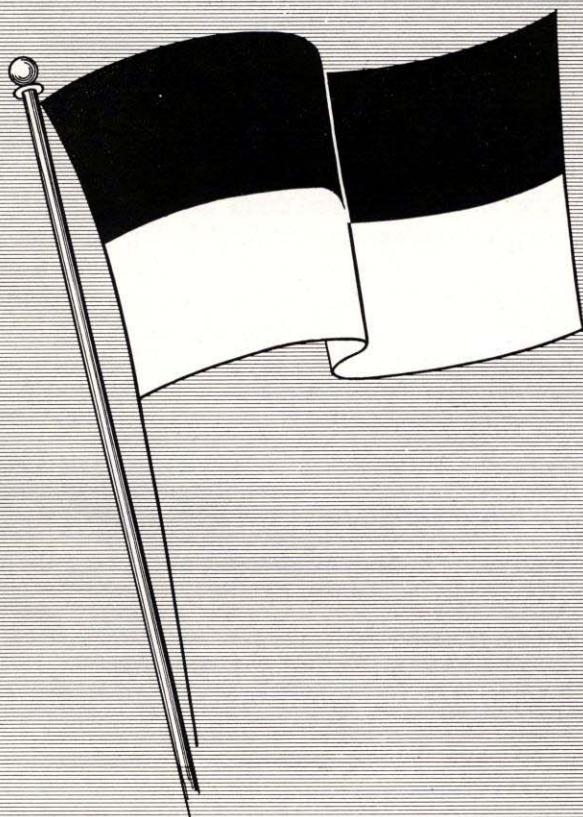
The National Coat of Arms of the Republic of Indonesia symbolizes the Indonesian people and country, their history and characteristics.

The gold-colored garuda (a mythical, eagle-like bird) is the dominant figure in the design and represents the awakened strength of Indonesia and its Golden Victory.

The chain and shield suspended from the garuda's neck are symbolic of the struggle to achieve and defend Indonesia's freedom. On the red and white shield—colors of the Indonesian flag—are five symbols representing "Pantja-Sila," the five principles upon which the Indonesian State is founded. Thus the star in the center stands for the first principle, Divine Omnipotence; the circular steel chain for Humanity; the banyan tree represents National Consciousness; the head of the wild bull signifies Democracy; and the rice and cotton stalks denote Social Justice. The horizontal line bisecting the shield symbolizes the Equator, which the Republic straddles.

The garuda's eight tail feathers, and the 17 feathers in each wing, respectively signify the month and date which marked the beginning of Indonesia's freedom; i.e., August 17, 1945.

Finally, on the scroll held by the garuda's claws are the words, "Bhinneka Tunggal Ika," or "Unity through Diversity." (Literally, "Bhinneka Tunggal Ika" is "Many Remain One," a motto coined by the thirteenth century Indonesian poet, Empu Tantular.)



**FLAG
of the
REPUBLIC of INDONESIA**

Colors: Red and White Length: 5 Units Width: 3 Units

PANTJA-SILA

The Pantja-Sila (*pronounced: pan'cha see'la*) are the five principles representing the basic state philosophy of Indonesia, the guiding principles upon which the Republic has been built.

These principles were forged by Dr. Soekarno during the Japanese Occupation, and first expounded when he delivered his historic address to the Preparatory Committee for Indonesian Independence on June 1, 1945— two and a half months before the Indonesian Declaration of Independence.

The following excerpts have been taken from that address to illuminate each of the principles:

I. Divine Omnipotence

"The Indonesian State shall be a State where every man can worship God in freedom. The Christian should worship God according to the teachings of Jesus Christ, Moslems according to the teachings of the Prophet Mohammed, (and) Buddhists should discharge their religious rites according to their own books."

II. Humanitarianism, or Internationalism

"... do not say that the Indonesian nation is the noblest and most perfect, do not belittle other peoples. We must aim at the unity and brotherhood of the whole world ... one family out of all the nations of the world."

III. Nationalism

"The State is not for an autocracy, not for an aristocracy, not for a plutocracy, but 'all for all.'"

IV. Democracy

"To achieve this, to provide a strong basis for the Indonesian State, a Representative Government, a Government by Consent, is essential."

V. Social Justice, or Prosperity

"... that there be no poverty in free Indonesia."

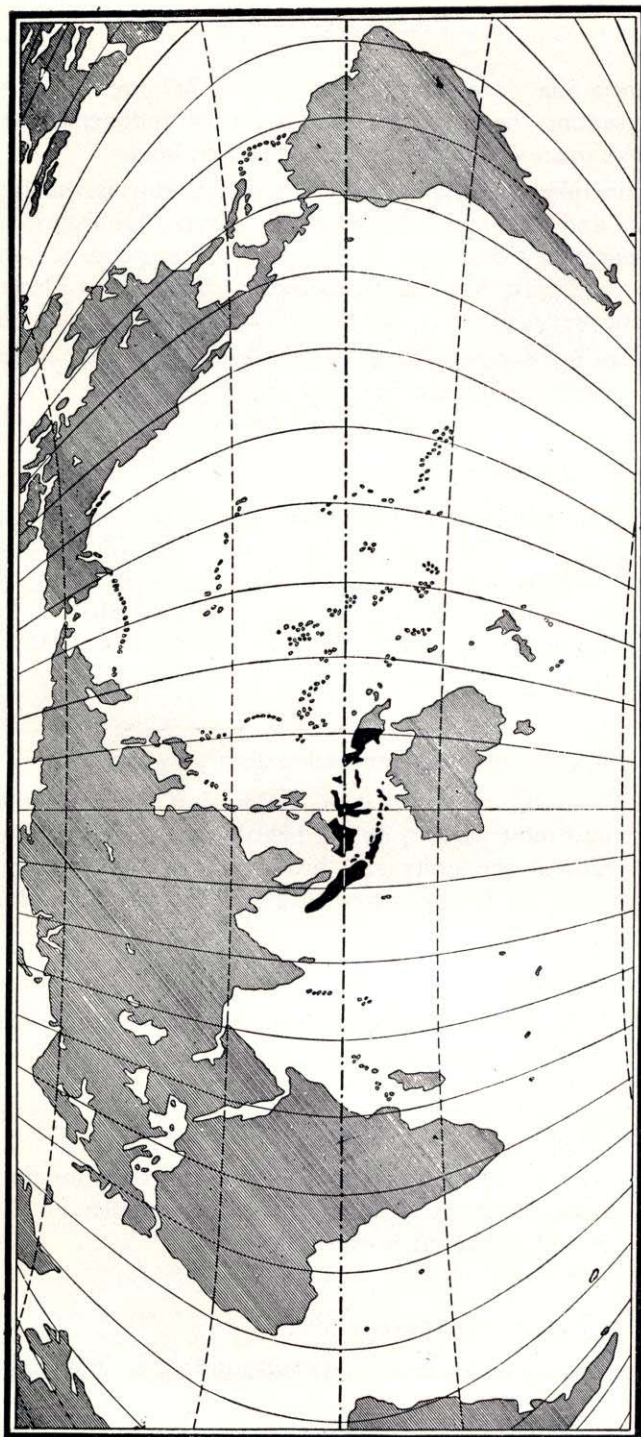


Figure 1. INDONESIA ON THE MAP OF THE WORLD.

PART I

THE COUNTRY

Geography

The Republic of Indonesia is an island nation in Southeast Asia, with a population of some 77-million brown-skinned Indonesians of basic Malay racial stock. In terms of population, it is the sixth largest country in the world.

The name, *Indonesia*, is derived from two Greek words: *Indos*, from which has come "Indies;" and *Nesos* meaning "islands." Thus, Indonesia, or "the Islands of the Indies."

The name was originally one of lingual significance and referred to the indigenous tongue of the inhabitants of most of the Southeast Asian and western Pacific islands. Later it assumed geographical significance and was used to denote those islands now known as the Republic of Indonesia.

This Republic of Indonesia is a chain of islands (the world's largest archipelago) lying between the continents of Asia and Australia, and separating the Indian Ocean from the Pacific. (Page 14.)

It is thus one of the world's most critically important regions, not alone because of its great productivity, but because it lies athwart, and virtually commands, the lines of communication in one of the strategically vital sectors of the globe.

Lying between the Indian and Pacific Oceans, the archipelago represents a vital trans-shipping point for interoceanic commerce—or an almost insurmountable obstacle to that commerce. (During World War II, the Japanese took full advantage of this negative function.)

As an intercontinental link, the Indonesian island chain is like a giant causeway, a series of island stepping-stones connecting Asia and Australia. For thousands of years it has served this function for traders.

At its western end, the island causeway begins half way down the western shore of the Malay Peninsula—the jumping-off spot jutting out from the continent of Asia in a southeasterly direction below the countries of China, Burma, Thailand and Indochina. Running parallel with the Malay Peninsula until it passes Singapore at the tip, the archipelago curves more directly eastward and continues on to a

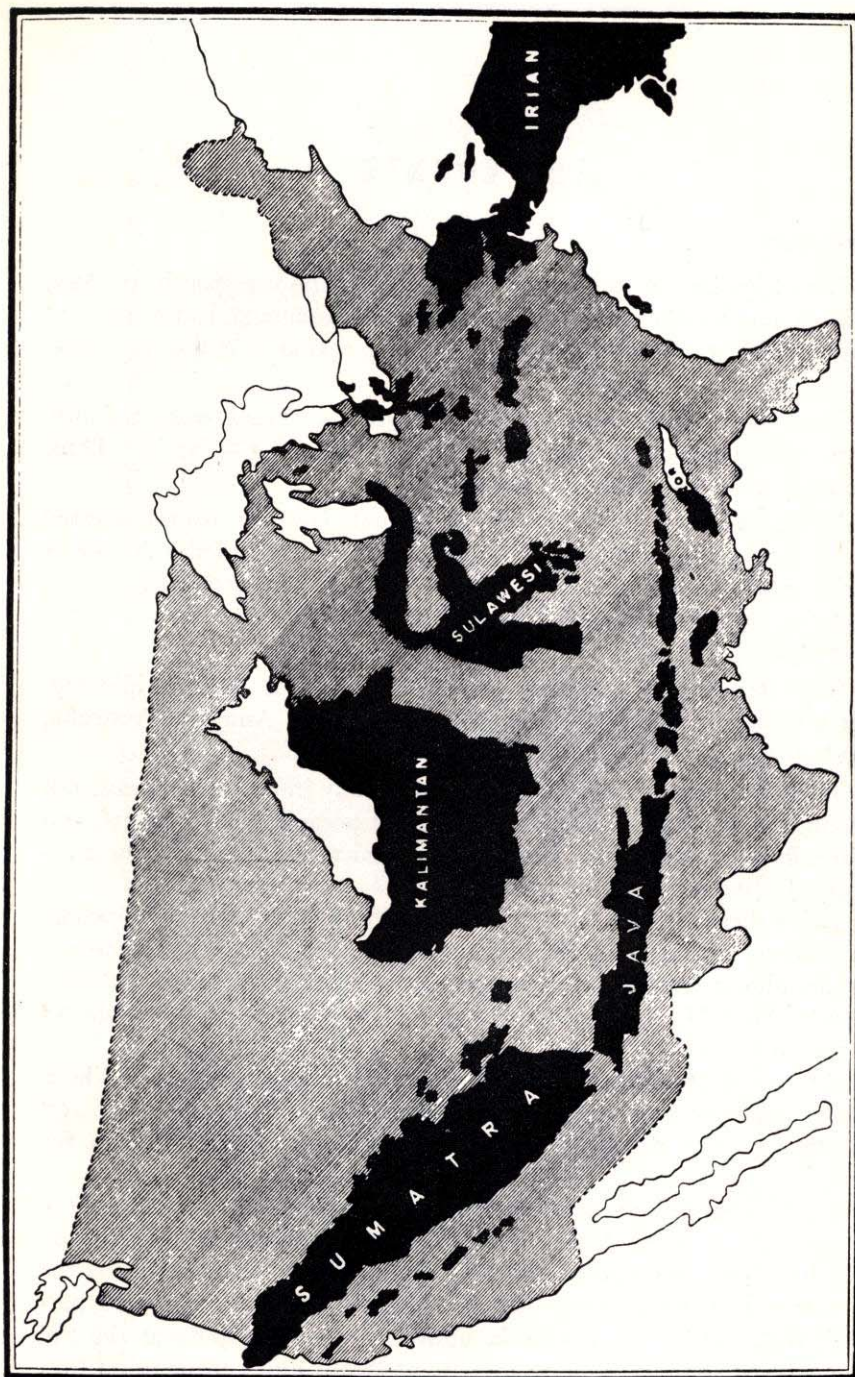


Figure 2. THE AREA OF INDONESIA COMPARED WITH THAT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA.

point only about 300 miles from the northern tip of Australia. Cradled in the hollow formed by the arc, are Kalimantan (Indonesian Borneo), Sulawesi (Celebes), and the Moluccas group.

(Eastward from the tip of the archipelago is New Guinea, the eastern half of which is administered by Australia. Control of the western half of the island is currently a matter of dispute between The Netherlands and the Government of Indonesia. Other foreign-dominated areas within the archipelago are Britain's northern two-sevenths of Borneo and the Portuguese colony embracing the eastern half of Timor.)

This Indonesian archipelago consists of six main islands or island groups, and more than 3,000 smaller islands. If the interinsular bodies of water are included, the chain measures 3,000 miles long, or approximately the same length as is the east-west width of the United States. (*Page 16.*) Further incidental comparison: The island of Sumatra is about equal to the combined areas of Maine and California; Java is about the same size as New York State; and the total land mass of all the islands is almost three times as big as Texas.

Geology

Geologic research indicates that in prehistoric times, the western islands of Indonesia were part of the continent of Asia, while the eastern islands were joined to Australia. At that time, the Himalayas towered over a much larger Asia and the Indochina Mountains were a branch of the main Himalaya Range which curved far to the south-east, to what is now Sumatra, Java and the Lesser Sunda Islands.

At some point during the countless ages of terrestrial evolution, the waters of the sea rose, completely submerging the outer areas of both continents except for the upper portions of the mountains in those areas. This chain of unsubmerged portions —now isolated from the continents— formed the Indonesian archipelago.

The Greater Sunda Islands of Sumatra, Kalimantan, and Java rise out of relatively shallow seas from the underwater extension of the Asian continent, whereas the eastern islands are the visible portions of the landshelf extending out from Australia. It is believed that Sumatra and Malaya were connected as recently as the second century.

Topography

Indonesia is a predominantly mountainous country and the central range runs down the spine of the archipelago. Subsidiary ranges curve northward to the islands of Kalimantan, Sulawesi and Halma-

hera of the Moluccas group. Rich alluvial plains slope down from the elevations.

These mountains contain many active and inactive volcanos (it is the most volcanic region in the world) and highly nutritious ashes and alluvium are carried down by a network of rivers to enrich the fertile plains. Sizable swamp areas are often found in the coastal regions.

Climate

Despite the fact that Indonesia straddles the Equator, the expected tropical heat is tempered by mountain elevation and ocean winds, with the temperature varying between 66 and 96 degrees Fahrenheit.

Typically equatorial, the Island Nation knows only two seasons—wet and “dry”. Generally, the wet season is from November to March, when the West Monsoon blows in from India. An interim period of about two months is followed by the “dry” season from June to October when the Australian East Monsoon brings considerably less rain. However, the pluvial effects on the 3,000-mile stretch of the archipelago, as well as the time spans of the monsoons, vary considerably.

Humidity is usually high, and the year-round rainfall rather heavy. The average rainfall in Djakarta is 80 inches annually; in Kalimantan and Sumatra, 120 to 144 inches.

Flora and Fauna

Asian and Australian influences are most marked in Indonesia's plant and animal life. Conditions in parts of the archipelago permit of almost incredibly lush plant life— e.g., flowers like the *raffelesia* whose blooms measure 36 inches across, and bamboo stalks 30 inches thick.

Fruit (most of which is cultivated, rather than wild) includes apple, banana, berries, breadfruit, citrus fruit, guava, mango, papaya, pineapple and tamarind.

Forests in the coastal regions are largely mangrove and nipa palm, giving way to tropical rainforests in the interior lowlands. In the higher areas, oak, chestnut and rhododendron predominate, while the conifers prevail in the high mountain forests.

Animal life is varied and includes the ape, wild ox, gibbon, orangutan, elephants; tigers, leopards, panthers, rhinoceros, water buffalo, cattle, baboons and kangaroo. Among the smaller animals are sheep, goats, tapir, deer, wild pigs, squirrels, lemurs, bats and flying foxes.

There are also crocodiles, pythons and lizards, one species of the latter attaining a growth of ten feet.

Birds: cockatoos, duck, kingfisher, parrots, pheasant, pigeon, peacock, birds-of-paradise and countless other varieties.

Marine life includes many types of fish, mollusks, crustaceans, sharks and octopi.

Natural Resources

Minerals are among the most important of Indonesia's natural resources. Her large and varied deposits have never been completely developed but their potential wealth is immense. Chief among these minerals are petroleum, tin, bauxite, iron ore, coal and asphalt. (*Page 52.*) Other minerals are manganese, copper and nickel; wolframite, sulfur and iodine; gold, silver, platinum and diamonds.

Forest products include teak, sandalwood, ebony and iron wood; bamboo and rattan (for wicker products); mangrove bark for tanning; indigo and copal (resin used in the manufacture of varnish and lacquer).

Water power is supplied by a generous network of large and small rivers serving important functions in both the industrial and agricultural life of the Island Republic.

As a potentially great source of electrical power, the inland waterway system has been exploited only to a minor degree. Such development is concentrated on the island of Java where the comparatively small rivers have supplied most of the electricity. Present plans call for large-scale hydroelectric development of Java's Bandung Plateau. The country's future economic development, however, will require harnessing of the great rivers of Sumatra and Kalimantan.

On the last two islands mentioned, and to varying degrees on all other islands, rivers serve as avenues of communication and transportation. On Kalimantan, for instance, the broad and lengthy rivers are often the chief means of maintaining contact between widely-separated areas, and frequently the only means of freighting commodities from their sources to markets and shipping points.

The chief value of these rivers, however, lies in their use for agricultural irrigation. In the Java-Bali area, a highly developed system of dams and ditches has carried water to the terraces of hillside rice fields for hundreds of years. (*Pages 22 and 23.*) Such systems are employed in all parts of the country and constitute a vital part of Indonesia's agricultural pattern.

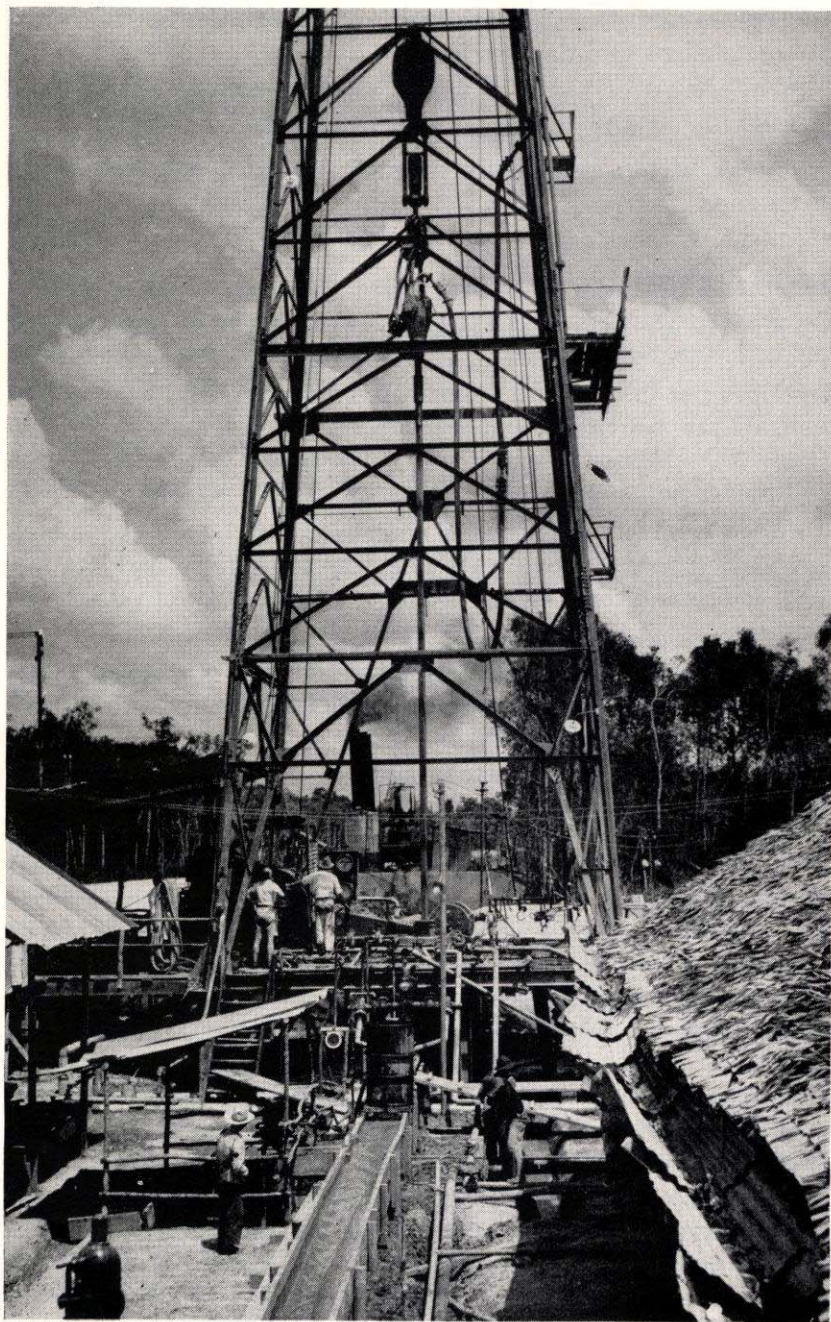


Figure. 3. DRILLING AT PLADJU OILFIELDS NEAR PALEMBANG, SUMATRA.

Agriculture

Indonesia's vast agricultural potential plays as vital a part in her economic structure as does her mineral resources.

Naturally fertilized by the nutritious alluvium carried down from the volcanic heights by many rivers, the Island Republic's soil is fertile— especially in those areas where soil conservation has prevented erosion. In addition, the abundant rainfall and general tropical climate make possible an almost unbelievable agricultural productivity.

These agricultural products can be placed in two general classifications: export crops and crops intended for the domestic market. Formerly the large, highly-organized and foreign-owned plantations concentrated on the mass growing of the export crops while Indonesian farmers raised the non-export products. Under the Republic, however, these independent farmers have begun to grow the export crops in ever-increasing quantities as well as the domestic food products. (*Figure 15, page 52.*)

Chief among the export crops are rubber, sugar and cinchona bark (quinine); tea, coffee, oil palms, agave (hard cordage fibers) and cocoa. Additional so-called "money crops" include kapok (silky fibers from the seed of the silk-cotton tree used for mattress filling); tobacco, copra (dried coconut meat source of oil), gutta percha and spices (mainly black and white pepper, clove, nutmeg and mace).

The most important of the food crops produced by Indonesian farmers is rice, the main food of the people. Also grown are corn, cassava (tapioca), coconut, sago (a food starch), peanuts, soybeans, fruit and vegetables— particularly sweet potatoes, beans and squash.

Livestock

Cows and sheep are raised primarily for slaughter, rather than for dairying and wool production. Dairying as an industry has been developed only in the large cities.

On Western standards, however, the average Indonesian eats comparatively little meat because of dietary preferences.

A considerable number of pigs are also slaughtered but Moslem religious restrictions limit the consumption of pork to non-Moslems (about 10 percent of the population).

Oxen and water buffalo are also bred and along with cows, serve as draft animals.

Horses are bred on the Lesser Sunda Islands of Timor and Flores, while on the neighboring island of Sumba, the world-famous Saddlewood breed of horse has been developed.

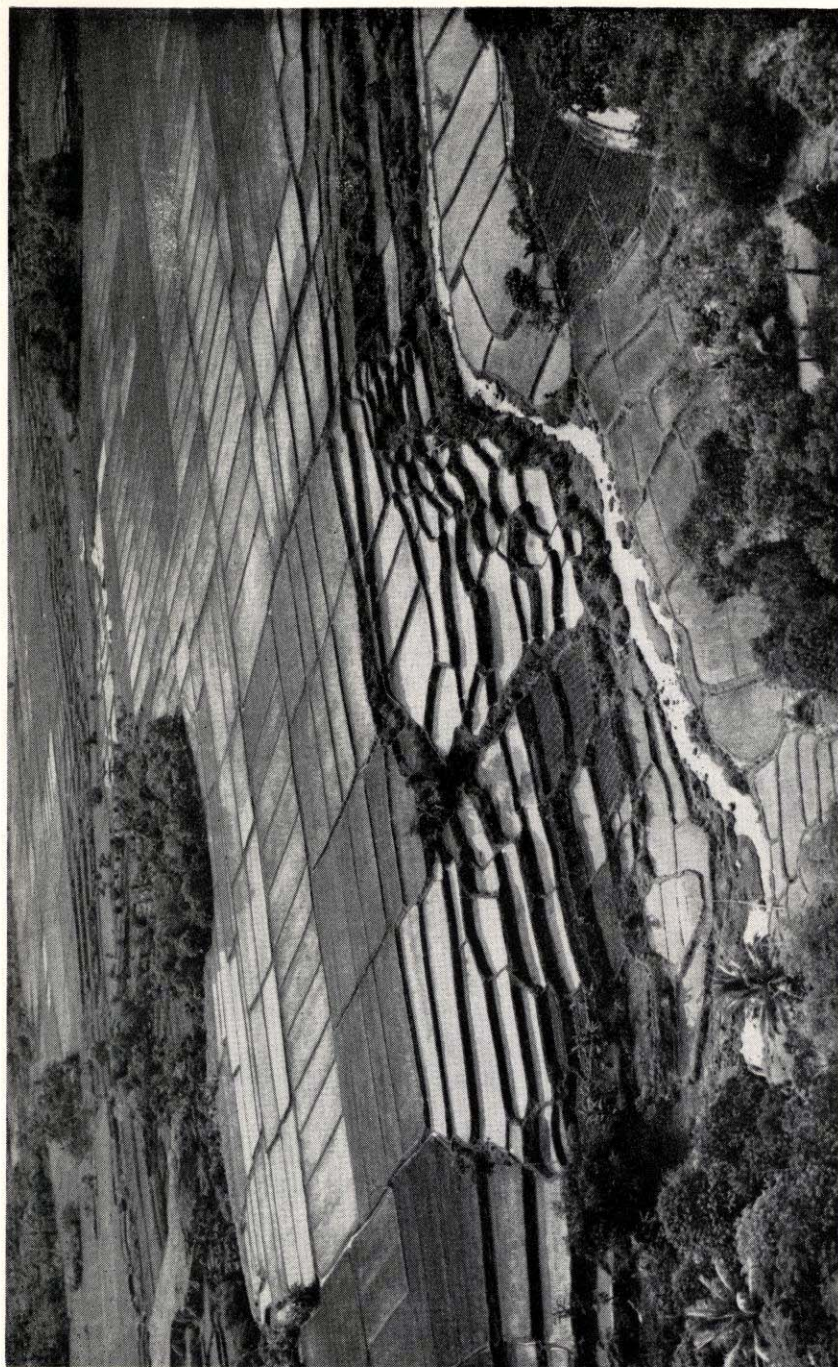


Figure 4. WET RICE CULTIVATION ON JAVA: IRRIGATION OF TERRACED FIELDS.

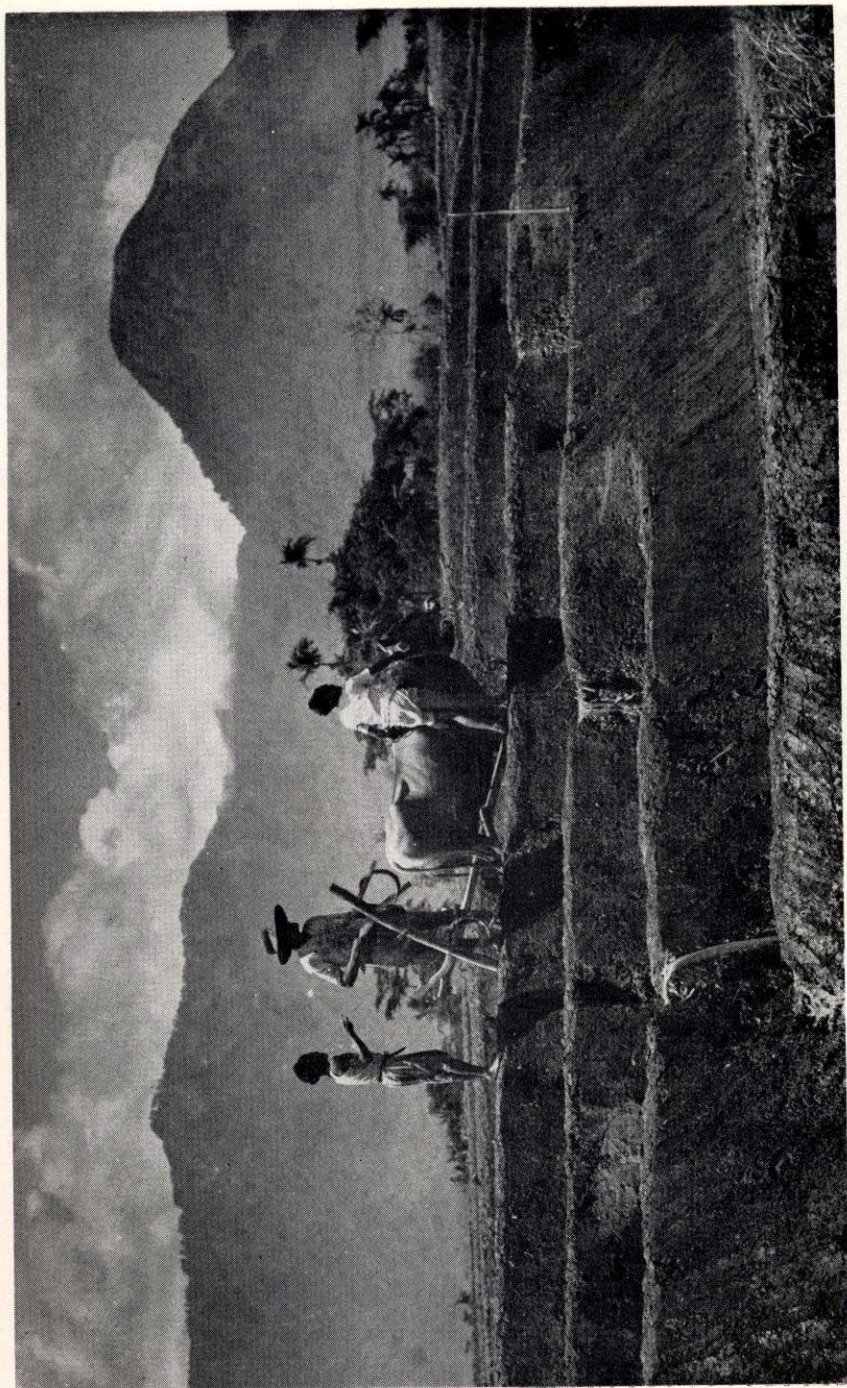


Figure 5. WET RICE CULTIVATION ON JAVA: WATER-CONTROL SYSTEM OF TERRACE IRRIGATION.

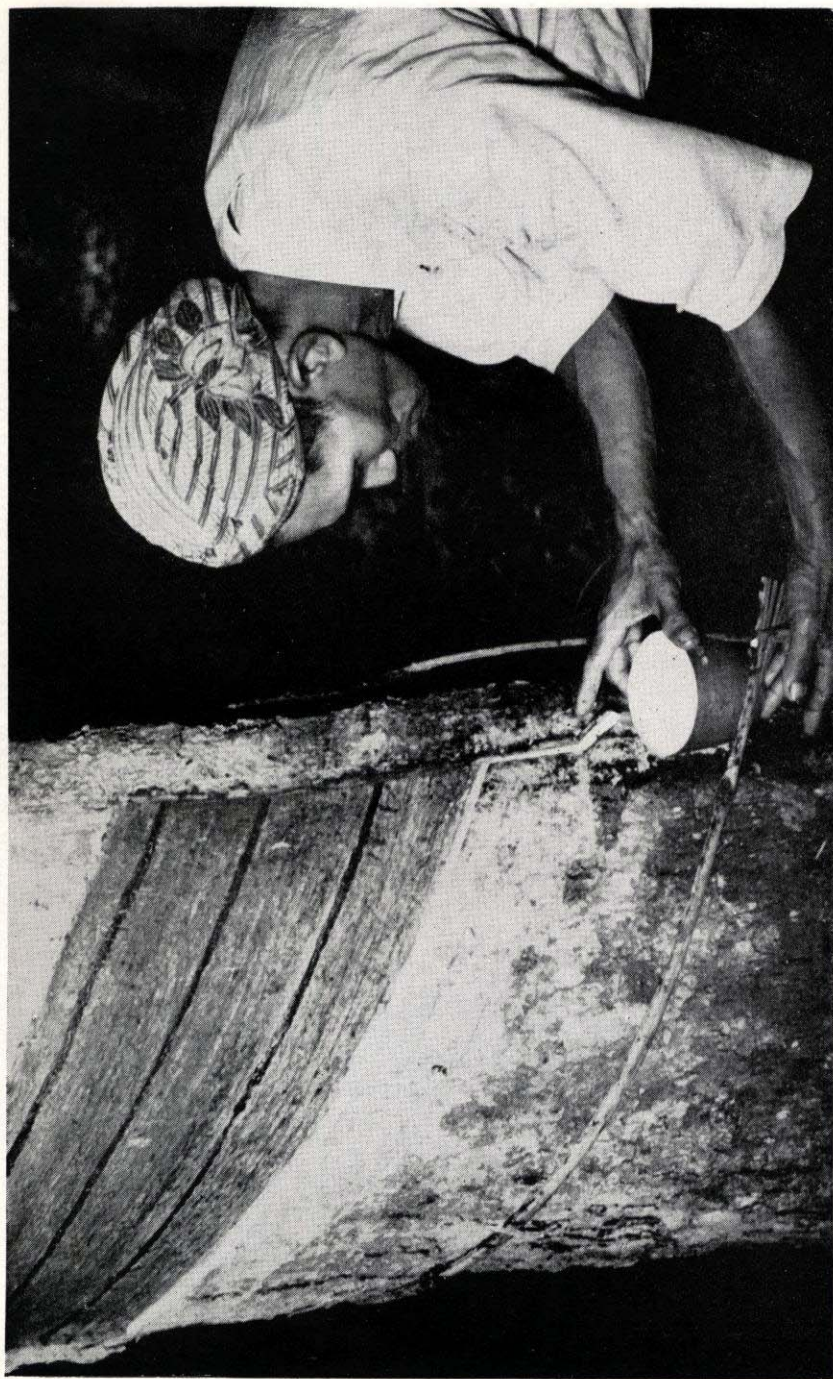


Figure 6. SMALLHOLDER COLLECTING LATEX FROM RUBBER TREE.

Fishery

Food fish is plentiful in the seas surrounding Indonesia— species typical of tropical waters as well as large numbers of tuna. Inland waters contain carp, herring, eel, trout and many indigenous types.

Fishing is an important industry (e. g., Sumatra's busy fishing town, Bagan Si Api-Api) but at its current stage of development, it is not yet capable of satisfying national needs. At present, there is an approximate annual import of 15,000 tons of dried fish.

To increase the domestic food supply and provide fish for areas where there is a shortage of albuminous foods, the Republic has initiated plans to organize and expand the deep-sea fishing activities of the thousands of fishermen in the eastern islands.

In addition, research is underway to improve the quality and quantity of fish in inland waters. Fish are not only found in Indonesia's lakes and rivers, but are also bred in the fresh, brackish or salt waters of breeding ponds and irrigated rice fields between paddy harvests.



Figure 7. STUDENT ARTISTS: UNIVERSITY OF INDONESIA'S COLLEGE OF FINE ARTS, BANDUNG.

PART II

THE PEOPLE

Origin

The kaleidoscopic nature of Indonesian culture vastly complicates anthropological research. The beginnings, obscured by unusually great antiquity and further confused by more recent upheavals, will probably never be revealed.

Archaeological finds, however, indicate that man inhabited the Indonesian archipelago more than 500,000 years ago, predating even the area's *Pithecanthropus Erectus* remains.

Most ethnologists hold that this earliest brown-skinned Indonesian race was an admixture of five different stocks: Veddooid (Ceylon area "aboriginals"), African Negritoid, Australoid, Melanesian and Papuan. The last-named three exerted the least influence as they moved through the archipelago en route to their eventual island homes. The Veddooid racial influence was by far the greatest. At the time, the Indonesian race probably was composed overwhelmingly of these light-brown, slim, frail people, with sparse sprinklings of the other four races.

Principal Influences

The principal racial influence exerted upon these early Indonesians was supplied by the Malayan race, whose "Square Ax Culture" is thought to have moved south from the Tonking (Indochina)-Yunan (South China) area. This great migratory movement can be placed in two rough chronological categories: the Neolithic Age and the Bronze Age.

During the first period (from about 3000 B.C.), short, stocky, brown-skinned Malays surged onto the archipelago, settling as far east as the western Moluccas. Theirs was a rather high culture characterized by stone implements, well-built wooden houses, weaving, pottery and both the wet and dry cultivation of rice. These were the Proto- (or Earlier) Malay people.

Concurrently, the Mongols of Asia were moving southward, overrunning the Malayan Peninsular and gradually changing the physical characteristics of the Malays. As a result, by the time of the Bronze Age (300 to 200 B.C.), the Malays who were flooding into Indo-



Figure 8. INDONESIAN LANDSCAPE.

nesia were decidedly Mongoloid. This second influx of Deutero- (or Later) Malays, spread all the way along the archipelago to New Guinea, usually settling along the coasts and forcing the earlier Malay-Indonesians back to the inland areas. (Even today, Mongol physical characteristics are more prevalent along the coasts.) These people brought with them an even higher culture and the resultant Indonesian civilization was at a high level when Hindu culture began to appear at the beginning of the historical era.

This next racial influence came from the west, from Hindu India. By the eleventh century, waves of migratory Indians had imparted their Buddhist flavor to the Indonesian language and racial composition. They, in turn, were followed by Moslems whose religion further influenced Indonesian life and shaped the culture. Islam was eventually embraced by 90 percent of the Indonesian people.

And with a bow to the dangers inherent in any attempt at generalization, it can be said that the average contemporary Indonesian is usually light brown in color, often short, slender and frail of stature. His hair is black, ranging from completely straight to wavy, while the facial features can be either sharply chiseled or mongolian—the latter made manifest by higher cheekbones and slightly slanted eyes.

The Indonesian language is basically a Malay tongue, the original of which may either have been indigenous to the islands, or brought in by the Proto-Malay immigrants of the Neolithic Age. To this base has been added the Hindu and Arabic lingual contributions. The resultant language was even further colored by borrowings from Sanskrit, Dutch and other foreign languages.

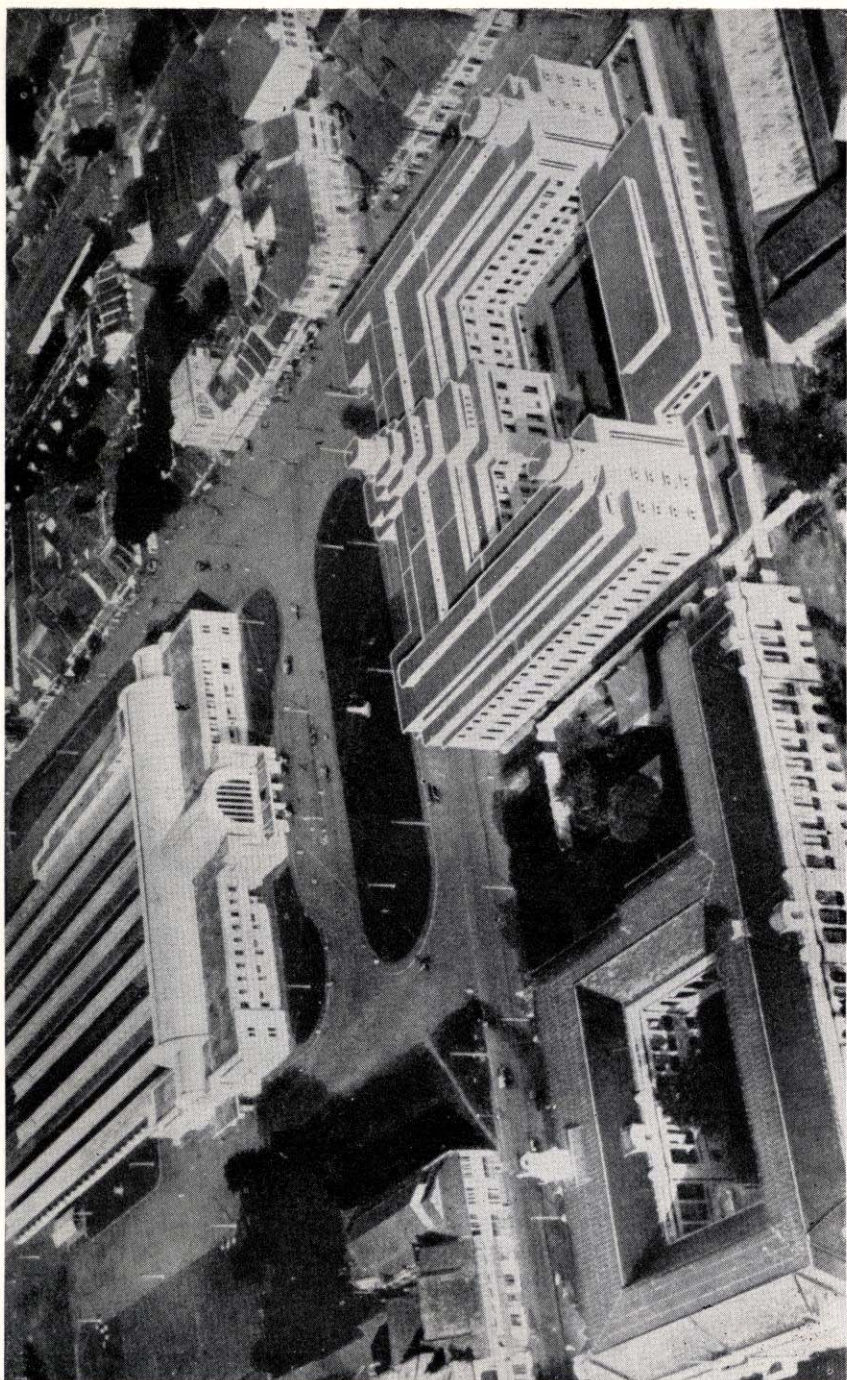


Figure 9. DOWNTOWN DJAKARTA: Background, RAILWAY STATION; foreground, JAVA AND ESCOMPTO BANK BUILDING.

PART III

THE HISTORY

Hindu Period

When the first European traders reached Indonesia early in the 16th century, they found an empire approaching its nadir, the remnants of one of history's great island civilizations.

Some 16-hundred years earlier, the first Hindu traders had arrived from India. They found indigenous Indonesian empires scattered over the archipelago. The existence of these states was noted in the writings of first-century Chinese scholars and by Greek Geographer Ptolemy in the second century.

Hindu immigrants followed the traders in ever-increasing numbers. During the following 500 years, Buddhism was adopted by many Indonesians and the Indonesian-Hindu Sriwidjaja (Çriwijaya) Empire appeared on Sumatra in the seventh century. Constantly absorbing its neighboring Indonesian states, the Sriwidjaja Empire became a vast naval power. Built upon trade and commerce, the Hindu colossus for three centuries ruled not only most of Indonesia, but probably extended its influence to Malaya, the Philippines, half of Formosa, parts of Indochina, Cambodia and southern China. In addition to its naval and commercial might, Indonesia during this period was also a center of culture and learning.

One of the states which had never been dominated by the Sriwidjaja Empire was an East Java kingdom which became the Majapahit Empire. Its rise dates from the end of the 13th century and by 1377 it had toppled the sprawling Sriwidjaja giant. Ultimately, the entire archipelago was absorbed by the might of the Majapahit Empire and for the first time Indonesia was united under one government. This trading-naval empire reigned supreme until it finally was swallowed by the ever-growing force of Islam in 1478.

Moslem Period

As in the case of Buddhism, the new faith of Islam was introduced into Indonesia by traders who had first appeared early in the Christian era. Settlers from India's Gujarat area who followed the merchants brought their religion with them, and the first recorded mass conversion occurred in the year 1111 when the Sumatran Achinese em-

braced Islam. Many native rulers followed suit and there ensued a period of internecine strife between rival Hindu and Moslem rulers. The new faith swept the islands and Islam prevailed when it crushed the Buddhist Majapahit Empire in 1478.

(To the present day, approximately 90 percent of Indonesia's 77 million people are Moslems, the most notable exception being the Bali islanders who still embrace Hinduism— predominantly Çivaism.)

Colonialism

Indonesia's geographical importance astride the principal world trade routes and its almost incalculable natural wealth have always presented an irresistible combination to the traders of the world. It was this combination which attracted the Hindu and Moslem traders. And the same factors drew the attention of the powers of the west.

The first of the Westerners to arrive were the Portuguese in 1521. They were followed by the Spanish, the Dutch, the French and the English, all of whom engaged in a bitter colonial struggle, with Indonesia and her untold wealth as the prize. With the exception of the Dutch, all were eventually eliminated.

The Crusade-conscious Portuguese undertook to proselyte the native islanders and were ejected in 1565 by the joint military action of the Indonesian Sultanates. (Portugal, however, has maintained control of the eastern half of the island of Timor to the present time.)

The defeat of the Armada in 1588 and the subsequent dissolution of Castilian power, caused the withdrawal of Spain from the Indonesian struggle.

French involvement, never considerable, was restricted to a comparatively small area of Java.

The Dutch and the English were thus left to fight out the main issue on a purely commercial basis.

Because of England's heavy commitments elsewhere in her nascent colonial empire, she could not match the concentrated efforts of the Dutch in Indonesia. As a result, in the middle of the 17th century England was forced out of the Indonesian picture for good, except for a brief reappearance between the years 1803 and 1816.

With all foreign competition erased, the Dutch were free to develop the riches of Indonesia to their own advantage.

Dutch Rule

The colonial rule of the Netherlands over Indonesia has hardly been a happy relationship. Rather, it has been a 350-year period of almost constant struggle, either between the Sultanates themselves, or

between the Indonesians and the Dutch. At no time was the Indonesian struggle for independence ever completely extinguished; neither by military force nor harsh quasi-legal action.

The Dutch East Indies Company, formed in 1602, was the first instrument of full-scale colonization employed by the Dutch in Indonesia. The Company warred against the native Sultanates, absorbed the land, monopolized export, dictated and enforced a new agricultural pattern without regard to island interests. The familiar colonial structure was further secured by the decline in power of the Sultanates as the 18th century approached. Even so, the high cost of military operations forced the Company into bankruptcy and the unilateral development of the whole Indonesian potential passed to the hands of the Dutch Government in 1799.

Dutch rule of the archipelago was interrupted in 1803, when the forces of Napoleon occupied the Netherlands. In that year, the British reappeared and ran the French out of Java. Famed Colonial Organizer Raffles revived Indonesia with an efficient administration and searching reforms, but the island treasure box was returned to Dutch rule with the defeat of France in 1814.

The greater part of the 19th century was a period of consolidation of power by the Dutch in Indonesia. Recurrent but uncoordinated "rebel uprisings" were suppressed ruthlessly. The already shaky economy of the Netherlands was almost shattered by the disastrous effects of two colonial wars in Indonesia and the revolt of the Belgians at home. To rebuild, the Dutch enforced an even harsher policy and the increased flow of wealth from Indonesia was, in the main, responsible for the restabilization of Dutch finances.

During the first four decades of the 20th century, Indonesia remained a typical colony: pouring out her wealth and effort for the benefit of an alien power while her own people lagged further and further behind the social, economic and political levels achieved by Western societies.

The price paid by the Netherlands Government for their financial successes in Indonesia was a constant armed preparedness, necessary to quell intermittent uprisings— a constant reminder of the undying quest for freedom.

Nationalism

At the turn of the century, this resistance took on a new note with the appearance of the idea of Nationalism and the emergence of organizations dedicated to social improvement. The movement grew

rapidly and began to take on political and economic overtones. Previously, Indonesian resistance had been rendered ineffectual by lack of coordinated effort and rather nebulous thinking. Now the early leaders set out to create a national consciousness among the politically vacuous people.

A multitude of organizations sprang up, all frankly political and all dedicated to freedom from alien rule.

When the Dutch either ignored, or countered by never-fulfilled promises, the demands for some degree of self-government and better working conditions, the situation became tense. The Nationalist groups adapted the tactics of non-cooperation with the Netherlands Government. Strikes and local riots broke out. Finally, in 1927, a Communist-inspired revolution erupted and was quickly crushed by the Dutch. The leaders were exiled to New Guinea and Indonesian Communism was not to become a threat again for more than two decades.

For a short time the Nationalist fervor remained submerged but inevitably surfaced again when the Indonesian National Party was founded in 1927 by youthful Dr. Soekarno, the rising Nationalist leader. Avowedly revolutionary with a platform calling for Indonesian unity and independence, the Party's rise to power was so swift that in a few months it was able to secure the support of virtually all the major groups.

In Holland a group of Indonesian students organized the *Perhimpunan Indonesia* (Indonesian Association) and under the leadership of Mohammed Hatta, actively advocated the Indonesian cause for independence.

Meanwhile, Soekarno had become the living symbol of freedom to the Indonesian people and the uneasy Dutch jailed him in 1928, released him after two years, and finally exiled the fiery leader.

Still the freedom fever mounted unabated. New leaders and new parties rose. The Netherlands Government clamped even tighter controls on the people, exiled other leaders like Mohammed Hatta and Soetan Sjahrir.

Responsible factions among the nationalists now pursued a policy of cooperation with the Dutch and returned members to the powerless People's Council. This body presented the Crown with a petition demanding a self-governing Indonesia within the Kingdom. There was no response. The situation remained unchanged until early 1942.

Japanese Occupation

In that year, Japanese war might blasted Indonesia and occupied the archipelago on March 8, 1942.

The Japanese occupation of Indonesia was a time of oppression. For three and a half years, the invaders exploited the people with forced military and labor service, and compelled the surrender of the major portions of crops.

Opposition to the invaders was carried out under the aegis of the same Nationalist leaders who had now returned from their Dutch-imposed exile. They formulated a plan whereby Dr. Soekarno and others accepted posts in the Japanese Occupation Government while the remainder followed Sjahrir underground. In their key positions, the Soekarno group was thus able to effectively assist the resistance activities of the guerrilla forces.

In early August, 1945, Indonesian leaders created a representative 21-member Preparatory Committee for Indonesian Independence. The Committee laid the administrative foundation of the soon-to-be-born Republic by drawing up a democratic constitution. Soekarno and Hatta became the first President and Vice-President and a National Assembly was convoked.

The First Republic

On August 17, 1945, two days after the Japanese capitulation, Soekarno, as President of the new Republic of Indonesia, issued the Indonesian Declaration of Independence. After 350 years of colonial rule, the Indonesian people declared themselves once more a free nation.

According to the new Constitution, the infant democracy was unitary and republican, with ultimate legislative authority vested in a representative People's Congress. Executive power belonged to the President, assisted by a Vice-President and a Ministerial Cabinet. Administratively, the new state was divided into the eight provinces of Sumatra, Kalimantan, Sulawesi, the Moluccas, the Lesser Sundas and West, Central and East Java. Djakarta (formerly Batavia) was designated as the national capital.

The Constitution itself was completely democratic in spirit, directing that the sovereignty be vested in the people and exercised by them through the unicameral People's Congress. It protected the individual and collective rights of the people and outlined the organization of a national economy along cooperative lines.

The more immediately important Transitory Provisions of the Con-

stitution provided for emergency measures to facilitate governmental functioning during the initial period. These Provisions authorized the appointment by the President of a National Convention to legislate with the approval of the President, pending election of the People's Council. The Provisions further stipulated, *inter alia*, that the 12-man cabinet was also to be responsible to the President.

The outside world looked with approving amazement upon the sudden appearance of this new democracy, rising dramatically out of the smouldering ashes of World War II.

War of Independence

When the British landed six weeks later to accept Japanese surrenders and liberate prisoners of war, they found a functioning government. Immediately following the British came officials of the former Netherlands Indies Government who refused to recognize Republican claims of *de facto* authority over the entire archipelago. Equally adamant, the Indonesians refused to permit the landing of Dutch troops until such recognition was forthcoming.

Caught between the two opposing parties, the British sent Sir Archibald Clark-Kerr (later Lord Inverchapel) to mediate. At the conference, Republican spokesmen argued that the new state was an expression of the Indonesian people's inalienable right to freedom, and that further denial of that freedom would be in direct contradiction to the basic principles for which the Allies had just fought the war. The Indonesian Government put forth a compromise offer which called for immediate *de facto* recognition only in Java and Sumatra.

Even this offer was eventually rejected by the Netherlands Government and when they attempted to land troops, large-scale fighting broke out.

Again the British arranged a truce and under the good offices of England's Special Commissioner, Lord Killearn, a conference was convoked which eventually resulted in the Linggadjati Agreement between the Republic of Indonesia and the Government of the Netherlands.

Linggadjati Agreement

Under the terms of this Agreement, initialed November 15, 1946, the Dutch recognized Republican sovereignty over Java and Sumatra and both parties agreed to cooperate in the formation of the United States of Indonesia, composed of the Republic of Indonesia, Kalimantan and the Great Eastern State. Further, it was agreed to cre-

ate a Netherlands-Indonesian Union (the Netherlands, Surinam, Curaçao and the United States of Indonesia) no later than January 1, 1949.

During the preceding months, the Republic's administrative structure had undergone changes which drastically reduced the emergency powers of President Soekarno. On October 6, 1945, Presidential Decrees had increased the size of the National Convention and strengthened its legislative authority by making it responsible for the general directives of government. At the same time, a 17-member continuous-session Working Committee, responsible to the National Convention, was created to carry out the daily functions of government. A parliamentary cabinet replaced its American-type predecessor and the Prime Minister was now responsible to the legislative body rather than to the President.

Dutch-Republican discussions, pursuant to the terms of the Linggadjati Agreement, were resumed but almost immediately came to impasse. Subsequent differences regarding the Republic's status within the proposed 3-member United States of Indonesia; truce violations; the formation of a joint police force; the imposition of a strangling Dutch blockade of Republican areas; unilateral creation by the Dutch of puppet governments elsewhere on the archipelago; Republican foreign relations—all these factors so seriously undermined relations that the conferences broke down completely on July 18, 1947, and three days later the Dutch launched their first "police action."

Republican guerrillas mounted effective resistance against the powerful Dutch forces and President Soekarno appealed to the United Nations for aid in halting the attack. The question was brought before the Security Council by the Governments of Australia and India.

In the fighting zone, Dutch columns easily penetrated Republican areas but they could neither erase the effective and elusive Indonesian guerrillas, nor control the areas they had penetrated. The Dutch thus found themselves between the horns of a dilemma.

Renville Agreement

Subsequently, the United Nations' Good Offices Committee was successful in producing a cease-fire and eventually the Renville Agreement. By signing the document on January 17, 1948, both parties reaffirmed their adherence to the proposed Federation and Union. The Agreement further called for a cease-fire *status quo* along the Dutch-held lines of August 27, 1947, and the reduction of armed forces.

But again the uneasy truce was doomed to short life. The dilatory tactics of the Dutch seemed to indicate a strategy of strangling the new Republic economically and then picking up the pieces.

Second Attack

Finally, on December 18, 1948, the Dutch forces launched a second military attack— a so-called “police action” which was in reality, a full-scale colonial war. The surprise attack was initially unopposed, resulted in the occupation of the temporary Republican capital at Djokjakarta and the capture of President Soekarno, Vice-President Hatta, a number of cabinet ministers and other government officials.

Condemnation of the Dutch military action was world-wide and the United Nations’ Good Offices Committee branded the attack a direct violation of the Renville Agreement and United Nations principles. A 19-nation Asian Conference, convoked by Prime Minister Nehru at New Delhi on January 20, 1949, demanded Dutch surrender of all prisoners and territory seized in their two police actions, and complete sovereignty for Indonesia by January 1, 1950.

Militarily, the Dutch again experienced the helplessness of a tied-up Gulliver. Their capture of Indonesian leaders had not caused resistance to collapse. And once more they found themselves unable to control or clear out the Republican areas they had penetrated.

The Dutch dilemma and the mounting wave of world criticism gave greater force to the United Nations’ proposal that a definite timetable be set up for the gradual transfer of sovereignty to the proposed United States of Indonesia by July 1, 1950. Dutch pressure (at least outwardly) began to slacken.

In February, they agreed “in principle” to the Security Council’s timetable proposal, evacuated the occupied capital and released the Republican officials in July. Finally, in August, a cease-fire was ordered by both parties.

Round Table Conference

The long-delayed Round Table Conference between the Governments of the Netherlands and the Republic of Indonesia, convened at The Hague on August 23, 1949. As a result of these conferences, the transfer of sovereignty from the Netherlands to the newly-created Republic of the United States of Indonesia was proclaimed on December 27, 1949. Simultaneously, there was created the Netherlands-Indonesian Union (a voluntary association between sovereign states) with the Dutch Queen as symbolic head.

The purpose of the Union, through the services of a Council of Ministers and a Union Court of Arbitration, was to facilitate cooperation between the two Governments in the fields of foreign relations, defense, economics and commerce.

(Subsequent lack of agreement between Indonesia and the Netherlands regarding the status of Irian —Western New Guinea— and other political issues, however, has made the Union unpopular. The Indonesian Government now holds that the Union should be replaced by a treaty relationship, such as is traditional between sovereign states.)

The Federation

The Republic of the United States of Indonesia was a loose federation of 16 states, one of which, and by far the most powerful, was the Republic of Indonesia. Each component state had its own executive head, cabinet and legislative body. In addition, each sent representatives to the bicameral federal legislative body at the capital (Djakarta). President and Vice-President of the new Federation were Soekarno and Hatta.

The new federated government functioned awkwardly, mainly because of its cumbersome administrative structure. Further, the original Republican Government had been the principal champion of independence during the long years of resistance both to Dutch colonialism and Japanese occupation. To Indonesians, the Republic of Indonesia was the natural government— one government for one people.

This spirit of unity was not long in manifesting itself. Within a year, the legislatures of all 15 member states had voted to dissolve their respective governments and merge with the Republic of Indonesia. At the same time, delegates of all interested parties also voted to dissolve the Federal Government and start over with a new unitary state and a new constitution.



Figure 10. INDEPENDENCE DAY CEREMONY: HISTORIC FLAG-RAISING AT PRESIDENTIAL PALACE, DJAKARTA, AUGUST 17, 1950.

PART IV

THE REPUBLIC

Structure

The present Republic of Indonesia is a constitutional democracy proclaimed on August 17, 1950. (*Page 40.*) While this unitary government is more highly centralized than its federal predecessor, it is not monolithic and provides for considerable administrative decentralization among the ten component provinces. The right to local self-government is one of the constitutional guarantees.

The new Provisional Constitution, drafted by a joint conference of the Parliaments of the Republic of the United States of Indonesia and the previous Republic of Indonesia, largely follows the pattern of the old Republican Constitution— which, in turn, had been modeled after the American document.

This Provisional Constitution stipulates that the executive chief shall be the President, assisted by a Vice-President— the first Vice-President to be selected by the legislative body (the House of Representatives) with the approval of the President. Soekarno was unanimously elected President by the House, and Mohammed Hatta selected as Vice-President. (Subsequent chief executives are to be elected by national vote every four years.)

Both executive officers must be at least 30 years of age and citizens of Indonesia. The President can dissolve Parliament, call new elections and initiate legislation. He also must approve all legislation.

The legislative body is the House of Representatives, a unicameral organization whose membership is a blending (237 members) of the Parliaments of the two previous governments. Pending elections, the members have been chosen on the basis of geographic, cultural and political representation, with a representative ratio of one member for every 300,000 constituents. They must be 25 years of age or older, and are chosen for a four-year period. The members elect their own Chairman and three Vice Chairmen.

Chief among the Legislature's committees is the permanent Steering Committee (composed of at least 11 members representing all political factions) which decides the House agenda.

The permanent Committee for Administrative Affairs (composed of no fewer than nine representatives) exercises supervision over all matters relating to the administration of the House of Representatives.

To facilitate the legislative process, the House membership is divided as nearly equally as possible, into eight "Groups" for the purpose of examining bills in preliminary discussions.

The membership is further divided into as many "Sections" as there are cabinet portfolios. Each "Section" thus assumes the role of expert and legislative watchdog in all matters relating to their particular phase of government.

In actual practice, the dominant organ of government is the Prime Minister and his Cabinet. This is a continental-type cabinet (in contradistinction to the American form) in that it is responsible to the legislative body rather than to the President. The Constitution charges that "the ministers shall be responsible for the entire policy of the Government."

In addition to the Premier and Vice-Premier, there are at present 18 portfolios in the cabinet: the Ministries of Foreign Affairs, Home Affairs, Defense, Justice, Information, Finance, Agriculture, Economic Affairs, Communication, Public Works, Labor, Social Welfare, Education, Religion, Health, General Affairs, Personnel Affairs and Agrarian Affairs.

Affirming that the sovereign authority is vested in the people and exercised through their representatives, the Constitution also guarantees "Fundamental Human Rights and Freedoms." It expressly safeguards the rights of universal suffrage; full and equal protection under the law of both people and property; freedom of religion, conscience and thought; freedom of assembly and expression; minority freedom from discrimination; free and universal education.

Administratively, the Republic is divided into ten provinces which conform, as nearly as possible, to social realities and administrative requirements. Each province is administered by a Governor and a local House of Representatives. The former is appointed by the Minister of Home Affairs upon the recommendation of the latter. The ten provinces and their capitals:

West Java	Bandung
Central Java	Semarang
East Java	Surabaya
North Sumatra	Medan
Central Sumatra	Bukit Tinggi
South Sumatra	Palembang
Lesser Sunda Islands	Den Pasar
Moluccas	Ambon
Sulawesi	Makassar
Kalimantan (Borneo)	Bandjarmasin

This present structure is considered an interim government, pending the first national elections. The elections will vote in a new representative body (the Constituent Assembly) which will draft a permanent constitution and make any mandated changes in the governmental structure. (The first general balloting has been delayed by the tremendous task of setting up the necessary electoral machinery in a country which has never before been permitted to exercise the right of mandate on a nation-wide scale.)

Political Parties

The constitutional guarantees of free speech and assembly, concomitant with the absence of any legal restrictions regarding the formation of new political groups, have resulted in a multitude of political parties in Indonesia. More than 25 parties representing every political color and shade exist under this multi-party system. There is absolute freedom of political expression.

At the top of the ladder stands the Moslem Party (Masjumi), deriving its great strength from the fact that approximately 90 percent of the Indonesian people are Moslems. Rather conservative, the Party's leadership includes Dr. Sukiman, Mohammed Roem, Mohammed Natsir and Jusuf Wibisono.

Second is the Nationalist Party (Partai Nasional Indonesia, or PNI.) Supported by elements from all social strata, this national socio-democratic party recognizes Sartono, Wilopo, Sidik Djojokusarto and A. K. Gani among its leaders.

Next in line come the Socialists (Partai Sosialis Indonesia, or PSI) and the Greater Indonesian Party (Partai Persatuan Indonesia Raya, or PIR). The former is led by Soetan Sjahrir, while the latter, supported in the main by government officials, follows such leaders as Wongsonegoro and Tadjuddin Noor.

In addition to these four main groups, lesser parties include the Democratic Faction (not actually a party, but non-party members of the former U. S. I. Legislature), the Catholic Party, the Christian Party (the last two being small but solid), the Peasant Party and the Labor Party. Although legal in Indonesia, the Communist Party is small because of competition offered by the Communist People's Party (Partai Murba), which ignores the Moscow line and places national interests first.

Foreign Policy

The Government of the Republic of Indonesia adheres to an independent foreign policy dedicated to the maintenance of world peace and the betterment of the Indonesian people.

Its active pursuit of this policy is to be distinguished from inactive neutrality.

In this respect, the Government of Indonesia asserts its belief that support of any power bloc is more detrimental than beneficial to the cause of peace. Rather, it contends that the cause of peace is best furthered through wholehearted support of the United Nations.

The Government of the Republic of Indonesia believes that this World Organization—to which it was admitted by unanimous vote on September 27, 1950—should be accorded complete recognition by all member states as the preserver of peace between nations, and strengthened as much as possible so as to effectively realize its Charter aims.

Within this framework, the Republic of Indonesia stresses that it will exert its natural right to resist by every means at her disposal, including force of arms, any attempt to undermine or overthrow her sovereignty.

The Government of Indonesia upholds the principles of democracy, pledges its full cooperation with democratic states, and is dedicated to the complete abolishment of colonialism.

Further, Indonesia's foreign policy, while striving for friendly co-operation with all peaceful nations, stresses its desire for a "good neighbor" policy with the nations of South and Southeast Asia, in order that those nations may effect an agreement of policy and conduct with regard to international problems—especially those affecting Asia.

Economy

Because of climate, agricultural fecundity and manpower reserves, Indonesia is and always has been one of the most important producers of raw materials. (*Pages 52, 53 and 58.*)

As the demands of the import countries changed, the productive efforts of Indonesia changed accordingly. Thus, until the end of the 18th century, spices were the chief exports. In the 19th century, sugar and coffee exports formed the basis of the economy and finally, in the present century, productive emphasis has swung over to oil, tin and rubber.

As such a producer of raw materials under colonial rule, the econ-

omy of Indonesia disregarded the development of the country as a whole and concentrated only upon those agricultural and mineral commodities which were demanded by the world market at the time.

The initial task, then, is the revision of the Republic's economy from that of a one-sided colonial nature, to a national economic structure— a more-balanced economy in which all phases of the Indonesian potential will be developed, rather than permit over-dependence upon the export of a relatively few commodities.

To achieve this new structure, two steps are necessary:

- I. Reconstruction and expansion of the basic economic function— i.e., supplying agricultural and mineral raw materials. This will increase Indonesia's buying power abroad and help raise the standard of living through the purchase of goods which cannot be produced at home. This agricultural-mining development will also stress greater food production to meet the increasing demands of the domestic market— especially for rice, which must be imported in ever-greater amounts. (*Figure 16, page 52.*)
- II. The creation of supplemental industries: especially for the processing of raw materials, and the manufacture of textiles, agricultural equipment, household goods and other consumer items. These new industries will permit of a more balanced economy through: (a) partial satisfaction of the domestic market; (b) lessening the drain on foreign credit; and (c) decreasing the over-dependency of Indonesia upon the uncertainties of the world market with regard to the purchasing power of her exported raw materials.

Concerning Step I (the primary function of supplying raw materials) the Government of Indonesia aims at substantially increasing producer-efficiency, and re-investing the subsequent added profit along with foreign loans, to repair and expand capital equipment.

Increased producer-efficiency is to be attained by:

- 1) Improved labor conditions and efficient labor-management machinery.
- 2) Government-sponsored training courses.
- 3) Full utilization of foreign technical assistance programs.
- 4) Creation of credit facilities for farmers and assistance in implementing a national housing program through the Reconstruction and Development Bank.
- 5) Development of cooperatives patterned after similar enterprises in Scandinavian countries and the farm areas of the United

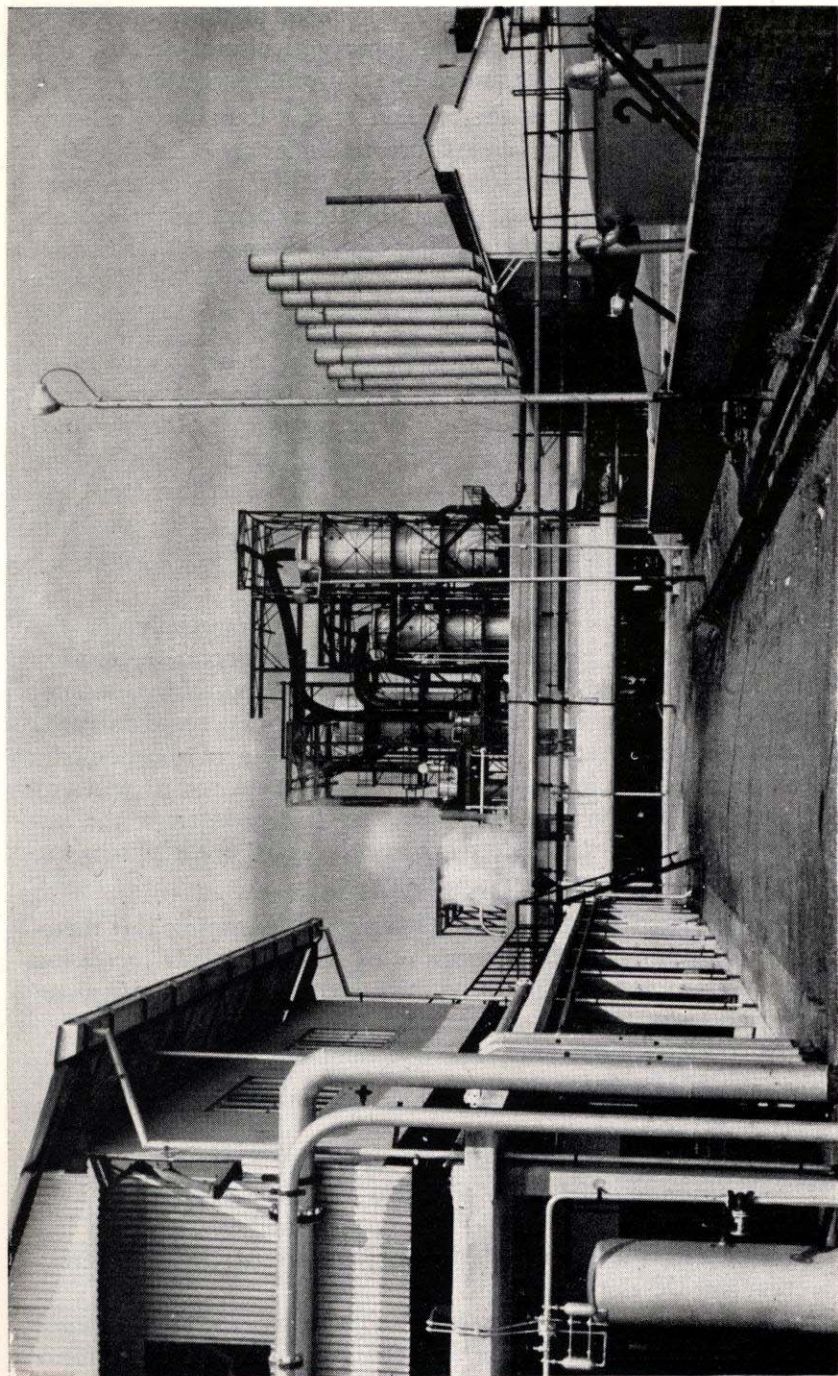


Figure 11. OIL REFINERY, SUMATRA.

States. Credit and trained leaders have already been made available and by the end of 1951, five thousand of these leaders will form the backbone of the movement.

To achieve creation of supplemental industries and businesses (Step II) the Government will extend credit for the purchase of capital equipment and the founding of private firms. In addition, and with the cooperation of private business, the Government will also undertake the training of young people in all phases of industrial-commercial functions.

Other efforts of the Government of Indonesia toward economic stabilization have included improvement of the foreign exchange position to permit of more proper planning for purchases abroad, reduction of the budget deficit, and the drastic financial measures of March, 1950, which reduced by 50 percent the amount of money in circulation. The half of the currency recalled was converted into Government Bonds. This action braked the inflationary spiral and tended to strengthen the rupiah vis-a-vis foreign currency.

Thus, the profits of increased production and the improved foreign exchange holdings are, and will continue to be used for realizing the economic target of stability and improved living conditions.

Technical assistance programs and foreign loans play important roles in the reconstruction efforts.

It is often true that the major raw-material supply countries lie in the under-developed areas. That they are under-developed is not due to any inherent inability of the people themselves. Rather, it is largely the result of a colonial policy which denied them not only full education, but also participation in virtually all phases of industry, commerce and business in general.

(At this point, we can compare the experiences of Indonesia with those of India and Pakistan. During the colonial period of these states, England, as the so-called "mother-country," permitted rather wide native participation in government, business and industry. As a result, when the transfers of sovereignty took place, experienced native personnel were able to assume key positions and productive functions.)

To fill this resultant personnel void in Indonesia, a concerted program of education and participation must be supplemented by procurement of foreign experts and full utilization of technical assistance programs.

In the process of rebuilding, foreign loans have established a credit line large enough to enable the Indonesian Government to initiate

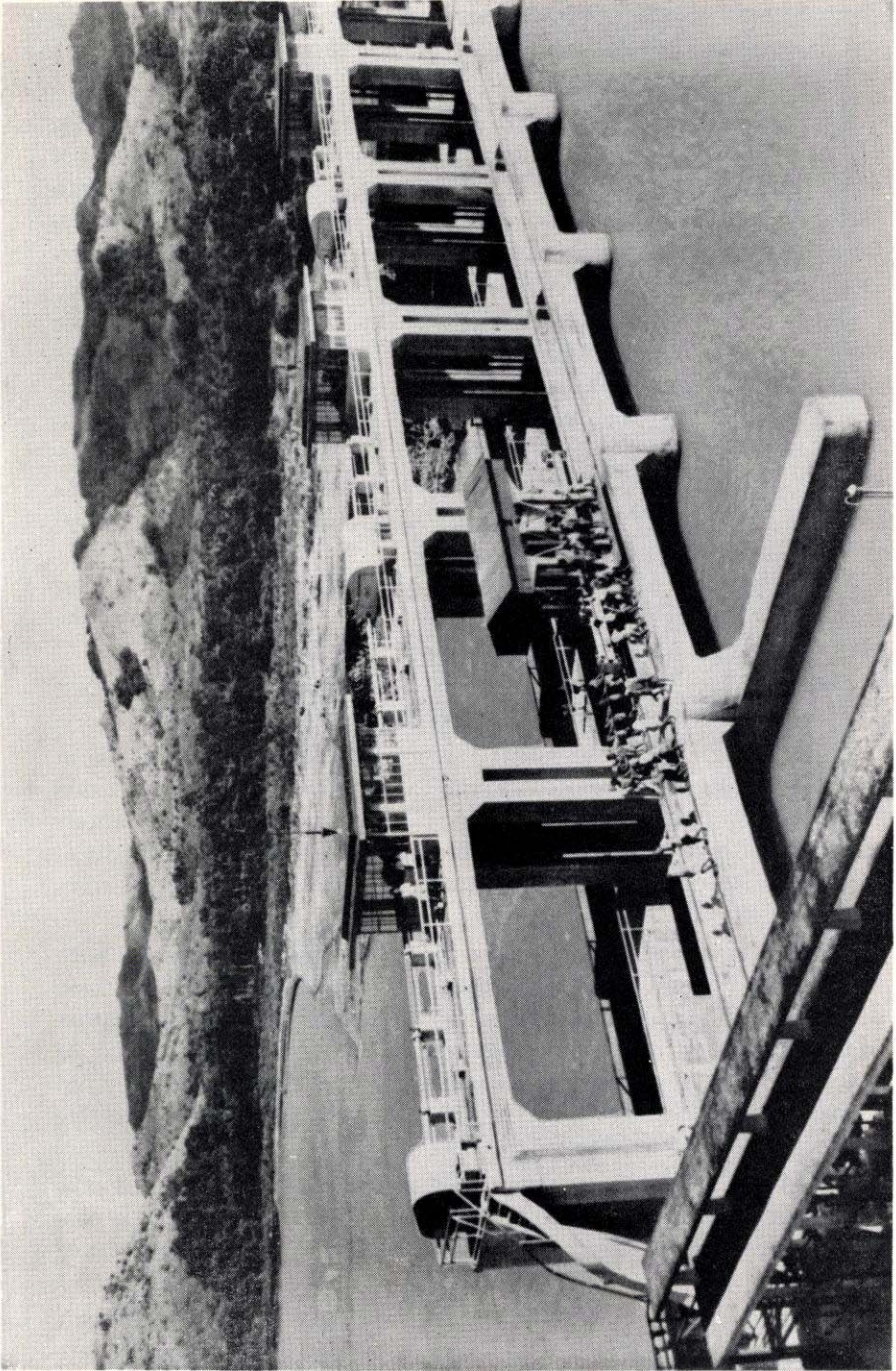


Figure 12. SADANG DAM, SULAWESI.

the reconstruction and development of vital sectors of the economy. Chief among the lending agencies has been the Export-Import Bank of Washington.

Initial reconstruction projects deal largely with Indonesia's transportation and communication systems, being intended to rebuild and expand her productive and distributive potential, and make more effective her internal security system. In this respect, it must be borne in mind that Indonesia's automotive vehicles, as well as her railroad, highway, and airline systems, were subjected to severe damage and neglect during the eight years of occupation and warfare.

(Again the examples of India and Pakistan can be offered. In those countries, freedom from wartime occupation and the peaceful transfer of sovereignty prevented destruction of capital equipment, communication and transportation facilities.)

To help repair and expand the economy, the following Export-Import projects have been approved.

For the purchase of aircraft, repair and maintenance— \$6,085,500. Indonesia's island nature renders difficult inter-insular transportation over bodies of water. A revived civil air service will facilitate not only passenger travel but inter-insular fast air freight for perishable foodstuffs, critical materials and internal security operations.

Twenty million dollars have been set aside for automotive transportation. Before the war, automotive facilities in Indonesia were sufficient unto the demand. War damage, however, has reduced that potential to an insignificant amount. This initial allocation will make available trucks, busses, passenger automobiles and motorcycles to partially fill the void. This replacement is vitally necessary to provide freight transportation of raw materials and food to shipping points or markets; and to provide public, private and security conveyance.

Closely connected with the automotive project is the allocation of \$2,100,000 for roadbuilding. The bad condition of war-damaged roads has not only slowed transportation drastically, but it has resulted in an alarming increase in the deterioration rate of the existing vehicles. In addition to repairs, these funds will be used to extend the road network to areas under development, and also for the construction of landing strips in connection with the aircraft project.

To provide for the reconstruction and development of harbors, railways and the telecommunication system, a sum of \$24,060,000 has been allocated, while a power project has been approved to step-up electric energy output—the demand for which often exceeds the supply by 25 to 100 percent.

In addition, funds made available by the Economic Cooperation

Administration, have been largely earmarked for equipment and technical assistance.

(Previous to the transfer of sovereignty in December, 1949, Indonesia as a Dutch colony received indirect Marshall Aid, but only from funds allocated to the Netherlands. For such loans used in the former colony of Indonesia, the Dutch Government has assumed responsibility.)

Under the new plan of direct aid to the Republic of Indonesia, Procurement Authorizations to the amount of approximately \$8,000,000 have been issued. Briefly, these credits have been used for the following:

- 1) Fishing vessels and equipment (to reduce the necessity of importing food fish by rebuilding and expanding the war-devastated fishing fleet).
- 2) Agricultural equipment and fertilizer.
- 3) Industrial machinery and engines.
- 4) Technical assistance, scientific and professional instruments.
- 5) Medicinal and pharmaceutical preparations.
- 6) Public Health teams for the prevention and treatment of disease. (The dissemination of modern methods of hygiene and the creation of a large medical profession are vitally important inasmuch as Indonesia now has only one doctor to every 60 thousand people, in contrast to the 1-to-800 ratio of the United States.)
- 7) Iron and steel materials, ferrous alloys, tinplate.

The basis for Indonesia's economic soundness lies in her possession of virtually incalculable amounts of raw materials. Despite the need for, and the undeniable importance of the aforementioned loans, Indonesia can with justifiable pride point out that the bulk of her purchasing power is derived from her own efforts— the proceeds from the sale of these materials abroad. The export of such raw materials is the foundation of the economic policy. The objective of this economic policy is the betterment of the Indonesian people.

Thus, the Republic of Indonesia pursues a trade policy which is, in effect, the exchange of raw materials for manufactured articles.

The presently unbalanced economic structure (as a producer of raw materials only) makes Indonesia completely dependent upon imports for consumer goods and all other manufactured articles— articles which are very often manufactured from the same material she had previously exported. (*Page 59.*)

To sustain even a bare standard of living then, Indonesia must be granted in exchange for her exports, equivalent values in consumer

goods to clothe and house her people. She must, perforce, channel her exports to those markets where the vital end-products are available.

As has been pointed out by the Government at Djakarta, the world is apt to regard such countries as Indonesia as, simply, a supplier of raw materials— much as in colonial days when export was the principal, and often the only consideration.

On the other hand, Indonesian economists see export as only a part of the whole picture, a means of satisfying the needs and desires of the people. To them, export is not the prime objective. The prime objective is the proper use of export to serve the Indonesian nation.

The new Republic of Indonesia is one of the basic cogs in the closely interrelated scheme of global economy. In addition to being the indicated supplier, it is also a vast market. Under present conditions, her commercial potential is drastically limited. However, with time, her own unstinted effort and the interim help of friendly nations, this potential will be expanded tremendously. In the not-too-distant future, Indonesia will present to the highly-industrialized nations of the world a vast market for their products. Her intimate economic relationship with such nations assures that eventuality.

<p>Figure 13 WORLD PRODUCTION AND CONSUMPTION OF TIN IN CONCENTRATES (In thousands of long tons)</p>							
	1938	1941	1946	1947	1948	1949	1950
Indonesia	27.3	53.2	6.4	15.9	30.6	29.0	32.1
Malaya	43.4	79.4	8.4	27.0	44.8	54.9	57.5
Thailand	14.7	15.2	1.1	1.4	4.2	7.6
Bolivia	25.4	42.0	37.6	33.3	37.3	34.1	31.2
Belgian Congo	8.8	16.2	14.1	14.9	14.1	13.8	14.6
Nigeria	9.0	12.0	10.3	9.1	9.2	8.8
Other countries	31.4	25.0	9.1	12.4	13.3	13.5	32.1
World production	160.0	243.0	87.0	114.0	153.5	161.7	167.5
World consumption	150.3	173.0	109.0	134.9	139.9	118.3	151.8
Production surplus	9.7	70.0	—22.0	—20.9	13.6	43.1	15.7

Source: International Tin Study Group.

Figure 14
PRODUCTION OF CRUDE OIL, COAL, BAUXITE AND TIN
CONCENTRATES IN INDONESIA
(In thousands of metric tons)

	Crude Oil	Coal	Bauxite	Tin
1938	7,398	1,456	245	27
1941	7,142	2,029	180	52
1946	302	76	...	6
1947	1,113	223	245	16
1948	4,326	537	438	30
1949	5,930	662	678	29
1950	6,415	799	531	32

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics.

Figure 15
EXPORT OF RUBBER FROM INDONESIA
(In gross tons)

	Estates	Smallholders	Total
1938	171,175	149,039	320,214
1939	223,275	187,479	410,754
1940	313,635	268,472	582,107
1948	103,353	176,435	279,788
1949	162,183	246,082	408,265
1950	160,529	486,415	646,944

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics.

Figure 16
INDONESIA'S EXPORTS AND IMPORTS OF RICE
(In thousands of tons of hulled rice)

	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1947	1948	1949
Exports	23	31	17	22	66	122	0	0	0
Imports	233	178	334	278	109	81	98	140	276
Export surplus	41
Import surplus	210	147	317	256	43	98	140	276

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics.

SHARE OF INDONESIA IN THE TOTAL WORLD EXPORT OF CERTAIN PRODUCTS BEFORE WORLD WAR II

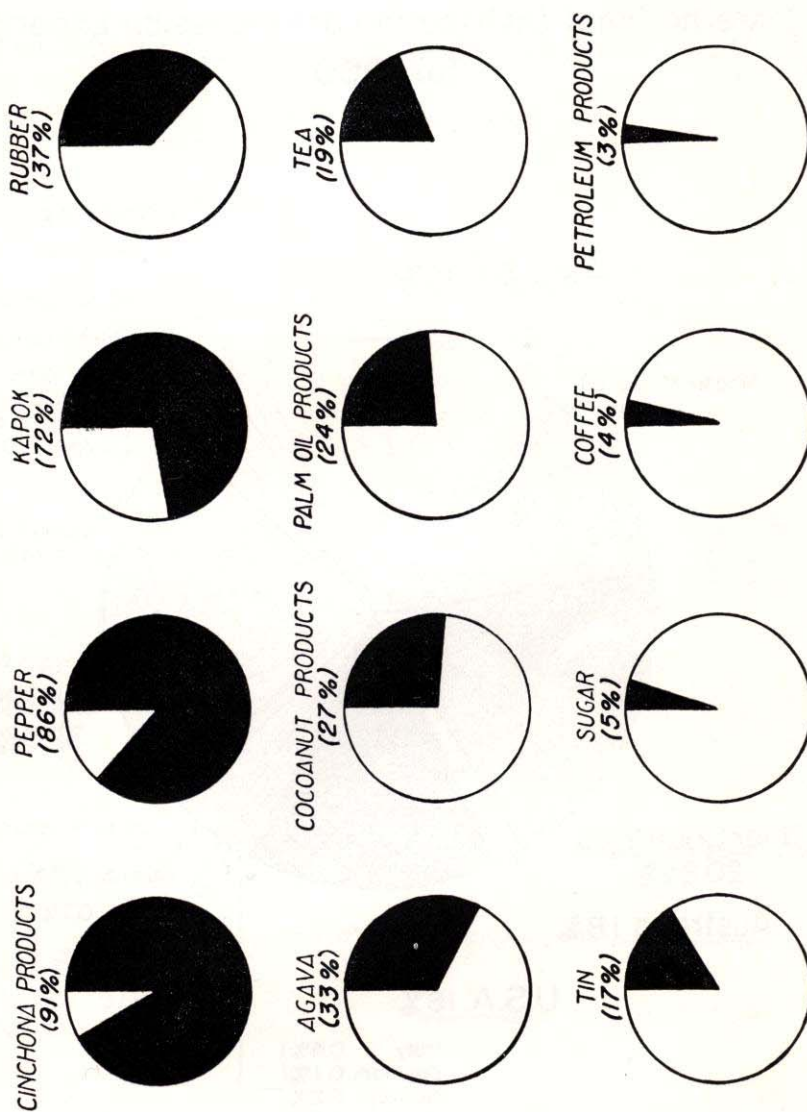


Figure 17

International Distribution of Indonesian Exports for 1950

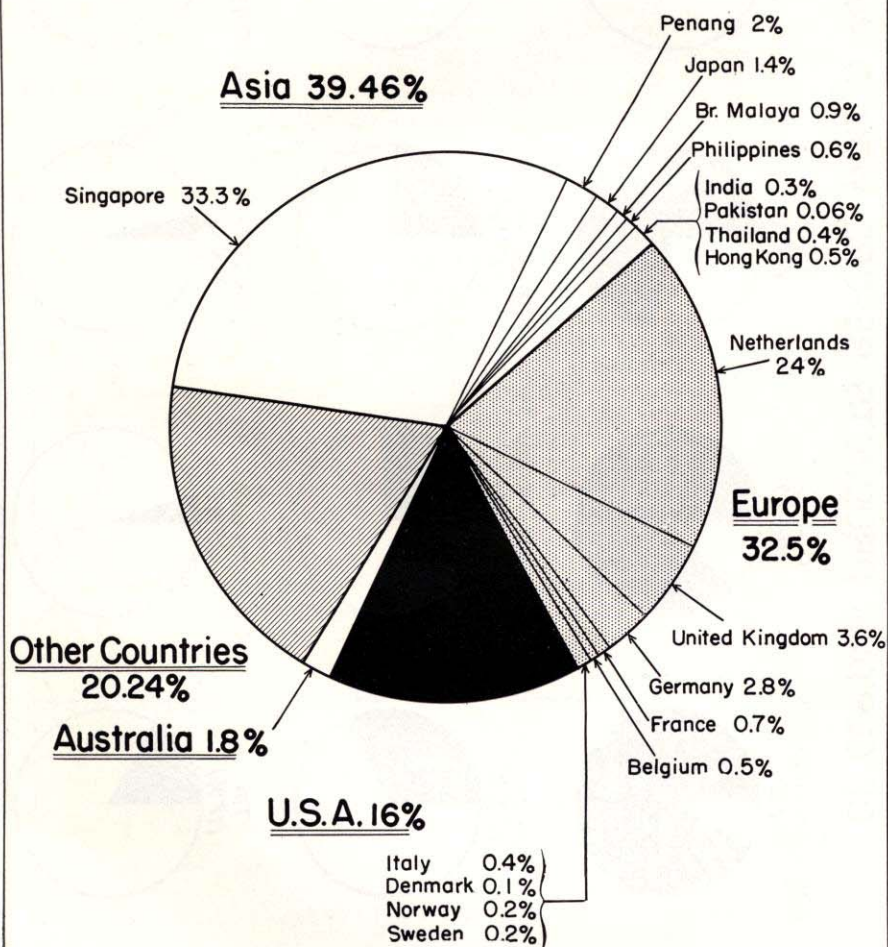


Figure 18

International Sources of Indonesian Imports for 1950

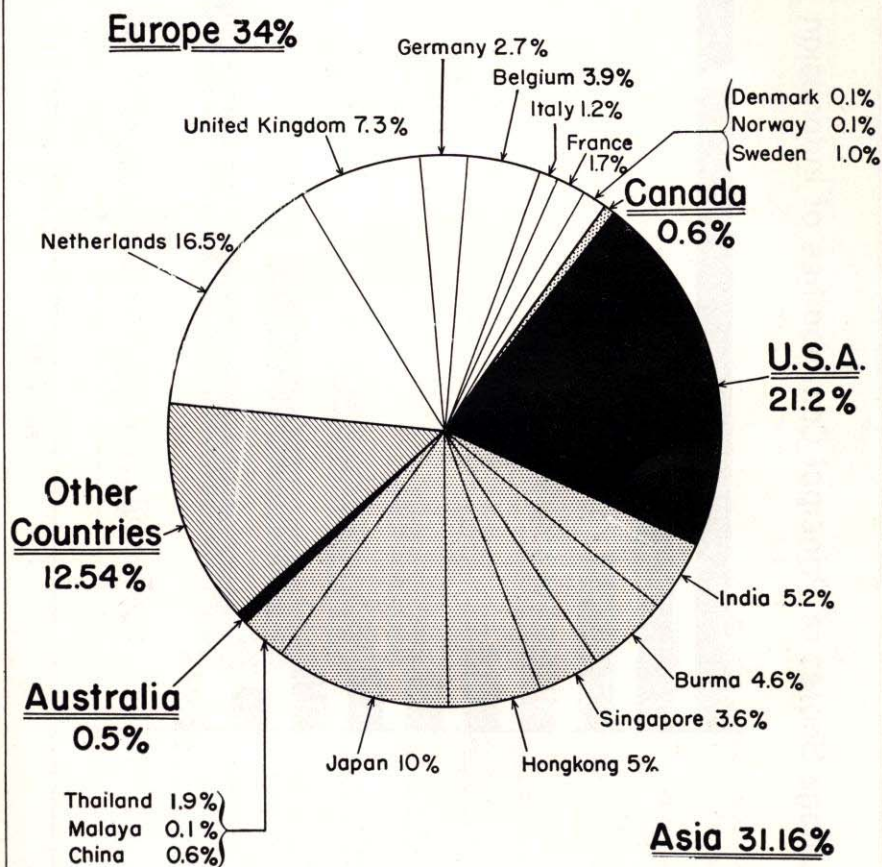


Figure 19

Value Percentage Shares of Principal Commodities of Indonesian Exports for 1950

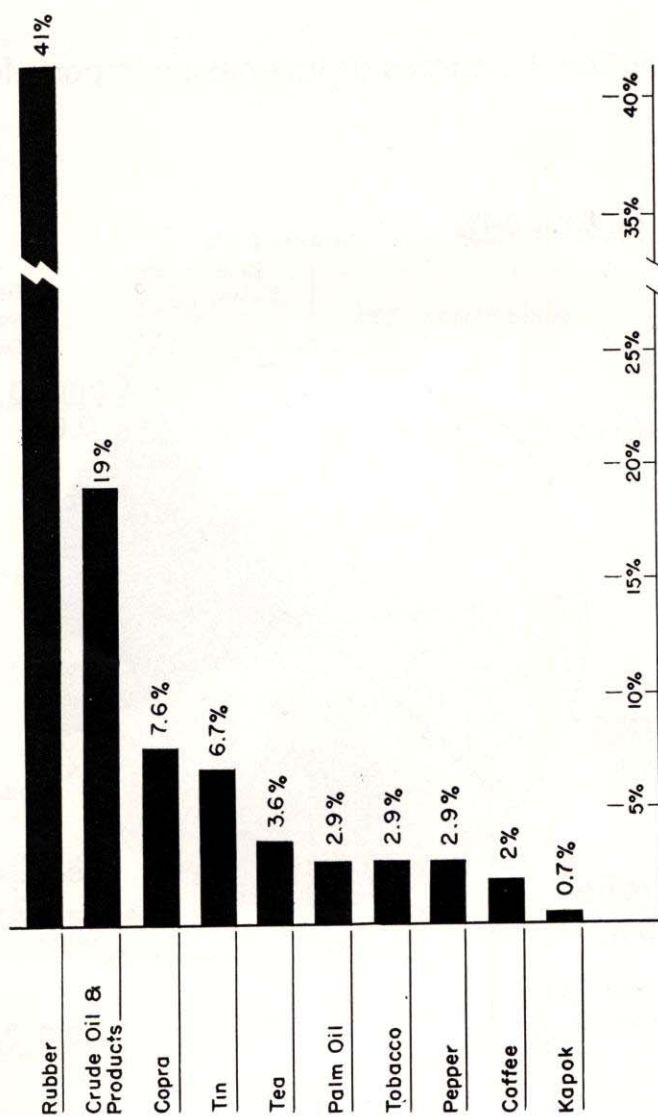


Figure 20

Value Percentage Shares of Main Groups of Indonesian Imports for 1950

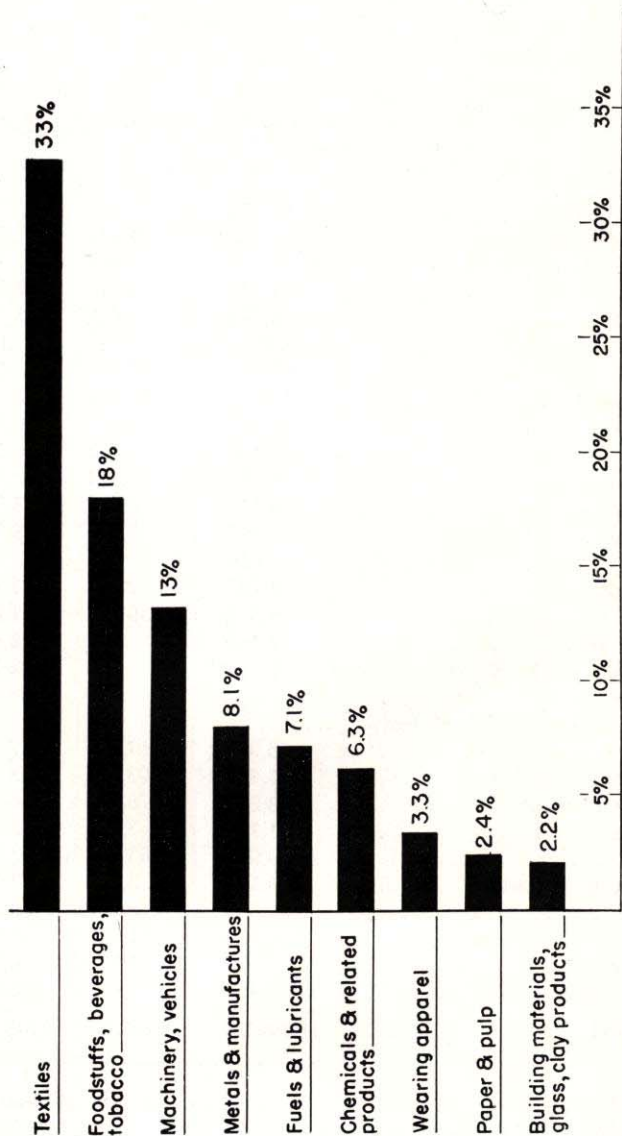


Figure 21

Figure 22.
TOTAL INDONESIAN EXPORTS
(Volume in metric tons*)

	Average 1936-41	1948	1949	1950
Areca nuts	58,573	9,414	4,930
Cinchona bark	6,688	4,236	2,598	2,179
Citronella oil	469	446	399
Coffee	67,048	2,379	5,253	13,678
Copal	14,368	3,682	5,833	6,817
Copra	430,232	242,246	315,922	282,092
Copra cakes	66,873	22,691	24,797	56,206
Crude oil and products	5,978,639	3,849,498	5,692,268	5,896,295
Damar	12,155	3,126	3,541	4,261
Fish	4,143	32	179	461
Hard fibers	94,982	6,921	2,940	4,628
Hides and skins	6,279	2,483	1,908	3,296
Kapok	21,595	5,797	8,263	7,357
Mace	816	494	503	457
Nutmeg	4,187	2,752	3,140	2,710
Palm oil	199,557	39,907	101,861	98,937
Palm kernels	33,662	28,654	24,096
Pepper, black	52,110**	975	2,727	6,313
Pepper, white	829	83	924
Quinine products (excl. bark)	57	68	202
Rattan	33,983	17,765	22,294	24,287
Rubber, estate	251,410	103,355	162,183	160,529
Rubber, smallholders	218,284	176,435	246,082	486,415
Shells	1,734	3,021	3,657	3,637
Sugar	1,059,925	63,922	42,632	1,496
Tapioca products	280,147	3,201	2,622	84,093
Tea	81,340	9,406	23,924	32,117
Tin ore (in tin content)	36,750	31,971	31,091	31,190
Tobacco	37,702	1,212	8,351	12,484
Miscellaneous products	1,850,826	586,423	895,672	953,531
TOTAL	11,068,225	5,185,315	7,648,906	8,223,150

In comparison with the pre-war averages, the general decline in recent export figures reflects productive difficulties due to war damage and lack of capital and personnel, as well as a shift in emphasis from the production of traditional items to oil, tin and rubber.

* One metric ton = .98421 long tons or 1.10231 short tons.

** Includes pepper, white.

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics.

Figure 23
TOTAL INDONESIAN IMPORTS
(Volume in metric tons*)

	1938	1948	1949	1950
Meat and meat products.		9,199	10,630	2,784
Milk, butter and cheese.	27,077	24,155	42,988	24,555
Fish and fish products.		7,906	5,390	14,771
Rice, hulled.	334,206	139,865	276,162	279,829
Wheat flour.	85,334	63,223	68,617	50,875
Vegetables.		6,271	6,876	2,915
Sugar, syrup, candies.	2,664	1,736	1,323	1,632
Cloves.	5,706	5,774	7,728	10,755
Leaf tobacco.			3,448	4,018
Tobacco products.		1,671	2,045	1,341
Chem. and drug preps.		26,956	33,012	43,650
Coal-tar dyes.	2,187	597	969	1,909
Pigments and paints.			2,436	2,266
Cosmetics, soap, etc.			2,852	1,477
Fertilizers.	122,400	35,041	59,424	71,976
Tires and tubes, all.	1,561	2,114	2,847	2,684
Wrapping paper.	43,047		9,329	11,189
Cigarette paper.	1,240		1,551	2,092
Yarns, cotton.	7,517	6,763	7,773	15,207
Thread, cotton.	1,070	576	630	785
Sarongs, etc., ctn.	859	220	425	473
Piecegoods, cotton, all.	51,791	34,729	34,608	47,599
Wearing apparel, textile.		1,921	3,095	2,129
Gunny bags.	55,817	10,324	11,912	12,862
Crude oil and products.	169,821	1,003,890	1,736,183	1,432,471
Cement.	120,977	78,583	175,087	127,551
Tableware (clay, glass).	17,566	7,487	6,428	8,694
Iron and Steel, all.		63,484	123,670	55,751
Reinforced rods.		9,322	11,446	7,940
Tinplate.	27,484		5,724	5,350
Roof material (galv. iron).		3,284	11,271	8,291
Structural steel.	2,394	6,662	6,717	2,387
Nails, all kinds.	14,671	5,457	12,144	7,045
Agric. and forestry tools.		595	1,750	2,286
Household items (iron, aluminum).		5,824	4,069	4,543
Engines, industrial machines, etc.		25,245	32,222	19,765
Engines, combustion.		2,566	4,999	4,414
Agricultural machinery.	98	181	282	219
Office machines.	272	310	376	294
Dynamos, electrical machines, transformers.		1,729	3,297	1,668
Electric bulbs.	396		146	158
Radio receivers.	520		225	157
Wires, cables (insulated).		5,474	4,310	2,987
Vehicles, spare parts.	8,495	24,250	29,905	5,629
Bicycles, motor bikes.		2,780	4,985	2,517
All other articles.		297,946	261,458	240,589
TOTAL.		1,924,110	3,032,763	2,550,479

For purposes of comparison, as many import figures as possible have been given for the pre-Republic years of 1938 and 1948. All figures for those years are not available inasmuch as previous authorities used different commodity classifications.

* One metric ton = .98421 long tons or 1.10231 short tons.

Source: Central Bureau of Statistics.

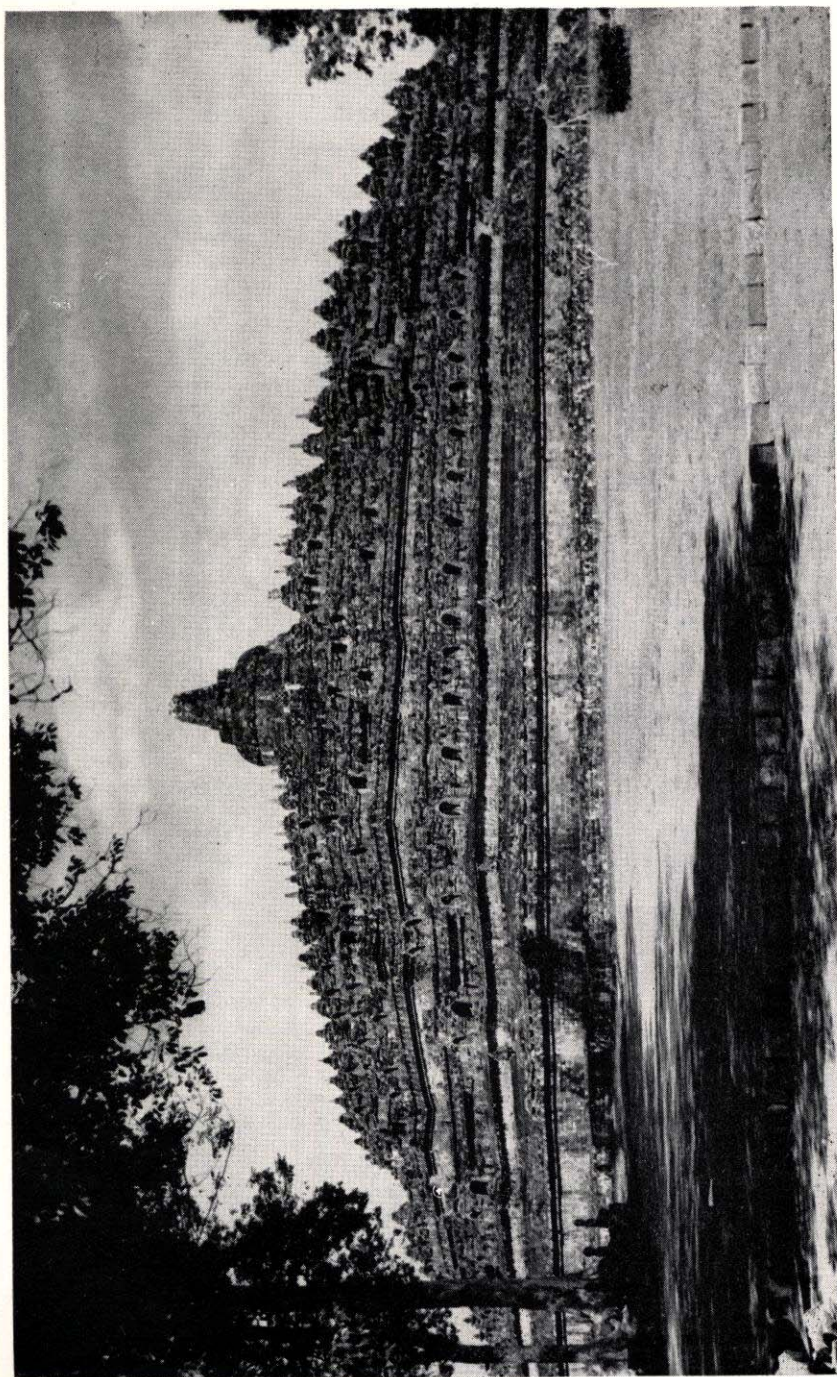


Figure 24. BOROBUDUR: 9TH CENTURY HINDU-JAVANESE TEMPLE NEAR MAGELANG, JAVA.

PART V

THE CULTURE

The history of Indonesia reveals the successive waves of immigration which have come from both East and West in the wake of conquest or trade. Since the beginning of the Christian era Indonesia has felt the impact of the Hindu, Moslem and Western European cultures. Each has left its imprint, in varying degrees, upon the indigenous social structure of the islands.

The varying degrees in which these foreign influences have affected the different geographical areas of Indonesia, has resulted in an uneven cultural development and a rich variety in modes of artistic expression and social customs. Beneath these superficial differences, however, there is a common core of ideas, beliefs, and attitudes shared by all Indonesians.

Adat Law

This fundamental basis of the social order lies in the "adat" law. A legal tradition closely allied to the historical and social experiences of the different islands, "adat" law sets forth the principles of conciliation and mutual assistance around which Indonesian society has evolved.

There has developed a considerable body of this "adat" law, regulating the ownership and disposition of property, inheritance rights, marriage and family relationships, local government by an elected council, the rights and position of women, and social organization.

Language

The Indonesian language is basically an expanded and modernized form of the Malay tongue.

Originally, Austronesian was the great combination of languages spoken by the people of the Pacific island world— from Madagascar in the west to Easter Island off the coast of South America, and from Formosa in the north to the Maori region of New Zealand.

Among the components of this parent language family were the Malay tongue (spoken on the Malay Peninsular) and various dialects like Javanese, Achinese and Sundanese, spoken by peoples inhabiting parts of the Indonesian archipelago.

Malay was eventually used by foreign traders in their dealings with the people of the area and it not only emerged as the common language in the Indonesian orbit, but in the process it became jargonized. To this ungrammatical *lingua franca* was applied the term, "Bazaar Malay," distinguishing it from the pure Malay language.

Although Indonesians kept alive their native dialects, usage of Bazaar Malay was so widespread that the original pure Malay was selected by modern philologists in their search for a common and official Indonesian language.

This rather narrow Malay language base was broadened to fit modern needs by borrowings from the various Indonesian dialects, as well as from Sanskrit, Dutch and Arabic.

The resultant *Bahasa Indonesia* is the official language of the Republic of Indonesia.

Religion

One of the fundamental guarantees of the Indonesian Constitution is freedom of religion.

About 90 percent of the Indonesian population adhere to the Moslem faith. The people of Bali, however, have remained completely Hindu in religion and culture, and along with Buddhists, make up an approximate six percent of the population.

Lebaran is the most important Moslem religious holiday. Occurring at the end of the Islamic fasting month, it symbolizes the purification and cleansing of the body and soul, and is an occasion for new clothes, festive foods, and greetings between friends and relatives.

About three and a half percent of the population are Christians, the converts of Western European missionaries.

Of all contacts between East and West, the work of these Christian missionaries has done most in cementing the common bond of brotherhood between the respective peoples.

Missionary efforts have been directed toward the mundane as well as the spiritual welfare of the people. They have built and equipped schools, hospitals and clinics. Their doctors, nurses and teachers have striven to bring the advantages of modern medicine and education to the under-developed inhabitants of isolated islands.

Christianity was first introduced on Sulawesi and in the Moluccas during the 17th century. At present there are Christian communities on all islands but the largest concentration is to be found in Sumatra's Batak area.

The most recent estimates place the number of Indonesian Christians at slightly more than two and a half million: 2,059,491 Protestants and 737,208 Roman Catholics.

Indonesian Women

A scant 50 years ago, emancipation of Indonesian women still belonged to the future and although ancient custom permitted education up to the twelfth year, such learning was available only to the relatively few daughters of wealth and nobility.

Raden Adjeng Kartini, born 1879, was the first to espouse the cause of Indonesian women and the first to initiate the abandonment of out-moded taboos against feminine education. Before she died during child-birth in 1903, she had opened a school for girls beyond their twelfth year. After Kartini's early death, her cause was carried to eventual fulfillment. Her birthday, April 21st, has become a national holiday in Indonesia.

In today's Republic, women have achieved complete emancipation. The Constitution guarantees them full and equal rights with men—the right to vote, conduct business and own property. Full and legally-unlimited educational facilities are open to them. Polygamy is coming into general disfavor.

Women have flocked to the medical, legal and teaching professions and in the new state, many of them hold public office as mayors, parliamentarians and even cabinet members. Chief among the latter has been Doctor Maria Ulfah Santoso, twice Minister of Labor and Social Affairs in Sjahrir cabinets.

Women's organizations, which have long and successfully fought for their freedom, have now turned their efforts toward implementing the new social and political rights under the leadership of such well known women as Suwarni Pringgodigdo and Rasuna Said.

Among the organizations established since the first all-Indonesian Women's Congress was held in 1912, have been:

- Indonesian Young Women's Organizations
- Association of Women in the Republic of Indonesia
- Women Laborers' Organization
- Association of Catholic Women
- Indonesian Christian Women's Association
- Association of Islam Women

The Ministry of Education and Culture has formed a Department of Women's Affairs for the purpose of giving guidance to Indonesian Women.

Education

Guaranteeing the right to universal education, the Indonesian Constitution states that the "speedy introduction of general compulsory education" should be one of the aims of the Republic.

The inadequacy of the colonial system of education is emphasized by the pre-war illiteracy rate among the Indonesian people of 90 percent.

The Republic of Indonesia's new educational blueprint calls for immediate and all-out efforts along two major lines:

- 1) A short-term and intensive drive to bring the 3R's to the illiterate millions.
- 2) A long-term program designed to establish a modern and complete educational system for the citizens of the future.

In implementing Phase One of this Mass Education Plan, the Government of Indonesia has combatted illiteracy by every known method of dissemination, in addition to the traditional tools of education. Such methods include radio, posters, films, slides and voluntary aid by all types of organizations. By early 1950 it was estimated that ten million illiterates had been taught the arts of reading and writing.

In carrying out the second phase of the Plan (for a formal educational system) great strides have been made in enlarging the physical facilities and increasing personnel.

A minimum of 220,000 elementary school teachers will be required for the new system—the first six, or primary years of which will be compulsory. At present there are only 70,000 teachers. Out of an estimated ten million of school age, only four million can now be accommodated, even though many schools are operating on a two-shift basis. Teacher training has been emphasized and 4,000 new classrooms became available in August 1951.

Secondary schools are divided into two separate sections:

- 1) Vocational and technical (usually terminal education).
- 2) College preparatory.

The full secondary school course takes six years, with evaluations of the students after each two years of study.

On the higher levels, universities have been expanded and founded (especially in Law, Economics and Medicine) and at present advanced education is offered at:

- 1) University of Indonesia: Founded immediately after World War II by amalgamating existing autonomous colleges. Is the largest institution of advanced education, with its various faculties located in Djakarta, Bandung, Bogor, Makassar and Surabaya. Student Body: 6-7,000. Faculty Members: 179. (*Page 26.*)

- 2) Gadjah Mada University: Founded 1946, Djokjakarta. First university with all-Indonesian faculty. Student Body: 1,300. Faculty Members: 90.
- 3) National Academy: Founded 1949, Djakarta, to offer curricula in vocational training, social sciences and literature.
- 4) Pantja-Sila University: Scheduled for opening in 1951 at Padang, Sumatra, with Schools of Law, Economics and Sociology.
- 5) Economic Academy: Being planned at Djakarta for advanced training in commerce and industry. Financed by both Government and private funds.
- 6) Islam University: Founded 1946, Djokjakarta. First modern university based on Moslem culture and beliefs; has Law, Economics and Teaching Colleges.

Hygiene and Public Health

The greatest problem in improving health conditions lies in the severely limited number of trained personnel, including both doctors and nurses. The present estimated average is only one doctor for every 60,000 people (United States ratio: 1-800) and there are only about 150 annual medical school graduates. Thus until the personnel shortage can be alleviated, great stress is placed upon foreign aid programs such as the ECA-financed health teams.

The greatest efforts now being made are in the field of preventive medicine, with special attention to maternal care and child health.

Intensive campaigns are showing considerable success in combating endemic diseases such as yaws, malaria, tuberculosis and plague, through the use of mobile medical teams. (The World Health Organization and The International Children's Emergency Fund provide considerable assistance in carrying out these programs.)

Half a million people have been examined for yaws in the last ten months and nearly 80,000 cases have been treated. It is estimated that at least 12 million people will be reached by the anti-yaws campaign within the next few years.

Art

Indonesian art was highly developed as early as the beginning of the Christian era and was deeply influenced by the Hindu civilization. In spite of later Moslem and Western European influences, this Hindu-Indonesian tradition in art persisted until the beginning of the 20th century.



Figure 25. SRIMPI: ANCIENT JAVANESE COURT DANCE.



Figure 26. MODERN HOUSING: SURABAJA, JAVA.

This tradition developed an anonymous community art which was highly stylized and stereotyped. It almost exclusively depicted scenes from the great Hindu epics, the *Ramayana* and *Mahabharata*, which illustrated the struggle between the forces of good and evil.

Just prior to World War II, many young artists began to develop a different style through the adaptation of Western techniques and a new art, based on universal values, has emerged. While it is strongly influenced by Western ideas, there are indications of the development of a specific style of expression to depict the ideals and life of the new Indonesia.

Literature

The beginning of the 20th century also marked a renaissance in Indonesian literature, sparked by the development of the new national language.

The traditional Indonesian and Dutch influences were cast aside in favor of a more realistic style which reflected the struggle for independence. But although the first Indonesian language novel was published in 1929 by Takdir Alisjahbana, editor and co-founder of the monthly periodical, *Pudjangga Baru* (New Poet), the new literature did not develop freely until release from Japanese oppression in 1945.

The more recent development of the novel, short story and new forms of poetry (e.g., sonnets and free verse) has been rich and accelerated. It is a young and vigorous literature, clear and vivid in expression, realistic in style.

Some of the outstanding contemporary poets and novelists: Chairil Anwar, Takdir Alisjahbana, Asrul Sani and Rivai Apin.

Dance, Drama and Music

The dance, drama and music are all integral parts of a single art in Indonesia and play a vital role in life throughout the islands.

The **dance** is essentially dramatic, illustrating traditional stories and ancient legends. It is designed to be watched, rather than for community participation, and although new dances are continually being introduced, the traditional dances (originally performed at courts) have been retained. They are closely associated with the religious influences of the Hindu period.

The costumes of the performers are traditional, with gestures highly stylized and the faces of the dancers retaining an immutable and detached expression. The roles are signified by make-up and costume, and the general theme is usually the conflict between good and evil, spiritual and carnal.



Figure 27. BATIK FABRIC.

Of all Indonesian dances, Balinese and Javanese dances are the most popular. Although related, each has a different style and creates a different mood, but both use the same leg-technique (the turned-out thighs, legs and feet typical of Hindu sculpture) and the same stylized movements of the hands. The music, called *gamelan*, is basically alike: the same five note scale and four-four rhythmic arrangement. Great differences, however, are found in mood, tempo and intensity of movement.

Balinese dancing and music are spontaneous, intense and dramatic; continually broken by sudden stops and fractional pauses, only to be renewed by rigorous and passionate movements.

There are over 200 Balinese dances alone and all have local variations.

Javanese court dances, in contrast, evolved amid the Oriental feudal tradition of royal palaces and developed an aristocratic bearing, moving with a restrained dreamlike gravity. (Page 66.) Other forms of the dance-drama are the mask plays (based on ancient Indonesian legends) and the *Langendriya*, cultivated only at the court of Surakarta. The latter is a drama based on legendary episodes of the Madjapahit tradition in which all roles are sung and danced by women.

The music supplied by the aforementioned *gamelan* orchestras is an integral part of the dance drama, reflecting the moods and actions of the dancers in harmony with the development of the story.

Gamelan orchestras usually consist of light percussion instruments like the drum (*kendang*) and gong; and string instruments such as the *rebab* and zither.

Among other types of orchestras: the *angklung* (consisting entirely of instruments made from bamboo tubes in graduated lengths); and the *suling*, or flute. (Flute bands are popular on Ambon.)

Drama forms include the *wayang* puppet plays (known in Indonesia since the 11th century and thematically based on Hindu epics); the *wayang golek* (three-dimensional wooden puppets usually depicting Moslem heroes); and the *wayang purwa* (two-dimensional shadow plays reflecting Hindu epics).

Still very popular in Indonesia, puppet plays have been adapted to illustrate political and social problems, and have been used with considerable effectiveness in stimulating participation in the literacy campaign.

Crafts

Textiles: *Batik* is a process of dyeing by the application of wax to those parts of the cloth not to be dyed. This process is repeated for each color used in the pattern. (Page 68.)

Ikat is a more complicated textile process in which the threads are dyed before weaving to form the pattern. Those threads not to be dyed are tied off, and the process is repeated for each color. Usually the warp or woof are solid colors, but in some islands both the warp and woof are dyed in this manner. The dye sometimes runs into the threads tied off, giving a soft, fluid quality to the color pattern.

These textiles are used for garments for both men and women, and in former times, certain patterns were reserved for use only by the nobility or on ceremonial occasions. They are also used extensively for decorative purposes in the homes.

Woodcarving: An almost-universal art in Indonesia, it is both decorative and religious in motive. The craft produces utilitarian objects like bowls and platters, as well as figures of ancient gods and legendary heroes.

Silverwork is a highly developed craft in Java, Sumatra and Bali. Items include jewelry and ornamental containers of very intricate design.

Ivory and Horn: Used for kris- and sword-handles and sheaths.

Brass: Largely utilitarian objects, such as lamps, and cooking utensils.

Fiber Weaving and Basket Work: Especially important in Sulawesi, Sumatra and Kalimantan, using rattan, palm leaves and bamboo strips. Items include sleeping mats, hats, baskets and bags.

Beadwork: Bags, belts, ceremonial ornaments and garment decorations.

Philosophy

All these cultural factors —racial impacts, religious influences, indigenous beliefs, impulses and skills— all these factors have synthesized to mould the average Indonesian of today. He is the product of thousands of years of contact with various external cultures, a long history of never-ending cultural impact and subsequent absorption. Down through the centuries he has known the influences of the Hindu, Moslem and Western European cultures.

The resultant Indonesian cultural pattern is thus a mixture of many and varied components, and it is not coincidental that a nation which

has been a crossroads for so many different ways of life should produce a people who possess an elastic and adaptable mentality; a people who believe deeply in religious and political tolerance, in humanitarianism and equality.

Nor is it coincidental that these qualities are embodied in the Pantja-Sila, the Five Principles upon which the Republic of Indonesia has been built. For they are the qualities which are both the basic principles of the state philosophy, and the fundamental beliefs of the Indonesian doctor, the laborer, the political leader. They represent the belief of all Indonesians in the right of man to his own religion, freedom and politics.

These cultural characteristics have been submerged, perhaps, during the unhappy turmoil of the past decade— a period which has been called the “awakening of the East.” Yet they remain as fundamental characteristics, and they will be asserted in the conduct of foreign relations, just as they have been asserted in the building of the new Republic of Indonesia.



Figure 28. PARTIAL AIR VIEW OF ONE OF THREE INNER HARBORS AT TANDJONG PRIOK, DJAKARTA'S PORT.

PART VI

THE ISLANDS

Indonesia's thousands of islands can be classified in six main islands or islands groups— a purely arbitrary grouping not necessarily implying cultural or administrative significance.

The six sub-divisions: 1) Sumatra; 2) Java; 3) Lesser Sunda Islands (chiefly Bali, Lombok, Flores, Timor); 4) Kalimantan (Indonesian Borneo); 5) Sulawesi (or Celebes); and 6) the Moluccas Group.

In the following presentation of data concerning each of the six arbitrary entities, all population figures are estimates, computed on the basis of the last (1930) census and the accepted 1.5 percent annual population increase. (Necessary preoccupation with the pressing problems of establishing the new democracy have prevented any more-recent census.)

In the sections dealing with population and area, the following symbols have been used: \square = area in square miles; **P** = population; and **P/D** = population density per square mile.

MEG designates the main ethnic groups represented on each island. Tribal names in ordinary type are those of the Proto-Malay race, while those in italics indicate people of the Deutero-Malay race.

In addition to the products enumerated for each of the entities, rice, fruit and vegetables for domestic consumption are also grown in virtually all areas.

Finally, asterisks (*) denote principal cities.

Sumatra

The "Young Giant" of Indonesia is the fifth largest island in the world. Only within the past 75 years has its potential wealth been opened up and during that time great strides have been made in its development. The tin and bauxite deposits are among the most important in the world, while the coal, petroleum and rubber produced by the island are vital to the national economy.

\square — 182,859; **P**— 10,464,000; **P/D**— 57.2

MEG— *Achinese, Coastal Malays, Menangkabaus, Rejang Lampong and Bataks.*

Products— coal, petroleum, tin, bauxite, iron, cement, tobacco, rubber, tea, fibers, palm oil, coffee and copra.

Topography— a jagged mountain chain runs the length of the island on the west side, sloping off to swamps and broad plains in the east . . . traversed by numerous rivers.

*Palembang— P-143,000 . . . inland port 50 miles up Musi River in southeast corner . . . Sumatra's largest city and commercial center (oil and Malay trade hub) . . . chief industries: shipbuilding, rubber refining, pottery, engraving . . . city of canals and creeks in low lands, most dwellings raised on stilts . . . ancient center of Sriwidjaja Empire.

*Medan— P-100,700 . . . modern 70-year-old city . . . northern shipping center (through 16-mile-distant port of Belawan Deli) . . . on east coast approximately 281 air miles from northern tip . . . shares in Malay trade.

*Padang— P-70,500 . . . central west coast seaport . . . site of Asia's largest cement factory.

Java

The heart of modern Indonesia, Java is a land of mountains and cultivated rice terraces; of industry and cities. It is also the rich treasure house of the Hindu-Javanese culture, resplendent with Buddhist temples, the pageantry of ceremonial dress and dream-like Javanese court dances.

The most densely populated of the islands, Java supports two-thirds of the archipelago's people on only seven percent of the total land area. In addition to being one of the main producers of petroleum, tea and cinchona, it supplies most of the nation's rice. (Yavadwipa, the island's early name, is Sanskrit for "rice island.") During the long struggle for independence, Java was the beacon and prime mover of the nationalist movement. It now includes the island of Madura.

□— 51,032; P— 52,756,000; P/D— 1033.8

MEG— *Sundanese, Javanese and Madurese.*

Products— coffee, tea, cinchona, rubber, sugar, petroleum, tobacco, kapok, fibers, corn, cassava, cocoa, rice and salt.

Topography— a volcanic mountain chain extends down center of island (uninterrupted in western half, isolated peaks in eastern portion) sloping off to alluvial plains in north and south . . . smaller streams, rather than large rivers, predominate.

*Jakarta— P-2,250,000 . . . national capital at mouth of Tjiliwung River on northwest coast . . . governmental, commercial and cultural center . . . largest city and port in Indonesia . . . air, rail (*Page 30*) and sea hub . . . modern quay

and warehouse facilities in adjacent harbor of Tandjong Priok—seaplane base; fishing harbor; stone breakwaters form outer harbor with 525-foot entrance; protected 6-million square feet of anchorage in 3 inner harbors (*Page 72*) for vessels drawing 27, 30 and 40 feet, respectively . . . Kemajoran Airport major link on European-Oriental runs . . . chief industries: shipping, export-import, banking, tea processing, textiles, rice and cinchona refining . . . site of Catholic Cathedral; Meteorological Bureau (one of the earliest scientific institutions in Orient); teaching, medical, philosophy and law faculties of the University of Indonesia; Radio Djakarta (most powerful in Southeast Asia).

*Surabaya— P-1,800,000 . . . second largest city and port in Indonesia . . . important naval base, trade and industrial center on Mas River, northeast coast opposite Madura . . . chief industries: machine shops, shipping, shipbuilding, assembly plants, sugar and oil refineries; glass, electric light and cigarette factories . . . site of Schools of Dentistry, Law, Economics and Medicine.

*Djakakarta (or Jokjakarta)— P-1,500,000 . . . handles food supply for central Java . . . some commerce, industry (cigar-cigarette factory and fishing) . . . but mainly a spiritual and cultural center (nearby 11th century Prambanan Hindu temples) . . . capital of Republic from 1946 to 1950; nerve center of resistance; captured by Dutch in December, 1948 . . . site of Gadjah Mada, centuries-old palace of the Sultan of Djokjakarta, donated by Hamengku Buwono IX to house National University . . . famed for silver work, wood carving, leather goods.

*Semarang— P-250,000 . . . commerce and trade seaport for Central Java on north central coast . . . chief industries: fish-breeding and metal-working.

*Bandung— P-200,000 . . . “the Paris of Java” . . . holiday and tourist resort on high plateau in northwest . . . site of Indonesian University’s Technical Faculty, Pasteur Serum and Vaccine Institute, and Bosscha Observatory . . . chief industries: railroad workshop; rubber, canning and quinine factories.

*Surakarta (Solo)— P-200,000 . . . on Solo River, 35 miles northeast of Djokjakarta . . . rivals that city as center of Hindu-Javanese culture . . . famed for rigidly traditional Javanese court dances and music . . . handicrafts: leather goods, gold work, batik printing and figurines.

*Bogor— P-124,000 . . . residential and scientific city 35 miles south of Djakarta . . . site of Agricultural Experimental Sta-

tion, Forestry Institute, Laboratory for Rubber Research, Laboratory for Chemical Research; Agricultural and Veterinary Colleges, world-famed 275-acre Botanical Gardens . . . rubber, glass, textile and consumer goods factories.

*Magelang— P-60,000 . . . tourist and agricultural city 30 miles northwest of Djokjakarta . . . site of immense 9th century Hindu-Javanese Borobudur temple. (*Page 60.*)

Lesser Sunda Islands

East of Java lies the Lesser Sunda Island group, composed mainly of Bali, Lombok, Sumba (Sandalwood Island), Sumbawa, Flores, and Timor—the eastern half of the last-mentioned being a Portuguese colony. This group begins the transitional area: The appearance of Australian influence in climate, flora, and fauna. Verdant Bali and Lombok possess the lush characteristics of the Sunda Islands (Sumatra, Java, Kalimantan) which is influenced by the wet West Monsoon. Contrastingly, the effects of the drier East Monsoon from Australia, become increasingly apparent in the eastern islands. Thus, Flores and Sumba are quite dry, while Timor has the most barren landscape of the Archipelago. The flora and fauna, moving progressively eastward, also become more Australian and less Asian.

Bali is the tourist paradise, the peaceful agricultural land of Balinese dancers and Hindu religion. Conforming to the climatic transition, enterprise changes to the raising of European corn and cattle on drier Flores; to horse breeding on arid Timor.

□ (Bali/Lombok)— 3,973; P— 2,289,000; P/D— 576.1

□ (Timor Group)— 24,449; P— 2,071,000; P/D— 84.7

MEG— *Balinese* and *Alorese*

Topography— the volcanic Sunda Arc (mountain chain from Asia) approaches its terminus. Sharp volcanic mountains predominate, sloping off to cultivated hill-crop fields in the west, and to scorched steppes in Timor. (Volcanic Mount Kelimoto on Flores is famed for its three-colored crater lakes.)

Products— tea, sugar, tobacco, indigo, peanuts, rice, coffee and coconut products; in eastern islands, cattle, corn, horses (Sumba produces the famous Sandalwood horse breed) and ikat fabrics woven from locally made cotton threads.

*Cities— Den Pasar, Singaradja (Bali), Waingapu (Sumba), Ruteng (Flores), and Kupang (Timor) are the principal cities of the island group. They are comparatively small, provincial in

character, but serve vital functions as ports-of-entry and distributive centers for the inter-island supply system and export centers.

Continuing eastward beyond the Lesser Sunda Islands, the Archipelago dwindles to a thin line of widely-separated islands, then suddenly encounters the vast bulk of New Guinea, the second largest island in the world. The eastern half of this little-explored colossus is administered by Australia. Control of the western half, Irian (an area approximately the size of California) is presently a matter of contention between the Government of the Netherlands and the Republic of Indonesia which claims it as part of the Archipelago for geographical, ethnic and historical reasons.

The Indonesian Archipelago proper thus forms a southeasterly curving arc. Lying in the hollow of that arc, between the island chain and the Philippines to the north, are three more land masses which contain the bulk of the total Indonesian land area. From west to east, they are Kalimantan (part of the Asiatic land shelf); Sulawesi (Celebes) and the Moluccas, each of the latter two being northern branches of the Asiatic mountain chain (Sunda Arc) forming the Archipelago proper. The Moluccas are also the islands where the terminal portions of this Sunda Arc meet the end of the Sula Arc, the ancient mountain chain which runs south from Japan through the Philippines.

Kalimantan (Borneo)

Kalimantan, the fabled home of the orangutan, is the third largest island in the world — a land of jungle and broad, endless rivers. The northern portion (British Borneo) is administered by England while the southern five-sevenths is Kalimantan, or Indonesian Borneo. Previously the island's value has rested on its agricultural products. The future of this under-developed island, however, very probably lies in its minerals.

□ — 208,286; P — 2,725,000; P/D — 13.1

MEG — *Coastal Malays, Macassarese, Buginese and Dajaks.*

Topography — mountainous interior (chiefly to the north) flattens to broad plains and swamps. Numerous and lengthy rivers, important for communication and transportation, inundate lowlands during rainy seasons.

Products — Pepper, sugar, rice, corn and cassava; rubber, timber, rattan, cordage fibers, palm oil and copra; diamonds, gold, petroleum and coal.

*Bandjarmasin— P-100,000 . . . chief southern harbor city built on delta island between Barito and Martapura Rivers . . . most of city on piles and behind dikes . . . chief industries: diamond cutting, saw mills, coal mining, brick and earthenware ovens, shipping.

*Pontianak— P-45,000 . . . western industrial-trading city at mouth of 700-mile-long Kapuas River . . . also diked and piled . . . chief industries: shipbuilding, trading, saw mills, silk weaving and dyeing, rubber, sugar and oil refineries, basket weaving.

Sulawesi (Celebes)

East of Kalimantan within the Archipelago's arc lies the four-pronged, spider-like island of Sulawesi. Its weird topography makes for countless bays and a seafaring people whose main enterprise is plying the coastal and interinsular trade routes.

Strangely, the fauna and flora of Sulawesi are unlike those of any other Indonesian island. Along with the Moluccas, deep isolating sea chasms make it doubtful that Sulawesi was ever a part of the Asian or Australian land masses, as were the remainder of the islands.

□— 72,986; P— 5,365,000; P/D— 73.5

MEG— *Macassarese, Buginese, Tarajas and Menadonese.*

Topography— predominantly mountainous, two ridges form the island's four peninsulas— the products of a violent prehistoric upthrust. The mountains often drop abruptly into the sea, honeycombing the coast-line with harbors and inlets. Rivers are scarce, the aforementioned geological process having formed numerous and large lakes. (Lake Tempe supplies 80 percent of Indonesia's salted and dried fresh water fish.)

Products— principally fish, asphalt, timber and copra; also spices, cotton, palm oil, coffee, sago, rice, corn, rattan, cordage fibers, tobacco, sugar and cocoa . . . gold, iron, nickel, petroleum and coal are mined experimentally.

*Makassar— P-100,000 . . . southern trading center.

*Menado— P-50,000 . . . northern port and oldest center of Christianity in Indonesia.

Moluccas

The original "Spice Islands"— the easternmost islands of the Archipelago whose fabled wealth of cloves, mace and nutmeg attracted the first traders and explorers in the early 16th cen-

ture. (Spices exercised the same magnetism in that era as did coffee, rubber and oil in succeeding centuries.) It was here that trade with the West and thus colonialism began.

Chief among the islands of this mainly agricultural group are Halmahera, Buru, Ambon, Ceram, Tanimbar Isles and Aru Isles. (The aforementioned disputed territory of Irian is often included in this group.) During World War II, the islands served as important air bases.

□— 191,682; P— 1,199,000; P/D— 6.25

MEG— Alfurs, Papuas and Ambonese.

Topography— mountainous with heavy jungle and little plain area . . . many coral islands and ring-shaped reefs (atolls).

Products— principally spices, also timber, palm oil, copra, sago and cocoa.

***Cities**— As in the Lesser Sunda Islands, the cities are relatively small and provincial, serving as trade and supply centers. Among the larger ones: Morotai, Ternate (Halmahera), Nimlea (Buru), Ambon (Amboina), Piru (Ceram) and Saumlakki (Tanimbar Isles).

Situation

Indonesia extends from 6° north latitude to 11° south latitude and from 95° to 141° east longitude.

Distances

Distances in nautical miles (1 nautical mile = 1.15 statute miles) from Djakarta to:

Amsterdam (via Suez Canal)	8,647 miles
Capetown	5,212 miles
London (via Suez Canal)	8,534 miles
New York (via Gibraltar)	10,398 miles
San Francisco	7,641 miles
Sydney (via Torres Strait)	3,906 miles
Tokyo	3,204 miles

Timetable

The figures in *italics* indicate the time on the next day, and those in **bold face** type the time on the preceding day.

Honolulu	San Francisco	New York	Amsterdam	Paris	Berlin	Moscow	When in Djakarta it is:	Tokyo	Sydney
0830	1030	1330	1850	1830	1930	2130	2 o'clock	0330	0430
1030	1230	1530	2050	2030	2130	2330	4 "	0530	0630
1230	1430	1730	2250	2230	2330	0130	6 "	0730	0830
1430	1630	1930	0050	0030	0130	0330	8 "	0930	1030
1630	1830	2130	0250	0230	0330	0530	10 "	1130	1230
1830	2030	2330	0450	0430	0530	0730	12 "	1330	1430
2030	2230	0130	0650	0630	0730	0930	14 "	1530	1630
2230	0030	0330	0850	0830	0930	1130	16 "	1730	1830
0030	0230	0530	1050	1030	1130	1330	18 "	1930	2030
0230	0430	0730	1250	1230	1330	1530	20 "	2130	2230
0430	0630	0930	1450	1430	1530	1730	22 "	2330	0030
0630	0830	1130	1650	1630	1730	1930	24 "	0130	0230
Number of hours and minutes earlier than in Djakarta:							Hrs. & mins. later than in Djakarta:		
17:30	15:30	12:30	7:10	7:30	6:30	4:30	0	1:30	2:30

Figure 29