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Front: Children in Yap

(photographed by Toru Aoyama)

# **The Sixth Islands of the World Conference**

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From 16 to 20 October 2000, I attended the 6th Islands of the World Conference, held by The International Small Islands Studies Association (ISISA) on the Isle of Skye, off the Western coast of Scotland (See <http://www.islandstudies.org/conf/>). The main theme of the conference was “Small Islands in the Third Millennium: Sharing Solutions to Common Problems” Nearly 150 people from about 40 countries and regions participated in this conference. This was the second time a member of the KURPCI attended the conference since the 5th conference held in Mauritius two years earlier.

There were two sessions in which I gave presentations. In the Islands of Culture and Cultures of Islands session I read a paper entitled “Yap Day: A Holiday in a Paradise?” on the cultural significance of Yap Day in Micronesia. In the session of Japanese Perspective on Islands Studies, I gave a presentation of the activities of the KURPCI and its ongoing research project. Mr Shinichi Kyan of the Research Institute for Subtropics, Prof. Shunsuke Nagashima of the Japan Society of Island Studies, and Dr Hideki Hasegawa of the National Institute of Japanese Islands were the other presenters in this session.

Other sessions covered such topics as politics, economics, health care, education, fisheries, environment (including biodiversity, coastal zone management, waste minimization), tourism, and information and communication technology. The one which deserves special mention was the Island Networking session held on the whole third day. The session offered a rare opportunity to overview the current state of island studies throughout the world, as representatives from the University of Prince Edward Island, Nordic Atlantic Co-operation (NORA), Baltic Sea Seven Islands Co-operative Network, Island and Small States Institute, and other institutes and organizations from the Atlantic and Pacific regions reported the island-related activities and researches in the respective regions.

A group of researchers from Taiwan also attended the conference for the first time and approached the Japanese researchers with a strong interest in island studies in Japan. We had friendly exchanges of information and opinions outside the session hours. During the discussion it became clear that the formation of a network of researchers on islands studies in the East and Southeast Asia would be useful. The absence of a network of this kind had been apparent in the Island Networking session mentioned above. I hope this seminal exchange between Japanese and Taiwanese researchers would lead to a regional collaboration in the future.

The next Islands of the World Conference will be held on the Azores Islands in two years time.

# **Populist Geopolitics and Self-determination in the South Pacific: Australia, Indonesia, East Timor—and West Papua**

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Defying the opinion of pundits and governments around the world that they would remain part of Indonesia for ever, the East Timorese managed to break free of Indonesian occupation in 1999. which They had, of course, tenaciously resisted annexation from the beginning. By declaring independence in November 1975 Fretilin (*Frente Revolucionario de Timor Leste Independente*) signalled that Indonesia's "second order" colonialism was not acceptable in place of Portuguese "first order" colonialism. While Timor's own resistance was decisive in keeping the independence hope alive for 24 years, there were more proximate causes of success (albeit with a terrible price) in 1999. A key one was the popular outrage generated in Australia by close media coverage of the outrageous behaviour of the Indonesian army and its brutal local militia puppets, especially after the Timorese people had voted overwhelmingly for independence on 30<sup>th</sup> August.

As the militias embarked on their rampage of killing, destruction and mass deportation it was clear that TNI (the Indonesian armed forces) were taking revenge against a whole people who had "ungratefully" (the word was often heard) rejected a whole generation of Indonesian rule. Perhaps they also hoped to reverse the referendum verdict. TNI's terrible message was obviously meant to be noted mainly in Papua and in Aceh, but perhaps also elsewhere within the republic where secession was stirring. However Australian public opinion responded with a kind of equivalent ferocity of moral indignation which is still not really understood in Jakarta. Australian wrath was directed primarily against the Indonesian army leadership, and in particular the armed forces commander and defence minister, General Wiranto. He was identified in Australian eyes as the real "rogue soldier" who was actually orchestrating the mayhem, notwithstanding his professed impotence to control matters. At the height of the crisis engendered by TNI's atrocities, a front page article in Australia's leading quality newspaper (the *Sydney Morning Herald*) actually called for military intervention in Timor regardless of whether the Australian government succeeded in its diplomatic efforts to assemble a peace keeping force under UN authority. In the end the government did secure crucial American and IMF backing, and InterFET (International Force East Timor) was able to land in Dilli under Australian leadership on September 20<sup>th</sup>, paving the way for UNTAET (the UN Transitional Authority in East Timor) and the prospect of East Timorese independence later this year.

Australia's forceful intervention in East Timor flew in the face of 25 years of official Australian diplomacy towards East Timor, beginning in the early days of the Portuguese revolution of 1974 which first put the future of East Timor on the regional agenda. In brief Australia's policy for these 25 years was to pay lip service to self-determination for the Timorese while covertly and sometimes openly encouraging Suharto's Indonesia to occupy

and annex the territory. Australia fully recognized Indonesian sovereignty as early as 1979, despite the fact that none of its major allies or trading partners in Europe, North America or East Asia did so. Thereafter Canberra went out of its way to protect Indonesia from censure at the UN for its gross record of human rights abuse in Timor, and it also negotiated a maritime boundary and resource exploitation regime with Indonesia in the “Timor Gap” between the coast of Western Australia and East Timor which must now be humiliatingly repudiated and renegotiated with UNTAET acting on behalf of the Timorese.

However there was one significant if belated departure from this long policy of appeasement. It came in December 1998 when Australian Prime Minister John Howard raised the possibility of an eventual referendum on self-determination for the people of East Timor in a letter to then Indonesian President Jusuf Habibie. Thus did government policy finally bend a little after years of relentless criticism on the part of NGOs, support groups, newspaper editors and columnists, academics and many others directed at Australian complicity in Indonesian crimes against the East Timorese people. Habibie’s astounding response was to announce an early referendum on independence, thus initiating the process which is now heading East Timor towards freedom.

The Timor outcome poses an obvious question for Indonesia, Australia and the peoples of the South Pacific at the beginning of a new millennium is: can all of this happen all over again somewhere else even closer to Australia, namely in West Papua/Irian Jaya? After all, Irian is an Indonesian province which has been at least as much abused, exploited and alienated as East Timor, and for longer. Can the magic of what I call “populist geopolitics” work a second time to bring an end to another historic injustice, Indonesia’s aggressive occupation of Dutch West New Guinea almost 40 years ago?

As with East Timor there was also Australian complicity in the Indonesian takeover of West New Guinea. In 1949 Dutch diplomacy succeeded in holding on to the territory after transferring the rest of the Netherlands East Indies to an independent republic of Indonesia. Thereafter the Australian government supported Dutch efforts to bring the territory to self-government and independence. But Australia and Holland eventually succumbed to pressure from their American ally, who had concluded by 1961-2 that resisting President Sukarno’s campaign to annex West New Guinea by force would radicalize Indonesian politics to the political benefit of the Communist Party and the geopolitical benefit the People’s Republic of China. Thus under the New York Agreement of 1962, West Papua briefly became a ward of the United Nations, was occupied by Indonesia in 1963 and became her 26th province in 1969 following a fraudulent “Act of Free Choice” which was subsequently if half-heartedly endorsed by the UN General Assembly.

Again as in Timor, during succeeding decades the Australian government went out of its way to support Indonesian rule in West Papua, and the record of that rule or misrule is not pretty. Local resources and land have been ruthlessly expropriated and exploited for the sole benefit of the center, and in particular the Suharto family and its Chinese and local cronies. At the same time the demographic balance in the province has been drastically shifting in

favour of “spontaneous immigrants,” mostly traders and business people from Sulawesi, and “official” agricultural transmigrants from Java and elsewhere, who collectively threaten to make the 1.3 million Melanesians of West Papua (total population is 2.1 million) a minority in their own land.

Yet again as in Timor TNI has played its part in violently crushing all manifestations of the long-denied Papuan desire for self-determination and national reorientation towards the Melanesian brothers and sisters of the South Pacific. Australian as well as Indonesian pressure on Papua New Guinea has ensured that the nearest Pacific brother has shown little sympathy for the West Papuans and their cause, or their potential role as an independent Pacific Island nation, at least officially. But this situation is changing. Since the fall of Suharto in May 1998 the West Papuans themselves have used the new democratic space in Indonesia to issue several strong demands for independence, even though this has recently landed most of the top independence leaders in jail on charges of subversion. And several Pacific Island Forum nations including Nauru and Vanuatu are responding with calls for self-determination in Papua. The long-standing Papuan guerilla resistance movement, the OPM (*Organisasasi Papua Merdeka*), has shown that it is prepared to renew the military struggle which has been in abeyance since 1998 if need be. Following the probably fatal weakening of Gus Dur’s Presidency early in 2001, the situation inside Papua is ripe with the possibility of further large-scale repression and atrocities, and indeed there were bloody clashes throughout the year 2000 between the police, the military and Indonesian settlers on one hand and OPM units, Papuan youth militia (*Satgas Papua*) and innocent Papuan bystanders stigmatized as OPM on the other hand.

Is a second really East Timor on the way? There are many straws in the wind. The Australian government has apparently decided to bury and forget its own “Timor lesson,” and has reverted to the appeasement strategy of the still-vocal “Indonesia lobby” centred around the mandarins and former mandarins of the Department of Foreign Affairs and Trade. It is loudly supporting Indonesian sovereignty in Papua, and proclaiming the likelihood of a bloodbath throughout Indonesia if the Papuans insist on fighting for independence. The same alienated and sceptical groups of Australian opinion makers identified above are pointing out in reply that a bloodbath has gone on for a generation and a half already in Papua. They argue that the Indonesian government’s inept and incoherent handling of the secession issue in Papua, and also in Aceh-- not to mention the Muslim-Christian conflict in Maluku, means that responsibility for any future bloodbaths in Indonesia may rest heavily on foreign governments which offer aid and comfort to Jakarta and its present policies, or lack of them.

But would a new round of Timor-style violence in Papua trigger a Timor-style outcome—another redrawing of the geopolitical map of the South Pacific? Could Australia become in effect strategic guarantor of two small, struggling, ill-resourced and ill-prepared new nations on Indonesia’s borders—nations whose governments would inevitably be dominated by independence movements which Australia has done its best to discourage and discredit for most of the last four decades? I believe the answer is yes. The Australian people will not put up with a repetition of the Timor violence 250 kms offshore, and the Indonesian government is showing almost daily in Papua

that it only understands violent methods of sustaining its rule there. Meanwhile this government and its armed forces remain weak, divided, distracted and dependent in the wake of the 1997-98 Asian financial meltdown and their own persisting failure to launch political, economic and military *reformasi* convincingly. The Timor mix in Papua—TNI, police and perhaps soon militia atrocity on a large scale; new and perhaps even greater Australian popular outrage; US willingness to let Australia give a lead on Indonesia policy (already signalled by President George W. Bush's new Secretary of State), and the possibility therefore of applying IMF pressure on Jakarta by withholding the indispensable credits needed to keep the Indonesian economy from sinking under the waves—all of this can create a strong impetus for UN intervention to right the wrongs of the 1960s, and there is little doubt that the Australian army and treasury would be in the forefront of any such intervention once again.

Such an outcome—and the outcome of such an outcome—are uncertain of course. But the possibility that the Australian people will force their government once again to shoulder unwanted and onerous new geopolitical and humanitarian burdens should be clear. There is however a potential large upside in all this. If Papua is indeed detached from Indonesia in this way the constant destabilization of Australia's other Melanesian protégé and former colony, Papua New Guinea, by Indonesia could be brought to an end. Ever since the 1970s, the 700 kilometer border between PNG and Irian Jaya has been a site of three way tension and conflict between the PNG Defence Force, the OPM and TNI, with recurring and, in the mid-1980s, large-scale refugee problems.

There is also a significant difference between the Timor and Papua cases. The Timor commitment is already showing signs of becoming onerous for Australia, as the UN seems likely to greatly scale down its own commitment early in 2002 while unrepatiated refugee and “rogue” militia problems in West Timor remain unsolved. In Papua by contrast, in the absence of a land border with the rest of Indonesia, there is a clear possibility of insulating the territory from Timor style Indonesian interference. On this perhaps slender basis Australians can contemplate with some optimism what looks like a looming new crunch with Indonesia.

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# **The Economic Vulnerability Index and Small Island Developing States**

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Many small island developing states (SIDS) face special disadvantages associated with small size, insularity, remoteness and proneness to natural disasters. These factors render the economies of these states as very vulnerable to forces outside their control - a condition which sometimes threatens their very economic viability. Many times the GDP (or GNP) per capita of these states is such that it conceals this reality.

## **The Vulnerability Indicators**

The present author (Briguglio, 1995, 1997) constructed an economic vulnerability index based on a number of variables, including:

- A high degree of economic openness rendering these states particularly susceptible to economic conditions in the rest of the world.
- Dependence on a narrow range of exports, giving rise to the usual risks associated with lack of diversification.
- Dependence on imports, in particular energy and industrial supplies, exacerbated by limited import substitution possibilities.
- Insularity, peripherality and remoteness, leading to high transport costs and marginalization.

It was hypothesised that the higher the incidence of these variables in a given country, the higher is the degree of vulnerability in the same country, everything else, including GDP per capita, remaining constant.

## **Standardising and Weighting the Indicators**

The standardisation procedure is required to render the index insensitive to the scale of measurements used, since the variables which compose the index are measured in different units.

A composite index, as its name implies, is some sort of average of a number of sub-indices. When a number of sub-indices, representing different dimensions of vulnerability, are added together to yield a single valued indicator, the issue of weighting the sub-indices arises. The simplest method of combining the effect of the sub-indices is taking a simple average. This would be an equally weighted index. Such an approach has been used in constructing the UNDP Human Development Index (UNDP 1991). An alternative is to use different weights for each variable, on the assumption that the different variables have a different impact on vulnerability. Unfortunately,

in the case of most indices, there is no way in which such weights can be established on a *priori* grounds or on statistical grounds. The best one can do in this case is to assume different weights and compare the results.

The Commonwealth study attempts to circumvent the standardisation and weighting problems by using a multiple regression method. <sup>2</sup>

## Results

Briguglio (1995) ranked 114 countries according to vulnerability index and confirmed the assumption that SIDS tend to be more vulnerable than other groupings of countries. In general SIDS registered high vulnerability scores, whereas developing countries in general tend to register lower vulnerability scores. This result was reiterated in Briguglio (1997). Similar results were obtained by Chander (1996), Wells (1997), Crowards (1999) and Atkins et al (2000).

### Vulnerability and Economic Performance

It should be emphasised that the types of vulnerabilities represented in the Vulnerability Index are not related to the degree of economic performance. As a matter of fact, averages of GDP per capita and of the Human Development Index of different country categories indicate that SIDS as a group register higher values than larger developing states, although the former are characterised by a high vulnerability scores.

An issue that is related to this discussion relates to economic resilience. Resilience may be considered as the other side of the coin of Vulnerability. In the case of the Economic Vulnerability, resilience indicates the extent to which a country can bounce back from or absorb external shocks. Some studies (e.g. Briguglio) use GDP per capita as a measure of resilience.

The question arises here as to whether or not the scores on the vulnerability Index could be interpreted as an indication that economic vulnerability is the reason for the relatively economic success of many small states. The fact that many small states have done relatively well in economic terms, has prompted some authors to argue that being small and insular could be associated with some advantages, including, amongst other things, more flexibility in the face of changing circumstances, and a higher degree of homogeneity within the population, when compared to larger states.

However exposure to economic conditions outside one's control, and the other vulnerability indicators referred to above, cannot but be considered a handicap, everything else remaining constant. In this sense one could argue that the success stories of some small states could have been achieved in spite of and not because of their

inherent vulnerability conditions.

## Conclusion

In spite of its shortcomings, there are a number of benefits that can be derived from the construction of a composite Vulnerability Index, including that:

- a. the index can attract attention towards the issue of vulnerability of certain economies; and
- b. it presents a single-value measure of vulnerability based on meaningful criteria which can be considered by donor countries and organisations when taking decisions regarding the allocation of financial aid and technical assistance.

## Appendix

1. The standardisation method which is used in this study is based on the following formula:

$$V_{ij} = \frac{(X_{ij} - \text{Min } X_j)}{(\text{Max } X_j - \text{Min } X_j)} \quad i = 1,2,3; j = 1,2,\dots,114.$$

where:

$V_{ij}$  stands for the degree of vulnerability arising from the  $i$ th variable for country  $j$ .

$X_{ij}$  stands for the value of the  $i$ th variable included in the vulnerability index, for country  $j$ .

$\text{Max } X_j$  and  $\text{Min } X_j$  stand for the maximum and minimum value of the  $i$ th variable for all countries in the index. If a given country's vulnerability variable takes a value of  $X_{ij}$  equal to the minimum value of that same variable, the value for  $V_{ij}$  would be zero, and this would correspond to minimum vulnerability arising from that same variable. On the other hand, the greater the gap between the reading of a particular country's vulnerability variable and the minimum value of that same variable, the higher will be the value of  $V_{ij}$ , so that the country with the maximum value would have a vulnerability score of 1 with respect to that variable. In this manner, the index would take a value of between 0 and 1.

2. There are two main approaches in constructing the Vulnerability Index:

Approach 1. (a) standardise the variables (b) assign a weighting to each component and (c) sum the components. This approach was used by Briguglio, Crowards, Chander.

Approach 2. (a) assume that output volatility is a manifestation of vulnerability (b) carry out a regression with output volatility as the dependent variable and the component variables of the index as the explanatory variables (c) consider the estimated coefficients as the weights of the component variables, in their unstandardised format (d) sum the component variables using these weights (This approach was used by Wells and Atkins et al, for the Commonwealth Secretariat).

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## Research Seminars

April 24, 2000

**A Caribbean Experience: Diverse History, Culture and People with Emphasis on Barbados**

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Barbados is one of more than 7000 islands which stretches from the coast of Florida to the northern edge of Venezuela making up the Caribbean. It was first inhabited by Amerindians namely the Arawaks and Caribs before the Europeans arrived in 1627. The name Barbados is said to be derived from the Portuguese word "Los Barbados". It means the bearded ones and came from the numerous bearded fig trees (*Ficus citrifolia*) found on the island at that time.

The first settlement on Barbados was established by the English in 1627 and the island have remained traditionally British. Agriculture has always played a major role in the economic development of the island and no

crop has succeeded sugar cane. It was introduced into Barbados in 1637 after crops such as tobacco, cotton, cassava and maize proved unprofitable to the early settlers. The Barbados economy developed with the development of the sugar industry and this is quite evident throughout the island.

Today the economy is not so dependent on agriculture and sugar as tourism has taken over providing around 50% of the gross domestic product. Other industries providing economic benefits are manufacturing, light industries and financial services. Agriculture along with fishing occupies 15% of the labor force and it is as diversified as the economy. Along with sugar cane from which sugar and rum are exported, other crops such as Sea Island cotton, yams, sweet potatoes and a variety of fruits and vegetables are currently being produced on the island.

Barbados, having a size of 432sq km and a population of 264 thousand people gained independence in 1966. It has since gained the reputation as one of the most developed of the developing nations. Boasting a 98% literacy rate, an extensive transport and telecommunication system it is considered the hub of the Caribbean Islands.

May 26, 2000

### **Special Seminar: Social Homeostasis of Small Islands in an Island-Zone**

Program in Japanese in <http://cpi.sci.kagoshima-u.ac.jp/index.html>

June 26, 2000

### **West Papua in the New Millennium: Otonomi, Merdeka or Chaos?**

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The case of East Timor shows that it is indeed possible for disenchanted provinces to exit the Indonesian unitary state. In Timor 24 years of terrible abuses by the Indonesian state and the military and costly struggle by the people led to a climactic army-backed militia campaign of terror and destruction, but there is now at least a fair prospect of peace and independence under a United Nations guarantee.

Clearly the reformasi of the interregnum of President Habibie in 1998/9 did not mollify the East Timorese who chose independence when given the chance in the August referendum of last year. Will the West Papuans, with the East Timor example before them, and a history of almost equally terrible and much longer exploitation and human rights abuse behind them, now be satisfied by President Gus Dur's promises—promises of protecting human rights and granting special autonomy and ensuring a more just division of the revenues generated by exploitation of Papua's rich resources?

On the other hand, would or could even a fully reformed and effectively democratic Indonesian

government yield to the Papuan demand for independence?

The paper will argue that the "Indonesian" project has failed as decisively in West Papua as it did in East Timor, and that in order to avoid another Timor Indonesia will have to yield to the logic of the record of its own fatal abuses and failures among the Papuans, many of which are continuing. In other words independence will have to be conceded. The paper argues that this will prove the least costly outcome for all concerned, including the United Nations, with its history of conniving in the fraudulent Act of Free Choice in 1969, which delivered an unwilling Papuan people to "legitimate" annexation by Indonesia.

July 4, 2000

### **The Japanese Threat to Korea's Cheju-do Fishery: a Study in Meiji Diplomacy**

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#### Advance in fisheries in the Meiji Era

Japan's advanced fishing industry began to encroach on the Cheju-do island fishery in 1870. When Japan concluded a Treaty of Amity with Korea in 1876 both diplomatic and trading relationships were covered and a Japan-Korea Fisheries Agreement was concluded in 1883. But Japan's armaments and modern facilities posed a threat to the people in Cheju-do, and Japanese overfishing and other interventions not only exhausted fish stocks but also lowered people's sense of independence.

#### Prohibition of fishing

After the conclusion of the Treaty of Amity, the Korean government prohibited Japanese fishing in Cheju-do, and when a Japanese diving gear trader killed some local people a diplomatic affair developed and the period of the prohibition was extended until 1881. During this period, however, Japanese poaching and killing occurred continuously and Cheju-do actually became a Japanese fishing base even before Korea's annexation in 1910.

#### Occupation of Cheju-do after the fishing ban

After the lifting of the fishing ban, the confrontation between the Japanese and the people in Cheju-do became even worse. Especially in 1892, armed Japanese fishermen behaved violently—stealing and raping as well as killing. During this period, a Japanese warship cruised around the coast near Cheju-do in support of all the Japanese activities.

#### Relations between peoples

There were many conflicts in and around Cheju-do, even though Japanese activity was "legal" under the Treaty of Amity. On the other hand, people in Cheju-do did not have any problems with peaceful Japanese.

## Occupation by the Japanese

After the Japanese occupation of Cheju-do, many people lost their jobs. This led to Japanese domination of the economy. Many people looked abroad for work, and in 1903 there was a mass movement to Miyake Island, Japan.

## Korea extinguished in 1910

Because fisheries in the Korean Peninsula and Cheju-do were dominated by the Japanese even before 1910, Cheju-do and other Korean people have tended to move to Japan for more than 100 years.

September 4, 2000

## **Tourism Anthropology and the Island of Bali**

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Tourism is said to be 'a global twentieth century phenomenon.' Today, more than five hundred million people are traveling across borders for pleasure every year. We have been experiencing a so called 'tourism revolution' every half century, which started back with the popularization of domestic tourism in Europe in the 1860s. The latest revolution came with the era of mass tourism in the 1960s. While the harmful effects of mass tourism, such as destruction of nature and disruption of traditional culture, are often pointed out, a new, potentially revolutionary, kind of tourism, eco-tourism, is attracting a great deal of attention.

The anthropology of tourism first appeared as a distinct academic field responding to the phenomenon of mass tourism in the last half of the 1970s, and its pragmatic focus on the 'creation of tradition' and the 'restoration of ethnic culture' was an obvious one to expect. Equally understandable, many research roads in the anthropology of tourism lead to the island of Bali.

The number of foreign tourists visiting Bali has increased dramatically over the past few decades. Tourism in Bali started during Dutch colonial rule. The Balinese people found themselves discovering the value of their own traditional culture in the gaze of artists and tourists from the West, which also reinforced their strong identity as Balinese. After the Pacific War, mass tourism began with the opening of Denpasar international airport in 1969, and Bali became a model for the international tourism development program in Indonesia.

A new development in the anthropology of tourism in Bali today is the study of Japanese women married to Balinese men in Bali. The largest number of foreign tourists in Bali is now Japanese, of whom young women account for 80%. The number of these Japanese women who marry Balinese men has been increasing every year since the 1980s.

These women are now neither emigrants nor tourists, nor are they bound by a single set of social and

work values. The shift from a 'modernity' of male-, technology-, and production-centrism to a 'postmodernity' of glorified consumerism seems to be related to the phenomenon of increasing mixed marriages between Japanese women and Balinese men. The experience of these Japanese women in Bali can be taken as a case study to elucidate the postmodern situation in Japanese society generally.

November 27, 2000

### **Genetic diversity in taro, and the preservation of culinary knowledge**

Peter J. MATTHEWS

National Museum of Ethnology

In a paper delivered at the 12th International Symposium of the Society for Tropical Root Crops, in Tsukuba this year, I concluded that 'because different cultivars are used in different ways, preserving culinary knowledge is very important for preserving genetic diversity in taro, and vice versa: without the one, the other may become irrelevant'. When I first became involved in taro research, my main aim was learn about the origins and dispersal of taro through genetic analysis of wild and cultivated forms of taro collected from many locations. This required the establishment of research collections in New Zealand (Matthews 1984) and Australia (Matthews 1990). These collections could not be maintained beyond the period of the research projects. This led me to an interest in the issue of plant germplasm conservation. From my own experience and observation, it seems likely that the international transfer of research materials is frequently also responsible for the transfer of diseases. This is true even when quarantine procedures are followed, because these procedures are not actually based on any thorough knowledge of the fungal and viral diseases of taro. If international germplasm collections are both difficult and dangerous to keep, can support be generated for the maintenance of regional or local collections? Much has been said about the relative benefits of ex situ and in situ collection, but there is in fact no absolute distinction. At the level of a local district agricultural research station, ex situ maintenance of local cultivated plants is very close to being in situ. As we look from the international to the local, it is also evident that the amount of external funding available for research and for germplasm conservation decreases, in general. Ultimately, the survival of genetic diversity in taro or any other cultivated plant species must depend on the personal interests and motives of farmers and consumers - i.e. on local support and funding. From my experience with taro, two critical questions appear to be (i) is the plant actually liked as a food, and (ii) how effectively is traditional culinary knowledge being maintained, transferred, or developed?

In areas where few or no taros were previously grown, commercial trade may in fact increase cultivar diversity, if the newly introduced commercial cultivars are adopted by local growers. In other areas, existing diversity in local gardens has been and will continue to be lost as local production is abandoned and replaced by imported taro, or by other crops. In areas where taro has been long established, modern commercial production of the crop often

leads to cultivation of a smaller range of cultivars than were traditionally used. Nevertheless, we should not assume that genetic erosion is inevitable. Taro is mainly produced, sold and bought by people for whom the plant is already familiar, and specific information on how to use the sold product is rarely available for new buyers. Since most taro cultivars are poisonous unless cooked properly, it is difficult for new buyers to cook taro safely and well without personal guidance from an experienced cook. In general, cooking books cannot be relied upon for preparing the particular corm or leaf that a buyer finds - a survey of such books reveals wild variation in recommended cooking times. One of the major constraints for commercialising taro production is the great variation in culinary qualities of different local cultivars. Diversity in culinary knowledge is obviously important for the use of the many different forms of taro, but details of the relationship are not obvious.

These and related problems can be dealt with, in part, by local publication of preparation methods, for particular cultivars and markets. It might also be useful to establish and publish culinary principles for dealing with variable and unfamiliar taro products. The more conventional approach is for producers and distributors to develop standards and grading systems, and to promote a limited number of cultivars. In the case of Japan, most of the taro sold is graded by size and quality, and a small number of cultivars dominate the commercial market. Taro nevertheless remains a household vegetable crop in small gardens all over the country. With this Japanese example strongly in mind, it appears to me that the best way to preserve taro genetic diversity in situ, may be to promote (i) non-commercial household production of the crop, and (ii) the transfer of culinary knowledge to various kinds of written media, with special attention to the identification of appropriate cultivars for each food preparation method.

November 29, 2000.

### **Measuring the Economic Vulnerabilities of Small Island Developing States**

Lino BRIGUGLIO

The Islands and Small States Institute, University of Malta

(see page 6)

December 18, 2000

### **Some Characteristics of Yams (*Dioscorea* spp.) Introduced from Oceania**

Mitsuru Hayashi

Faculty of Agriculture, Kagoshima University

Water yam (*Dioscorea alata* L.) originated from South-East Asia is the one of the important food crop in the humid tropics where it is unsuitable to grow cereals. I have introduced many strains of the water yams from South = East Asia and Oceania to Kagoshima University and have carried out the morphological, physiological and ecological

studies on these yams. So I would like to mention about the utilizable studies for the year-round production and storage method of yams.

The enlargement of tubers begins for the shortening of the day length and/or the short-day treatment in the early and middle of growth stage. This result is considered to be reasonable since the beginning of growth and enlargement of tubers seems to relate to photoperiodic sensitivity, and hence tubers commence growth early. In contrast, late maturing strains have relatively high photoperiodic sensitivity.

Water yam has a specific growth response to gibberellins (GAs) which is one of the plant hormones. Exogenous Gas inhibits to the growth of above-ground parts and stimulates the thickening growth of tubers. Furthermore foliar spray of Gas significantly extends the period of a dormancy in tubers. In contrast, uniconazol-P (GAs synthetic inhibitor) promotes the growth of above-ground parts and inhibits the enlargement of tubers, and breaks the dormancy of yam tubers.

These results could be used for the development of cultivation technology in Oceania as follows:

- c. Extension of harvesting period by combination of early and late maturing strains.
- d. Year-round production used for short day treatment.
- e. Prolongation of dormant period and the improvement of storage of tubers by using GAs.
- f. Breaking dormancy of tubers and subsequent production of water yams by using uniconazol-P.

## **Symposium**

October 8, 2000

**The Forces of "Topos" between Sea and Land--Approaches from Southern Kyushu and Islands  
Jointly Organized by KURCPI and the Association of Japanese Geographers**

Program in Japanese in <http://cpi.sci.kagoshima-u.ac.jp/index.html>

## **Open Lecture**

October 1, 2000

**Life in Islands**

Reports on the various aspects of life on small islands in Japan and Micronesia.

**Culture and society in the Islands: "returned" young people have their say**

Tunenori Ikushima

Kikai Town

I was born in Kikai Island, moved to Kagoshima City for high school and then attended a university near Tokyo. After graduation, I lived in Taiwan and returned to Kikai Island when I was 32 years old. Although the Amami area

(including Kikai Island) has its own original culture and customs, the people there wanted to adopt the way of life of the Japanese mainland when I was a child. This affected my personality. For me, my original culture, Kikai nature, and communication with Kikai people gave me pride as an island person.

After I returned to island life, I engaged very much in cultural activity--publishing magazines, making a study of folk songs and dialects and organizing many events. But I sometimes felt uncomfortable, because island life is completely different to urban life. Although people in the islands are cheerful and friendly, there is little private time and a strong seniority system.

Recently, globalization and materialism has been introduced to my island, and we must now think how people in the islands can keep their originality in an age of internationalization, and continue to enjoy island life.

### **Joy in Island Life**

Akira Ohshiro

#### **Zamami Village Muraokoshi Section**

Zamami Village lies 40km west from Naha City, Okinawa. It consists of about 10 islands. A tuna fishery was the main industry in our village; however, it has been replaced by tourism because of the effect of the marine exhibition we held in 1975.

Our *Muraokoshi* Section, which is located in the village office to generate new activities, organizes many events to stimulate interchange between local people and tourists. Also, the scenery in our islands is very beautiful, with white beaches, coral reefs and clear seawater. Because tourists can enjoy island life, including outdoor sports and whale watching, throughout the year, their number has increased greatly. Marine leisure is especially popular, and 60% of tourists enjoy diving to watch and photograph beautiful fishes. A notable point in recent tourism is that the number of school excursions from large cities has increased. This is a very helpful thing for us in organizing new activities.

There is a lot of communication between nature, people, and culture in the islands. We locals have all lived long in the islands: however, they are still a mysterious thing for us. When we watch, listen to, touch, or try things in the islands, we can find another world. And we are offering these pleasures to the people of the whole world. "Joy in island life" is a mixture of pride, pleasure and dreaming.

### **Yap Day and traditional Yap culture**

Toru Aoyama

#### **Kagoshima University Research Center for the Pacific Islands**

Yap State is one the four states of the Federated States of Micronesia, which achieved independence in 1986 from the status of the American Trust Territory. The state consists of the Yap Proper with the Island of Yap as the center, and

groups of atolls called Outer Islands, scattered mostly in the Eastern half of the State. The Yap Proper, where the State capital Colonia is located, is the administrative and commercial center of the State, with the area size of 100 square km (84% of the total land area of the State) and the population of 11,178 (62% of the total population of the State). The common language of the State is English, because the language of the Yap Proper, Yapese, and those of the Outer Islands, belonging to different language groups, are mutually incomprehensible.

The Yap State observes Yap Day on 1 March as an official holiday of the State and holds a celebration on the Yap Proper around the day every year. This originated from the day to celebrate the traditional culture of Yap and encourage its preservation, which initially started during the era of the American Trust Territory. This emphasis on preservation is still recognized in the fact that only Yapese language is used during the Yap Day celebration despite the increasing number of foreign tourists at the site.

The main features of the celebration are traditional Yapese dances. Traditional Yapese dances are group dances performed by about twenty or so dancers, classified into four basic types: sitting dance, standing dance, marching dance and bamboo stick dance. Traditionally a dance was performed by either male or female dancers but recently a dance by a group of mixed dancers has become common. The dancers are in traditional attire with their upper part adorned with ornaments and males in loin clothes and females in a grass skirt. No musical instruments are used for a dance but a dance is accompanied by the main singer's chant telling a story which the dance represents.

Yap Day has been instrumental in preserving a cultural heritage in the Yap Proper. However, the inhabitants of the Outer Islands cannot participate in the celebration because they are not allowed to dance in the Yap Proper according to old custom. Also the celebration itself is carried out with little consideration for the spectators from outside Yap, thus missing an opportunity to present the significance of the Yap culture. If Yap Day ever contributes to the formation of a new cultural identity which encompasses the Yap Proper and the Outer Islands, the way Yap Day is celebrated need to be reconsidered.

## **Tourism and Traditional Culture in Yap**

Sueo Kuwahara

Faculty of Humanities, Kagoshima University

Yap has long been known as the 'Island of Stone Money' but its tourism history is very short. The number of tourists increased from a mere one thousand or so in 1985, the year before its independence as one of the Federated States of Micronesia, to more than five thousand in 1995. The United States and Japan are the top two countries for tourist numbers.

The special feature of Yap tourism is marine tourism, and recently Yap has become especially well-known for its giant manta diving site. Another possible magnet for tourists is Kadai village, which is the only Yap village to promote cultural tourism, accepts tourists from hotels twice a week, and offers a package tour which includes a guided village tour, a dance and a demonstration of basket weaving using coconut leaves. Village tourism

started with the restoration of the old village. The villagers in Kadai undertook in the voluntary work of repairing stone money, stone paths and the men's house every Saturday morning. Elderly women teach traditional dances and basket weaving to the young children. Traditional culture is also taught in school as a part of extracurricular activity.

The economy of Yap state currently suffers from a high degree of overimporting. Yap people are therefore putting great hope in tourism and also the fishing industry as means of economic development. However, they are not doing as well in tourism as previously expected, partly because Yap people are rejecting tourism on the pattern of Saipan and Guam for fear of the disintegration of their traditional culture. They rather put more stress on the inheritance of a traditional way of life by the next generation.

It has thus become a great challenge for the Yapese to achieve economic independence while at the same time giving due importance to tradition.

## **Colloquium**

January 15, 2001

### **The Second Colloquium on the Autonomous System of Small Islands in an Island-Zone**

#### **Development and nurturing the talent in fisheries in Solomon Islands**

Yoshiharu Wakabayashi

University of Kochi

#### **Present state and problem in fisheries in Okinawa**

Fujio Ueda

University of Okinawa

## **Introduction on Laboratory**

### **THE ISLANDS AND SMALL STATES INSTITUTE**

#### **UNIVERSITY OF MALTA**

The mission of the Islands and Small States Institute is to promote academic study, and research on islands and small states and to conduct training on matters of interest to islands and small states. The Institute is based in Valletta, at the Foundation for International Studies of the University of Malta. The institute evolved from the Foundation's Islands and Small States Programme which had been set up in 1989. In 1993, the Programme was restructured as a University Institute with the principal aim of enabling the organisation to offer academic courses.

The Institute is governed by a board chaired by the Rector of the University of Malta, with the Chief-Executive of the Foundation for International Studies acting as Vice-Chairperson. The Institute's Director, currently Professor Lino Briguglio, acts as Secretary to the board. The other members of the Board are a person nominated by the Senate of the University of Malta and three scholars who are co-opted. The Institute also has a Scientific

Advisory Council, made up of scholars and experts of international repute.

The institute has organised many International Conferences on a variety of themes of interest to islands and small states, relating to the environment, the economy, banking and finance, education, culture, tourism, governance and others. It organised many workshops in collaboration with UNEP, the World Bank, the Commonwealth Secretariat, SOPAC and others. The themes of the workshops included Waste Management, Environmental Planning, Banking and Finance, Fresh water Management, Competitive Strategies and others.

The institute has been instrumental in the publishing of the Island Series by Cassell Pinter (London), and has contributed directly to the publishing of *Sustainable Tourism in Islands and Small States and Banking and Finance in Islands and Small States*. The Institute was also involved in the publication of the special issue of *World Development* on Islands and Small States (February 1993). The Institute has also published *The River Valleys of the Maltese Islands* Sylvia Haslam and Joe Borg and collaborates in the publication of *Insula - International journal of island affairs*. The institute publishes *Occasional Papers in Islands and Small States Studies* on an ongoing basis.

The Islands and Small States Institute offers a number of academic courses at the University of Malta including the Post-graduate Diploma in Education Management and Planning in Small States, the Master of Arts in Islands and Small States Studies, and the Ph.D. in Islands and Small States Studies.

### **The Master of Arts in Islands and Small States**

The Master of Arts in Islands and Small States studies extends over 1 year on full-time basis or two-years on part-time basis. It contains a taught component, for which 16 credits (about 250 contact hours) are assigned and a research component for which 14 credits are assigned.

Regarding the taught component, the candidate is expected to take 12 credits in a major area of study and 4 credits in a secondary area. The study areas include environmental studies, economics, education and public administration.

The research component consists of the writing of a thesis, to which 14 credits are assigned and following a course in research methodology. The thesis has to be on a theme associated with islands and small states studies.

The programme for the course being offered during the academic years 2000-2001 is shown below, where the major area offered is Environmental Studies and the secondary area is Economics.

#### **MA-ISSS: ENVIRONMENTAL STUDIES MAJOR AREA**

ES-01	C	Overview of Environmental Concerns for Islands and Small States	(4 credits)
ES-02	C	Principles of Ecology and the Bio-geography of Islands	(1 credit)
ES-03	C	Environmental Planning and Management for Conservation	(1 credit)
ES-04	C	International Environmental Law and Environmental Diplomacy	(1 credit)
ES-05	C	Geographical Information Systems	(1 credit)
ES-06	E	Waste Management	(1 credit)

ES-07	E	Environmental and Risk Assessment (1 credit)
ES-08	E	Biodiversity Resources and Islands (1 credit)
ES-09	E	Tourism and Recreational Planning (1 credit)
ES-10	E	Coastal Zone Management and Water Resources Management (1 credit)
ES-11	E	Climate Change and Sea Level Rise (1 credit)

#### ECONOMICS SECONDARY AREA

EC-01	C	Aspects of Microeconomics with Special Focus on Size Factors (1 credit)
EC-02	C	Aspects of Macroeconomics: Focus on Size and Openness Factors (1 credit)
EC-03	C	Environmental and Resource Economics (1 credit)
EC-04	E	International and Development Economics: Focus on Small States (1 credit)

#### RESEARCH COMPONENT

DT-01	O	Research methods and statistical techniques (2 credits)
DT-02	C	Dissertation under supervision (14 credits)

C = Compulsory; E = Elective; O = Optional

## Recent Publications

### South Pacific Study, Vol. 20, No. 2 (2000)

Muhammad ASHFAQ, Riaz Ul HAQ, Muhammad SALEEM and Amjad ALI: Effect of Antagonistic Microbial Application on the Population Density of Black Thrips, *Caliothrips indicus* BAGNALL and Yield of Mashbean, *Vigna mungo* L.

Naoyoshi NAMEDA: Apparent Magnitude of a Visible Star under the Hazard of Light Glare Pollution.

Machiko MURAKAMI, Katsuo TSUDA and Kanetosi KUSIGEMATI: Biological Studies of the Pests Feeding on *Gynura bicolor* (WILLD.) DC. (Asteraceae). III. List of Feeding Species, Seasonal Abundance and Damage-Occurrence in Kagoshima Prefecture in 1998 and 1999.

### South Pacific Study, Vol. 21, No. 1 (2000)

Machiko MURAKAMI and Kanetosi KUSIGEMATI: Biological Studies of *Nyctemera adversata* (SCHALLE) (Lepidoptera, Arctiidae).

Akira NAGATOMI, Nagahisa TAMAKI and Neal L. EVENHUIS: A New *Systropus* from Taiwan and Japan (Diptera, Bombyliidae).

Mahendra REDDY: The Economy, National Budget and Development in Fiji: A Case of Keynesian Economics, Neo-liberalism and Economic Gradualism.

Mahendra REDDY: Natural Disasters and the Island Economies: An Examination of the Economic Cost of Natural Disasters in Fiji.

# KAGOSHIMA UNIVERSITY RESEARCH CENTER FOR THE PACIFIC ISLANDS

APPOINTMENT AVAILABLE

VISITING RESEARCHER

The Research Center is engaged in interdisciplinary research activities concerning tropical Oceania and surrounding regions, and the staff carried out comprehensive studies under the common research subject, "Social Homeostasis of Small Islands in an Island-Zone". The Center will host one Visiting Researcher with a distinguished record of publications on some aspect of regional studies of above-stated areas. Once selected, the candidate will be appointed as a Visiting Professor or Associate Professor and take office for 6months to one year.

The candidate should undertake, during the term of their appointment, collaborative research with the staff concerning one of the following themes:

- b. terrestrial environments,
- c. organisms and resources in marine environments,
- d. conditions of health, and
- e. history and/or culture studies.

As a rule, the applicant should hold a Ph.D. or M.D.

An appointee can be granted a salary and research express equivalent to a corresponding staff member of Kagoshima University and round-trip travelling expenses as well as the right to use an office, equipment, library, and other facilities and services.

Detailed inquiries are always welcome and should be addressed to following:

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