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ALIEN IMMIGRATION.

REPORTS

TO THE

BOARD OF TRADE

ON

ALIEN IMMIGRATION

Presented to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.



LONDON:

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BY EARL AND SPOTTISWOODE,

PRINTERS TO THE QUEEN'S MOST EXCELLENT MAJESTY

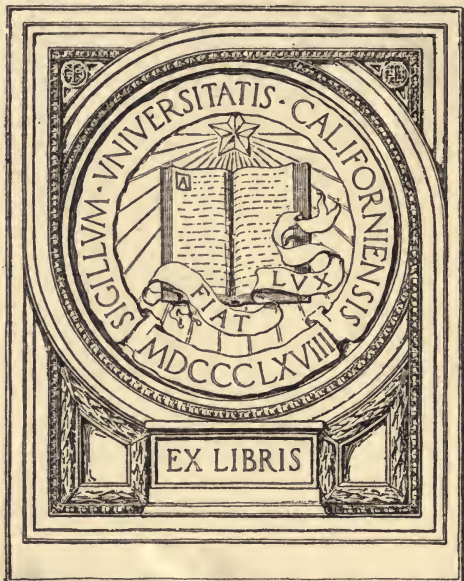
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GENERAL REPORT.

TO the SECRETARY of the BOARD OF TRADE.

SIR,

I HAVE the honour to submit herewith the reports which have been prepared by Mr. Schloss and Mr. Burnett on the subject of Alien Immigration into the United States, in pursuance of the instructions of the Board of Trade as set forth in the reports themselves.

The occasion of the preparation of the reports was partly the discussion which took place at the beginning of last Parliamentary Session on the subject of Alien Immigration into this country. But it may be useful to state here that independently of this discussion the Department was desirous to have some such reports prepared for the information of the public, and the opportunity of the creation of an independent Labour Department at the Board of Trade, with the increase of staff attendant on that change, was readily made use of for that purpose. Since the Board of Trade was charged some years ago with the duty of collecting and publishing statistics relating to Alien Immigration into the United Kingdom, a great deal of information has come into its possession not merely on the special subject entrusted to it, but with regard to the general question of Alien Immigration itself, and particularly with regard to the laws and regulations of the United States on the subject and the proceedings of the various Committees of Congress and of Commissioners appointed from time to time by the executive of that country. But it has always been felt that to understand rightly what is going on in the United States a study of the subject at first hand by gentlemen acquainted with the movement as it presents itself in this country was expedient. When Mr. Schloss and Mr. Burnett were appointed, therefore, the information already in possession of the Board of Trade was placed in their hands so as to facilitate their inquiries on the spot in the United States. The accompanying reports containing the results of their observations speak for themselves.

Notwithstanding the great amount of information contained in these reports, and the extensive labour involved, their preparation has been accomplished substantially within the time allotted at the outset, and the result will be in the hands of the public very soon after the date originally specified. This result has also been accomplished in the case of Mr. Burnett in spite of his devoting a good deal of time since his return to other official work which could not be postponed.

Such assistance has been afforded to Mr. Burnett and Mr. Schloss by the communication of documents and otherwise as the department could properly furnish, and the result, it is believed, is highly valuable, as both gentlemen have obviously bestowed much care and labour in obtaining information on the subjects they were instructed to investigate. It may be expedient, however, to state that the preparation of the reports has been left entirely in their hands; that the opinions expressed are in each case the personal opinions of the gentlemen reporting; and that in submitting the reports to the Board of Trade I am not to be considered as adopting any opinions stated on behalf of the department.

It is hoped that before long it may be possible to publish reports on other branches of the subject which are in preparation.

Board of Trade,
June 30, 1893.

I am, &c.
(Signed) R. GIFFEN.

REPORT BY MR. SCHLOSS.

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REPORT BY MR. SCHLOSS.

To the CONTROLLER-GENERAL OF THE COMMERCIAL, LABOUR,
and STATISTICAL DEPARTMENTS, BOARD OF TRADE.

SIR,

June 30th, 1893.

IN presenting my report upon certain points in connection with the immigration of foreigners into the United States investigated by order of the Board of Trade it may be convenient to set forth the text of the instructions under which the inquiry was undertaken. These instructions were as follows:—

“ Board of Trade, Whitehall Gardens,

“ GENTLEMEN,

February 24th, 1893.

“ I AM directed by the Board of Trade to inform you that you have been appointed to inquire into the laws relating to the immigration of foreigners into the United States, the practical methods of enforcing those laws, the state of opinion in the United States with reference to restrictions on immigration, the proposals on the subject before Congress, and the nature and economic effect of the immigration of destitute foreigners from the eastern parts of Europe. For this purpose you will forthwith proceed to the United States, and make such inquiries as can be made in a time which will admit of your report or reports being laid before Parliament early in July next.

“ It will probably be convenient, owing to the limited time at your disposal, that the subjects for inquiry should be divided, and I am to suggest, as the most convenient arrangement, that Mr. Schloss should inquire more particularly into the United States laws and their administration, and Mr. Burnett into the nature and economic effects of that portion of the immigration which is of the character of the recent immigration of destitute foreigners from the eastern parts of Europe into England.

“ I am, &c.

“ (Signed) COURTENAY BOYLE.

“ To Messrs. John Burnett
“ and David Schloss.”

SCOPE AND METHOD OF INQUIRY.

The division of labour suggested in these instructions was carried out, the entire question of the nature and economic effect of immigration being investigated by Mr. Burnett exclusively (except that at his request I obtained for him the opinions

on certain points of some large employers of labour at Philadelphia), while the other subjects of inquiry specified in the instructions were investigated by me without any assistance from Mr. Burnett (except that he examined into the practice under the immigration laws in certain places upon the northern frontier of the United States which I had not time to visit, communicating for the purposes of this report the result of his inquiries, and that he in like manner obtained and passed on to me the opinions of working-men in all parts of the United States visited by him in regard to the restriction of immigration).

The task which devolved upon me was thus of a two-fold nature: I had to ascertain what laws exist in the United States restricting immigration, and in what manner these laws are in practice enforced; and I had also to inquire what alterations in these laws have been recently proposed, and what is the general drift of opinion in the United States in regard to the restriction of immigration.*

With respect to the first part of my inquiry it may be permissible to allude briefly to the lines upon which the investigation was undertaken.

That the United States has for some years past erected, as it were, a legislation sieve for keeping out certain classes of persons, everyone who takes any interest in the question is aware. But the terms of the restrictive laws enacted in the United States are by no means of so narrow a character that it is possible, merely by reading these statutes and without a special inquiry as to the interpretation given to them in the United States, to ascertain with precision what manner of persons these laws aim at excluding. Nor, again, would it be possible without personal investigation made on the spot to discover with any approach to certainty in what manner these laws, as they are in practice applied, operate to restrict or to regulate immigration. The aim, therefore, which has been kept in view has been to watch the sifting process carried out by the immigration authorities in the United States in all its details, with the object of presenting a picture of this process accurate in all respects and sufficiently minute to enable an exact idea to be formed of its practical operation—of the width of the meshes, of the manner in which the sieve is worked, and of the class of immigrants who are kept out of the United States by means of these restrictions. Whatever measure of success may have attended the effort to carry out an investigation conducted upon the lines just indicated, it appears, at any rate, unquestionable that by no analysis of the

* With reference to the "proposals before Congress" mentioned in the instructions, it should be stated that, by the time that Mr. Burnett and I reached the United States, the House of Representatives had ceased its session, after adopting certain of these proposals (embodied in the Law of March 3, 1893, *post*, pp. 142-144). The principal among these proposals are summarized in Appendix A., Part II., *post*, pp. 102-110. In Part I. of the same Appendix, *post*, pp. 95-102, will be found a statement in regard to the general drift of opinion in the United States with respect to restrictions on immigration.

official statistics and reports published by the American immigration authorities would it be possible to supply complete and trustworthy information in regard to the actual operation of the restrictive laws in force in the United States; and it is hoped that the narrative of an eye-witness who has endeavoured to examine the matter thoroughly at close quarters may possess some degree of utility.*

MATTERS DEALT WITH.

The matters dealt with in this report will be treated under the following principal headings†:—

I.—Brief statement of the laws restricting immigration generally, pp. 4–9.

II.—Account of the sifting process carried out:—

(a.) Prior to and upon the embarkation of immigrants, pp. 9–12.

(b.) On the arrival of immigrants—

(i.) At New York, pp. 12–30.

(ii.) At Baltimore, pp. 30–35.

(iii.) At Boston, pp. 35–43.

(iv.) At Philadelphia, pp. 43–47.

(c.) Observations on the temporary restriction of immigration through quarantine, September 1892 to February 1893, pp. 47–50.

(d.) Observations on the methods prescribed by the law of 1893, pp. 50–54.

(e.) Brief account of the restriction of immigration on the land frontiers, pp. 55–60.

III.—Brief statement of the laws for the exclusion of the Chinese, pp. 61–63.

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Part II.—Letter of instructions from the Foreign Office to H.B.M. Consuls in the United States, and reports of

* The Foreign Office was so good as to instruct the Consul-General at Hamburg, and the Consuls through the United States, to furnish information as to certain matters dealt with in the present report. This information will be found in Appendix C., *post*, pp. 126–135.

† For fuller list of contents of this report, see *ante*, pp. v.–viii. A list of books, &c. bearing on the question of immigration into the United States is given, *post* pp. 373–383.

H.B.M. Consuls at Boston, New Orleans, Vice-Consul at Pensacola, Consuls at San Francisco, Galveston, Philadelphia, Chicago, Charleston, and Baltimore, and Consul-General at New York upon the laws or regulations respecting the control or restriction of alien immigration or alien contract or other labour, pp. 127-135.

Appendix D.—Text of principal laws and regulations affecting the immigration into and exclusion of foreigners from the United States, pp. 136-164.

Appendix E.—Notes on the principal decisions of the Courts in the United States with respect to the construction of laws restricting immigration, pp. 165-180.

I.—LAWS RESTRICTING IMMIGRATION.

The laws enacted by the United States for the restriction of immigration may be said to date from 1882. Prior to that date, “the restrictive legislation of the Government was confined to “the prohibition of the coolie trade, involuntary immigration, and “the exclusion of certain defective and delinquent classes.”* In May, 1882, was passed the law excluding Chinese labourers from the United States for a period of ten years; but the consideration of this and of the other Acts which have been passed in relation to the Chinese may be deferred. The sifting process which will be described is that which is carried out in regard to immigration generally, by virtue of a series of enactments, the earliest of which was the “Act to regulate immigration,” of August 3, 1882.† This statute imposed “a duty of 50 cents [2s.] for each and every passenger not a citizen of the United States who shall come by steam or sail vessel from a foreign port to any port within the United States.”‡ This duty (usually referred to as the “head-tax” or “head-money”) is to be paid to the Customs officials “by the master, owner, agent, or consignee of every such vessel,” and the money thus collected “shall constitute a fund to be called the immigrant fund, and shall be used, under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, to defray the expense of regulating immigration under this Act, and for the care of immigrants arriving in the United States, for the relief of such as are in distress, and for the general purposes and expenses of carrying this Act into effect.” The Secretary of the Treasury was charged with the duty of executing the provisions of this Act “and with supervision over the business

* *Tables showing Arrivals of Alien Passengers and Immigrants in the United States from 1820 to 1888*, p. 130. In particular, the importation of women for the purposes of prostitution was forbidden by an Act of March 3, 1875.

† The laws referred to in the text are Federal laws. In regard to State laws, dealing mainly with the restriction of the employment of aliens, particulars will be found in Appendix D., *post*, pp. 147-150.

‡ This duty is collected not only in respect to alien passengers who land at any port in the United States but also in respect to those who, by virtue of the laws regulating immigration, are not allowed to land.

“ of immigration to the United States, and for that purpose ” he might enter into contracts with any immigration commission, board, or officers designated by the governor of any particular State in the Union, “ to take charge of the local affairs of “ immigration in the ports within said State, and to provide for “ the support and relief of such immigrants therein landing as “ may fall into distress or need public aid, under the rules and “ regulations to be prescribed by said Secretary; and it shall be “ the duty of such State commission, board, or officers so “ designated to examine into the condition of passengers arriving “ at the ports within such State in any ship or vessel, and for “ that purpose all or any of such commissioners or officers or “ such other person or persons as they shall appoint, shall be “ authorized to go on board of and through such ship or vessel; “ and if on examination there shall be found among such “ passengers any convict, lunatic, idiot, or any person unable to “ take care of himself or herself without becoming a public “ charge, they shall report the same in writing to the collector “ of such port, and such person shall not be permitted to land.”

By another section it is enacted that “ all foreign convicts except “ those convicted of political offences, upon arrival shall be sent “ back to the nations to which they belong and from whence they “ came,” that “ the Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe “ regulations for the return of the aforesaid persons to the coun- “ tries from whence they came,” and that “ the expense of such “ return of the aforesaid persons, not permitted to land shall be “ borne by the owners of the vessels in which they came.”

By an Act passed in 1884 it was enacted that, until the provisions of the Act of 1882 imposing a duty on alien passengers coming by water from a foreign port to any port in the United States should be made applicable to passengers coming into the States by land carriage, those provisions should not “ apply to passengers coming by vessels employed exclusively “ in the trade between the ports of the United States and the “ ports of the Dominion of Canada or the ports of Mexico.”

The next step in the direction of restricting immigration was taken in 1885, when an Act was passed making it unlawful “ to “ prepay the transportation, or in any way assist or encourage “ the importation or migration of any alien or aliens, any “ foreigner or foreigners, into the United States, its Territories, “ or the District of Columbia, under contract or agreement, “ parol or special, express or implied, made previous to the “ importation or migration of such alien or aliens, foreigner or “ foreigners, to perform labour or service of any kind in the “ United States, its Territories, or the District of Columbia.”

Any violation of this law “ by knowingly assisting, encour- “ aging, or soliciting the migration or importation of any alien “ or aliens, foreigner or foreigners, into the United States, its “ Territories, or the District of Columbia, to perform labour or “ service of any kind under contract or agreement, express or

“ implied, parol or special, with such alien or aliens, foreigner or foreigners, previous to becoming residents or citizens of the United States,” is punishable by a heavy fine. The master of a vessel who shall knowingly land or permit to be landed in the United States “ from any foreign port or place, any alien labourer, mechanic, or artizan who, previous to embarkation on such vessel, had entered into contract or agreement, parol or special, express or implied, to perform labour or service in the United States ” is made liable to fine and imprisonment. Certain exceptions are made, of which the principal are those in favour of skilled workmen engaged abroad to perform labour in the United States in or upon any new industry not at present established in the United States, provided, that skilled labour for that purpose cannot be otherwise obtained,” and in favour of “ professional actors, artists, lecturers or singers,” and of “ persons employed strictly as personal or domestic servants.” It is also provided “ that nothing in this Act shall be construed as prohibiting any individual from assisting any member of his family or any relative or personal friend, to migrate from any foreign country to the United States, for the purpose of settlement here.”

The execution of the law against the importation of contract labour was, at first, in the hands of the Customs officials, but by a statute passed in 1887, the Secretary of the Treasury was charged with the duty of executing the provisions of this law, a power of contracting with State commissions, boards, or officers similar to that contained in the immigration law of 1882 being conferred upon him. By the Act of 1887, contract labourers of the prohibited class are not to be permitted to land, and are to be sent back “ to the nations to which they belong and from whence they came,” at the cost of the owners of the vessels bringing them to the United States.

In 1888 certain further amendments were made in the alien contract labour law. The Secretary of the Treasury was authorized “ in case he shall be satisfied that an immigrant has been allowed to land contrary to the prohibition of that law, to cause such immigrant within the period of one year after landing or entry, to be taken into custody and returned to the country from whence he came, at the expense of the owner of the importing vessel; or, if he entered from an adjoining country, at the expense of the person previously contracting for ” his services. Provision was also made authorizing the payment to informers of a part, not to exceed one half, of penalties recovered under the alien contract labour law.

In 1890 an important change in the method of administering the immigration and contract labour laws was made by the termination of the contract previously existing between the Federal Government and the Commissioners of Immigration of

the State of New York. At this port, where the great bulk of the immigrants into the United States coming by sea disembark, the manner in which these laws were administered was found to be unsatisfactory, and accordingly on April 19, 1890, the duty of carrying out these laws at New York was undertaken by the Treasury Department itself, the Hon. Col. John B. Weber being appointed as the principal officer responsible for the administration of all matters concerning the regulation of immigration and the exclusion of contract labour at New York.

In 1891 an amendatory Act was passed, which named as classes of aliens to "be excluded from admission into the United States, " in accordance with the existing Acts regulating immigration, " other than those concerning Chinese labourers: All idiots, " insane persons, paupers or persons likely to become a public " charge, persons suffering from a loathsome or a dangerous con- " tagious disease, persons who have been convicted of a felony or " other infamous crime or misdemeanour involving moral turpi- " tude, polygamists, and also any person whose ticket or passage " is paid for with the money of another, or who is assisted by " others to come, unless it is affirmatively and satisfactorily " shown on special inquiry that such person does not belong to " one of the foregoing classes, or to the class of contract labourers " excluded by the Act of February 26th, 1885, but this section " shall not be held to exclude persons living in the United " States from sending for a relative or a friend who is not of " the excluded classes under such regulations as the Secretary " of the Treasury may prescribe." Express provision is made for excepting persons convicted of political offences from exclu- sion under the Act. Another section makes it a violation of the contract labour law to promise employment by adver- tisements "printed and published in any foreign country; and " any alien coming to this country in consequence of such an " advertisement shall be treated as coming under a contract as " contemplated by such Act; and the penalties by said Act " imposed shall be applicable in such a case; provided, this " section shall not apply to States and immigration bureaus of " States advertising the inducements they offer for immigration " to such States." It is further enacted, "that no steamship " or transportation company or owners of vessels shall directly, " or through agents, either by writing, printing, or oral repre- " sentations, solicit, invite, or encourage the immigration of any " alien into the United States, except by ordinary commercial " letters, circulars, advertisements, or oral representations, " stating the sailings of their vessels and the terms and facili- " ties of transportation therein;" any violation of this enact- ment is to be punished by the same heavy fine as if it were a breach of the contract labour law. With respect to the class of persons to be excluded as contract labourers, this Act pro- vides that (in addition to actors, artists, lecturers, singers, and servants) ministers of any religious denomination, persons

belonging to any recognized profession, and professors for colleges or seminaries shall be excepted from the operation of the Act of 1885; on the other hand, the provision in that Act permitting any person to assist "any member of his family, or *any relative or personal friend*" to settle in the United States, is now modified by the deletion of the words in italics. It is made a misdemeanour punishable by a heavy fine or imprisonment or both, to bring or to aid in bringing into the United States any alien not entitled to admission. The Act created the new office of Superintendent of Immigration, who is to be an officer of the Treasury Department, subordinate to the Secretary of the Treasury. With regard to immigrants arriving by water, it is made the "duty of the commanding officer and the agents of the steam or sailing vessel by which they came to report the name, nationality, last residence, and destination of every such alien, before any of them are landed, to the proper inspection officers, who shall thereupon go or send competent assistants on board such vessel, and there inspect all such aliens, or the inspection officers may order a temporary removal of such aliens for examination at a designated time and place, and then and there detain them until a thorough inspection is made. But such removal shall not be considered a landing during the pendency of such examination. The medical examination shall be made by surgeons of the Marine Hospital Service. In cases where the services of a Marine Hospital surgeon cannot be obtained without causing unreasonable delay, the inspector may cause an alien to be examined by a civil surgeon, and the Secretary of the Treasury shall fix the compensation for such examination. The inspection officers and their assistants shall have power to administer oaths, and to take and consider testimony touching the right of any such aliens to enter the United States, all of which shall be entered of record. During such inspection after temporary removal the superintendent shall cause such aliens to be properly housed, fed, and cared for, and also in his discretion, such as are delayed in proceeding to their destination after inspection. All decisions made by the inspection officers or their assistants touching the right of any alien to land, when adverse to such right, shall be final unless appeal be taken to the Superintendent of Immigration, whose action shall be subject to review by the Secretary of the Treasury." Officers and agents of vessels may be heavily fined or be imprisoned, or be both fined and imprisoned, if they "either knowingly or negligently land or permit to land any alien immigrant at any place or time other than that designated by the inspection officers." By this statute power is given to the Secretary of the Treasury to prescribe rules for inspection along the borders of Canada, British Columbia, and Mexico, and provision is made for the appointment of special officers to carry out this inspection.

The Federal Government is to take over the entire administration of the laws regulating immigration, this duty being no longer left to State commissions, boards, or officers. Aliens who may unlawfully come into the United States "shall, " if practicable, be immediately sent back on the vessel by " which they were brought in. The cost of their maintenance " while on land, as well as the expense of the return of such " aliens, shall be borne by the owner or owners of the vessel on " which such aliens came." It is also provided that any "alien " who shall come into the United States in violation of law " may be returned as by law provided, at any time within " one year thereafter, at the expense of the person or persons, " vessel, transportation company, or corporation bringing such " alien into the United States, and if that cannot be done, then " at the expense of the United States; and any alien who " becomes a public charge within one year after his arrival " in the United States from causes existing prior to his landing " therein shall be deemed to have come in violation of law, " and shall be returned as aforesaid."

With the addition (made by a joint resolution of Congress approved in August, 1892) of a provision enabling foreign exhibitors, &c., at the Chicago Exhibition to import under contract alien employees required for the purposes of that exhibition, the laws just summarized constitute the code in force, at the time of my visit to the United States. An Act passed in March, 1893, but which came into operation only in May, 1893, made certain alterations in the existing law, especially in the direction of imposing upon the steamship companies the duty of inquiring into and vouching for the eligibility of all immigrants carried by them, but did not in any way extend or vary the class of persons previously declared ineligible. Since it is desired to describe the working of the immigration laws under the conditions actually witnessed by the writer, it seems best to reserve the consideration of this new statute (which did not come into force until after he had left America) to a later part of this report, and to proceed at once to give an account of the sifting process as it was seen in operation during the months of March and April, 1893.

II.—THE SIFTING PROCESS: PRIOR TO AND UPON EMBARKATION.

The plan best adapted for our purpose will be to watch what goes on in relation to a number of typical emigrants from the time when they apply for their passage-tickets to the time when they reach New York, and to follow them up until they are finally "cleared"—until, that is, they step on to the soil of the United States as accepted settlers.*

* It should be observed that the action of the steamship companies described in the text is that which was taken in normal periods. As is explained later on (pp. 47-50), between the beginning of September, 1892, and the end of February,

The first step taken by a man who desires to emigrate to America will be to apply at the office of an agent or sub-agent of the steamship line by which he desires to travel. The agent or sub-agent has received from the Steamship Company copies of the United States laws dealing with the regulation of immigration and prohibiting the importation of contract labour, and has instructions to make certain that he does not book any passenger in contravention of these laws. The result is that, at the very outset, the intending passenger is subjected to some sort of questioning, and though the test thus applied has probably not been, so far, at all strict, yet a man grossly and obviously ineligible is liable to have his application for a passage-ticket refused.*

Having succeeded in obtaining his passage-ticket, our immigrant finds that the next ordeal which awaits him is a series of medical examinations. If he is a foreigner coming from, say Gothenburg or Hamburg, he will, on his arrival at Liverpool, go to one of the emigrant boarding-houses† where he will reside until he is put on board of the vessel which is to take him to America. While at the boarding-house, the immigrant is under constant medical surveillance; for the steamship companies employ a medical man (some companies employing a special "shore doctor," others sending the surgeon of the ship in which the immigrants are to sail), whose duty it is to pay a daily visit to the boarding-houses and to inquire into the health of their inmates. One principal object of this medical inspection is to avoid all risk of shipping persons whose state of health might cause danger or inconvenience to their fellow-passengers. But the inspection serves at the same time to enable the discovery of persons who are likely to be treated as ineligible by the American immigration authorities by reason of their state of health, including, not alone "persons suffering from a loathsome or a dangerous contagious disease," and idiots and insane persons, but also persons whose state of health makes them "likely to become a public charge," such as men or women with paralysed arms, or other defects likely to interfere with their chance of obtaining employment, and as pregnant unmarried women.

Let us, however, suppose that our typical immigrant has escaped rejection by the doctor visiting the boarding-house. The day fixed for his embarkation has arrived, and the tender

1893, certain special inquiries were made of all intending immigrants, and certain special restrictions were enforced in consequence of the quarantine precautions taken in the United States with a view to avoid the introduction of cholera.

* It will be understood that the description in the text is a description of what was habitually done at the time when the writer visited the United States. Since his return, the new Immigration Law of 1893 has come into force, and has very possibly made the questioning of the immigrant, prior to his obtaining his ticket, of a much more rigorous nature than was the case before this law came into effect. See *post*, pp. 50-54.

† The principal emigrant boarding-houses at Liverpool (all of which are licensed and inspected as common lodging-houses) were visited by the writer, and were found to provide excellent accommodation.

has brought all the foreign immigrants from the boarding-houses, and also the English passengers to the side of the big liner which is at anchor in the Mersey.* A gangway plank is placed from the upper deck of the tender to the deck of the liner. At the top of this gangway stands the ship's doctor. Sometimes there are two gangways, and in this case the doctor stands where they converge on the liner's deck. As the immigrants pass over the gangway or gangways, each is examined by the doctor. They defile at a rate which may be estimated to average about 30 a minute, so that the scrutiny possible under the circumstances is not of a very searching nature. Still, constant practice renders the ship's doctor expert; and any signs of disease likely to affect the health or comfort of the passengers are likely to be detected. Glaring cases of disease or defects of a nature to make the sufferer incapable of earning his living, and therefore liable to rejection by the immigration authorities on the other side, may probably be noticed, and referred to the company's officials, who may decide not to take the risk of carrying these passengers across the Atlantic, with the probability of having to bring them back as debarred immigrants.

After they have passed the scrutiny of the ship's doctor, as they come on board, yet another ordeal awaits all these travellers. For, before the ship sails, the whole of her second cabin and steerage passengers are mustered on deck, and undergo inspection by the medical examiner appointed for that purpose by the Board of Trade under the Passenger Acts.† The duty of the representative of the Board of Trade is to discover all cases in which it is desirable for any sanitary reason to prohibit the transportation of any passenger. This official is concerned to prevent the ship's carrying any person whose presence on board would cause danger to the health of his fellow-passengers, but is, of course, under no obligation to object to anyone on the ground of his ineligibility as an immigrant under the laws of the United States. All the same, as a matter of courtesy, it is the custom of the medical examiners of the Board of Trade to call the attention of the ship's doctor to any person whom they may notice to be apparently ineligible under these laws. The

* It sometimes occurs that the passengers are put on board while the vessel is in dock; but the procedure observed in their embarkation on these occasions does not vary from that described above. The account given in the text is based upon inquiries made on the spot, and upon observations made upon two occasions, upon one of which the writer was present without his official position being known to anyone on the vessel visited.

† Now (under the new United States Quarantine Law of February 15, 1893) also by the consular or medical officer of the United States. By virtue of this law a medical officer of the United States, stationed at Liverpool, has for the last few months inspected all vessels carrying passengers to the United States. For some time past there has been an inspection by a doctor in the service or under the control of the United States of all persons intending to emigrate to the States from certain continental ports, e.g., Hamburg and Bremen (see Report of H.B.M. Consul-General at Hamburg, Appendix C., *post*, p. 127, and *Investigation by the Committee on Immigration of the United States Senate on the proposition for the Suspension of Immigration for One Year*, p. 58), and Rotterdam (see Report by U. S. Consul Gardner mentioned in *New York Herald*, March 18, 1893).

ship's doctor stands by the side of the official of the Board of Trade, while he is making his examination of the passengers, and thus obtains a further opportunity of detecting and causing to be re-landed any persons whose rejection by the immigration authorities in America on the ground of their physical or mental condition he may think probable. Soon after the Board of Trade doctor has completed his examination the saloon passengers come on board; and as promptly as the state of the tide allows, the anchor is weighed, and the steamer starts on her voyage. The inspection of the Irish emigrants who are embarked at Queenstown is practically identical in nature with that which took place in regard to the English and foreign passengers on board the vessel as she lay in the Mersey, and does not demand further description.

THE SIFTING PROCESS AT NEW YORK.

We may now imagine our steamer to have safely crossed the Atlantic, and to be lying at the entrance to the harbour of New York, off "Quarantine." With the visit of the quarantine doctor and his assistants, with his inspection of the immigrants in order to satisfy himself that there is no infectious disease prevalent among them, and that all have been duly vaccinated, and with the measures of disinfection which are carried out on board under his orders we have no concern. But the same steamboat which brings the quarantine doctor also brings another official whose proceedings we are greatly interested in observing—a contract labour inspector.

The contract labour inspector (who is in plain clothes with no outward token of his official position) makes his way at once to the purser from whom he receives copies of the ship's manifests*—lists of all the passengers taken on board at Liverpool and Queenstown respectively which the master of the vessel is required under the United States law, "The Passenger Act, 1882," to deliver to the collector of the customs of the collection district of the City of New York (their accuracy being verified by his oath), and which contain the particulars required to be given to the immigration authorities under the Act of 1891 (see *ante*, p. 8). Let us look over the shoulder of the contract labour inspector while he sits at one of the saloon tables with the big sheets spread out before him. In one hand he holds a slip of paper, in the other a small book in which the names of all the passengers are arranged in alphabetical order. This index book, which has been prepared for his use by the purser, enables him to find without delay in the manifests the names of any passengers for whom he has been directed to look out. His slip of paper may contain the names of employers or of foremen who have gone over to Europe to enlist workmen, and of whose

* As to the manifests required under the new immigration law, see *post*, p. 50.

impending return with their illicit companions the authorities may have been warned by the trade union or by some rival manufacturer. Or he may have received information from Washington that a recently released convict is likely to arrive.* His search for the names on his list being concluded, the inspector next proceeds to run his eye down the columns of the manifests, page by page. The particulars given in these manifests are—"number; name in full; age, years, months; sex; calling; the country of which they are citizens (nationality); last residence; intended destination or location; date and cause of death [of any passenger who may have died on the voyage]; location of compartment or space occupied; number of pieces of baggage; transient, or in transit, or intending protracted sojourn."† The eye of the inspector may run without a pause from the first name to the last; but if he is observed to linger over certain pages, we may know that he has detected signs of the presence on board of the class of persons for whom he is looking out. He has remarked that a large number of men, most of them coming from the same district, and all of the same occupation, are put down as destined for the same town in the United States. Possibly the inspector has had notice that a strike among workmen of this class is at this moment being fought out in that town. Obviously, these men are being imported to fill the places of the strikers. In any event, the simultaneous arrival of so many men of the same trade is a highly suspicious circumstance which must be reported to the authorities.

His examination of the manifests concluded, the contract labour inspector goes up on deck, and mixes with the immigrants. If he has reason to believe that any persons who ought to be debarred from landing are included among the passengers, he will find them out, and order them to consider themselves in his custody. His eyes are keen, and he knows exactly what to look for. Thus, for example, not long ago a contract labour inspector was instructed to keep a look-out for a number of glass-blowers who were expected to arrive under contract to labour. These men came as second-class passengers, and were, no doubt, careful to do and say nothing which might betray their character. But the inspector singled them out, and detained them for examination. He had discovered the men

* The labour contract inspector who boards vessels at "Quarantine" also looks out for persons "wanted" by the police of the United States or of a foreign country.

† The form of manifest given in the text is that which was used at the time when the writer was making the investigations necessary for this report. Since he left the United States, a new form has been adopted differing in some respects from the old; thus, in the new form the "country of which they are citizens" is stated as to cabin passengers only, while as to passengers other than cabin passengers the list states "native country" and "whether citizens of the United States." In the new lists "intended destination or location" and "location of compartment or space occupied" have to be stated only as to passengers other than cabin passengers, while "port of embarkation" has to be stated in respect to all passengers. As to the manifests or lists of immigrants required under the new immigration law, see *post*, p. 50.

by certain physical peculiarities which betoken the glass-blower—the callosity of the hand, a peculiar protuberance and callosity of the skin under the eye caused by the heat of the furnace, and a mark on the lips due to the pressure of the blow-pipe. Very probably there may be no cause to suspect any particular immigrants on the ship; but in any case the inspector takes a leisurely survey of the swarming decks, and passing slowly amid the throng asks first one man and then another what his destination is, whether he has got work promised him, and so on. It would appear that, if he has no particular ground of suspicion, the inspector is content with “sampling” the crowd by examining a few passengers only. But if there were reason for special vigilance, it is probable that his cross-examination might be more vigorous and more general.

The time taken by the steamer to cover the distance between “Quarantine” and the wharf where she lands her saloon and second-cabin passengers is a little over an hour. When the wharf is reached, a uniformed “boarding officer” of the immigration authorities comes on board, and, as soon as possible, the luggage of the immigrants is got out of the hold, and placed upon a barge which has been brought alongside by a steamer sent by the immigration authorities. When this has been accomplished, the steerage passengers embark, some upon this steamer, others upon the barge, and the steamer, with the barge lashed to it, steams across the harbour to the Immigrant Depôt at Ellis Island, which is reached in about 20 minutes.

THE IMMIGRANT DEPÔT AT ELLIS ISLAND.*

In order to acquaint ourselves with the details of the sifting process carried out in the magnificent establishment maintained by the immigration authorities at Ellis Island, we will follow our imaginary immigrants as they disembark from the official tender.

The space into which the immigrants step is railed off in such a manner that exit is possible only by entering the large building in front of the wharf, and the crowd is soon surging through the door and mounting the staircase which leads to the first floor. Here the process of sifting begins.

* The description of the Immigrant Depôt at Ellis Island and of the sifting process carried on there is a “composite picture,” intended to show the operation of the restrictive machinery as applied in practice, the details of this picture being based upon visits, most of them very long visits, paid by the writer on seven different days, including not alone the visits paid with disclosure of his official capacity, but also a visit paid upon an occasion when, without anyone connected with the administration of the Depôt having any idea who he was, and when none but one or two subordinate officials knew that any stranger was present, he accompanied a ship-load of immigrants to Ellis Island, and was able to observe how each was dealt with. He is bound to say that what he saw upon this occasion in no respect differed from what he saw when he visited Ellis Island afterwards with the knowledge of the authorities. At no time was any single thing concealed, or any proceeding whatever in any single respect modified by reason of the presence of the official investigator of a foreign Government.

The sifting process may be said to consist of three separate stages in the case of men, of four in the case of women. As the crowd reaches the door of the vast hall, splendidly lighted all over by large top-lights and in parts also by side-windows, the immigrants find themselves at the entrance to a corridor, the sides of which are high partitions of open wire-work of great strength, sufficiently wide to enable three persons to stand abreast. One on each side of the beginning of this corridor, stand two female officials—the matron and her assistant.* The matron closely scrutinizes the women, directing those whom she believes to be pregnant to stand aside for further examination. Wonderfully acute is this matron, and it is probable that not many pregnant women escape her vigilant eye. She judges of the condition of the women inspected by the appearance of their faces rather than by that of their persons, and gets through her work with great expedition. Usually the fact of pregnancy is readily admitted. If not, she directs the woman to stand back, and deals with her subsequently. But supposing the woman under examination to admit her condition, the next question is whether she is married or single. If she comes in with her husband, as is frequently the case, little difficulty arises. Perhaps she says that he is coming on directly, if so, she has to wait until he appears and claims her. If the husband does not appear, then the woman is detained for subsequent investigation. All who have been passed by the matron go on to the next branch of the sifting process together with the male immigrants, and what happens to them we will now see.

The immigrants pass through the corridor in single file, except that parents are allowed to carry infants and to lead small children by the hand. In the centre of the corridor stands an officer whose duty it is to see that the stream does not flow too quickly. Marshalled by this officer the immigrants pass before the doctors, generally two and often three in number, who are assisted by the steward of the hospital. Men are obliged to take off their hats, and women to remove shawls covering their heads, in order that diseases manifesting themselves by eruptions, &c., on the head, may not escape detection. The rate at which the stream passes through the doctors may be estimated at about 19 per minute. In one instance as many as 29 persons per minute were seen to pass; but this was in the case of immigrants from Bremen, who had already been inspected prior to their embarkation by a doctor under the control of the United States authorities in that port.† On the other hand, I was informed that in the case of a specially bad lot of immigrants the rate would be no higher than 15 per minute. In the majority of instances a single keen glance is sufficient

* Usually two matrons are employed, but one was discharged last year when the immigration fell off owing to the quarantine restrictions enforced during the cholera period (see *post*, pp. 47-50).

† See *ante*, pp. 11 n.

to enable the doctors to form their opinion. Occasionally a few brief questions are put; in this manner, for instance, it is ascertained that a man who looked at first sight uncommonly like an idiot, is only slightly the worse for liquor. Those whose cases cannot be determined off-hand, are ordered to enter an enclosure on the right-hand side, and are subsequently examined at leisure. The rest pass through into a large enclosed space on the left extending right across the centre of the building. At the far end of this space are eight narrow passages, the sides of which are closed in by stout partitions of open wire, each of these gangways being wide enough to allow one person only to pass through at a time.* It will be observed that at the corner of the furthest gangway stands a man who is shouting out names. This has nothing to do with the sifting process; the names called out are those of passengers for whom letters or telegrams are waiting. But at the side of each of the gangways in use—if the number of the immigrants is not great, perhaps only six or seven gangways will be in use—sits a clerk at a desk with a big book in front of him. It is by these “registration clerks” that the process of ascertaining whether the immigrant is eligible or ineligible on other than purely medical grounds is performed. How this is done we will now observe.

As the immigrant comes up to him, the registration clerk “takes him in” with a rapid glance, and then proceeds to put to him a series of questions, the answers to which enable the clerk to fill in the columns of the ledger in front of him. These columns bear the following headings†:—(1.) Name. (2.) Nationality. (3.) Last residence. (4.) Destination. (5.) Occupation. (6.) Age. (7.) Sex; sub-divisions, M. and F. (8.) Married or Single; sub-divisions, M. and S. (9.) Number in Family. (10.) Illiteracy of those over 16 years; sub-divisions, Cannot Read, Cannot Write, Can neither Read nor Write. (11.) Money brought by those over 20 Years; sub-divisions, Over \$100 [20¢], Under \$100. (12.) If ever Inmate of Prison or Almshouse‡; sub-divisions, Prison, Almshouse. (13.) Condition of Health. (14.) Vessel. (15.) Date.

For the most part the answers of the immigrants are accepted as sufficient. During the numerous visits paid to Ellis Island, no instance was observed in which a registration clerk required any sort of proof of alleged capacity to read or write. The amount of money alleged to be in the possession of an immigrant appears to be seldom tested by a registration clerk; but if the question how much money the man had were material in considering his admissibility, the registration clerk would, it was said, insist on seeing it. On the other hand, the registration clerk by no means confines himself to asking the questions

* In times of pressure 10 gangways can be arranged.

† No doubt these headings are now in some slight respects altered to agree with the new manifests required by the recent Immigration Law; see *post*, p. 50.

‡ The term “almshouse” is applied in the United States to a house in which indigent persons are supported out of funds raised by *taxation*.

necessary to fill in the columns of his ledger. For example: a person going West may be asked to produce his railway ticket; and a girl or a young lad unaccompanied by any responsible escort, is sure to be requested to show that she or he is in a position to proceed to ultimate destination, and may, if this be deemed necessary, be detained for further inquiry. Persons, young or old, who appear unlikely to be able to maintain and look after themselves, will be asked whether they are expected by relations, and may be made to produce some proof of this fact; and if satisfactory proof that they are expected by relations able and willing to take care of them be not immediately produced, they are liable to be kept back for further examination.

The description just given may produce the impression that the process of inspection and interrogation carried out by the registry clerks is one occupying a considerable time. But the bulk of the cases investigated are of a simple nature. Long practice has given the clerks the ability to work at a great speed; and the process is, in reality, very expeditious. Some clerks get through their work much quicker than others; but on the average it may be said that the immigrants pass through this part of the sifting machinery at the rate of a little less than one per minute, say at the rate of 11 in 12 minutes. This is the average rate; but it must be remembered that while in cases in which parents answer for young children a party of five persons may be disposed of in three minutes, a single individual, if of doubtful eligibility, may require and will receive a comparatively lengthy investigation, lasting perhaps two minutes.

As the immigrant is passed by the registration clerk, he steps out from the corridor into the open hall a free man save for one contingency. While he was under examination by the registry clerk, one of the contract labour inspectors was hovering near. Perhaps the registry clerk gave him a hint that this man was a case for him—being, it may be, one of a suspicious batch; perhaps the contract labour inspector may have had his own suspicions aroused by the man's answers to the registry clerk. In either case our immigrant has to undergo a further ordeal. The contract labour inspector asks him to what place he is going and what he is going to do there. If he says he is going to work in a mill, then how does he know that he is going to have work in this mill? Did the owner of the mill or a foreman send him word to come. If the man is incautious enough to admit that he has been promised employment, or if his answers are in any respect unsatisfactory, then the path to liberty is barred, and he must wait in the "contract labour pen," as it is unofficially designated—an enclosure shut in by high wire fencing—until there is time to fully inquire into his guilt or innocence.

Although it is with the restrictions upon immigration, rather than with the general question of immigration that we are

concerned, we may permit ourselves to take a parenthetic glimpse at the onward progress of the fortunate multitude whose right to enter the great American Republic has not been denied. As they emerge from the gangways and pass unchallenged, or at any rate unimpeded, by the contract labour inspectors into the free end of the big hall, they see in front of them a small office (simply a few square feet of floor-space railed in by wire fencing) which is allotted to the ever-helpful agent of the steamship company by whose vessel they arrived, at whose side stands the principal representative of the railway companies. Here arrangements for the onward journey of those who are going out West are expeditiously made. On the right hand a little further down the hall is a small stand for the sale of postage stamps, and an authorized exchange office where the stranger is certain of receiving the full value of his foreign money; while on the opposite side is a telegraph office. Coming out of the hall the immigrant finds offices for the sale of railway tickets and steamship passages, a number of compartments reserved for the use of the representatives of various societies for befriending new arrivals, and a huge refreshment counter where at reasonable prices he can provision himself for his journey inland. On the floor below he finds vast rooms in which his baggage has been placed while he was going through the sifting process upstairs, and where he can register his goods and chattels through to his destination. If he is going out West, his requirements will be attended to at one end of the place; if to New York, at the other. The westward-bound passenger is taken in a steamer direct to the railway station, where separate waiting-rooms are reserved for him, all manner of land-sharks being carefully kept out. If New York is the end of his journey, he goes down a staircase past an office specially set apart for the keepers of boarding-houses (who are not allowed to make themselves a nuisance by touting all over the place) to the same wharf at which we saw him landed (but now to the other, the free end of this wharf) and is conveyed to New York, the official steamboat disembarking him at what must be confessed to be a somewhat ramshackle and decidedly inconvenient landing-place—the “Barge Office.” Perhaps he may step across to the employment bureau close at hand, perhaps he may be taken in charge by an accommodating boarding-house keeper or by a resident relation or friend. In any case we can follow him no further, but must go back to Ellis Island in order to see what is happening to the unlucky people whom we left in the agonies of detention.

We will begin with the women whose pregnancy the matron has detected, and who have been unable to satisfy her that their husbands were among the throng of passengers filing in for inspection. These women we find that the matron has brought with her into a large enclosure in the middle of the hall where she is carefully questioning them. Some of them produce letters

from their husbands who are already in the United States, and are at once released from custody. In other cases it may be necessary to detain the woman until a telegram has been sent and a reply received verifying her assertions. If a woman still persists in denying that she is in the family way, she is told that she will have to go to the doctors to be examined. This threat usually extorts a confession. If not, she is taken to the offices of the medical staff, and although on no occasion, it is stated, has any woman accused of being pregnant been required to submit to actual medical examination, yet the dread of discovery invariably crows the guilty into admitting their condition.

In the case of a woman whose pregnant state has been established, and who either has no husband or has left her husband behind her in the Old World, the law prohibiting the landing of "paupers or persons likely to become a public charge" clearly applies. A woman thus circumstanced is sure to find her way into some infirmary maintained at the public cost, which she will leave encumbered by the burden of an infant, and in all probability utterly unable to obtain by her own exertions the means of existence. Yet even in a case like this, it by no means follows that the right to return the woman will be exercised. To mention an instance, the particulars of which have been investigated by the writer, a woman who said with every appearance of truth that her husband intended to follow her shortly to the United States, and whom a priest well known to the authorities promised to look after until her husband arrived, was allowed to stay. In the case of an unmarried girl the authorities are frequently able to induce the father of the expected infant to marry her, making this a condition of her being allowed to land.* But if the father cannot be found, or declines to marry the girl, then it is (as I was informed) the rule that she is at once returned as a debarred immigrant. Exception, however, is made in favour of women whose pregnancy is too far advanced to make it safe for them to undertake the sea voyage. In a case such as this the mother of an illegitimate child is assured of a haven in the New World; for the ruling of the Treasury Department is that since the infant, being born on American soil and under the jurisdiction and protection of the United States, is an American citizen, and since its mother, being its natural guardian, cannot be separated from it, neither mother nor child can properly be expelled from the territory of the Republic.†

The next subject to claim our attention is that of the medical detentions. Making our way to the offices of the medical staff,

* If the father is in New York, the marriage is often solemnized at Ellis Island itself by one of the missionaries who attend there.

† Notwithstanding misrepresentations made by the mother when under examination by the immigration authorities (*Decisions under the Tariff and Navigation Laws, etc.*, December 1892, p. 1257).

which occupies a number of well-lighted rooms at one side of the building separated by a corridor from the noise and bustle of the central hall, we find that one or two cases of obvious ineligibility have already been dealt with, a recommendation for the return of these persons having been sent in to the Commissioner of Immigration. These are cases of individuals whose physical or mental deficiencies make it out of the question that they should succeed in earning their living, and who are unable to indicate any persons, such as sons or other near relations, willing to undertake their support. Other cases have been sent "inside" (to a special detention room) for further inquiry, these immigrants having alleged that they are expected by some relative willing and able to be responsible for their maintenance.

The doctors have just finished their diagnosis of a case of scarlatina; the patient is about to be taken to the hospital at the other side of the Island. This hospital contains 75 beds, while 25 more are contained in two large rooms in the main building contiguous to the offices of the medical staff. These rooms are kept for the families of patients under treatment in the detached hospital. Thus, the parents and brothers of the girl suffering from scarlatina will go to these rooms and remain there under observation, so that if any of them develop symptoms of the disease, the case may be at once removed into hospital. A pale, sickly-looking boy of five or six years is under examination, and the stethoscope reveals the fact of acute pulmonary and bronchial trouble. His mother is allowed to go with him into the hospital, while her husband and the two elder children are, with great consideration, provided with accommodation in one of the observation rooms.

We next proceed to the large detention room already alluded to under its familiar name of "inside." Here we find a number of people seated on benches, while at the far end are four special inspectors, whose duty it is to make a careful inquiry into the circumstances of these detained persons, and a gatekeeper, who verifies by his signature all orders for release, and sees that no one passes out except those who have been examined and discharged. Beyond the row of inspectors and the gatekeeper is the information bureau, which is a waiting-room for immigrants and for the relatives and friends who come to meet them. The four special inspectors deal in a thorough manner with every case. Here is a Swedish girl whom the registry clerk had stopped because she had neither a ticket for her destination (Chicago) nor any money whatever. She explains to the inspector that she has lived for many years in Minneapolis, that she had been to Sweden on a visit and had been robbed of her purse with all its contents. She has friends in Chicago, and is sure of getting employment there. However, the inspector will not take the responsibility of passing her, and she goes back to her seat. Here is a woman who is going to join her husband in

Ohio, and who is also unprovided with either money or railway ticket. She is detained until her friends out West, to whom a telegram is at once forwarded, shall have sent her the wherewithal to proceed on her journey. Next comes a grey-haired crone, long past work. She is made to turn out her pockets and produces a handful of loose silver; a further search in a mysterious recess hidden away among her innermost raiment enables her to exhibit 10 sovereigns and a crumpled bank-note. But the inspector remains unmoved by this display of wealth, and is only satisfied when he reads a couple of letters from the old lady's son in Michigan, which appear to establish the fact that this man is a shopkeeper in easy circumstances, well able and perfectly ready to take care of his mother in her declining years. After this woman has been discharged, the inspector has to consider one of the cases sent "inside" by the doctors. This is a man with the sight of one eye destroyed by cataract, which shows signs of extending very shortly to the other. However, he, too, manages to satisfy the inspector, and goes forth on his way rejoicing. One of the other inspectors has in the meantime had to deal with two sisters, the elder of whom cannot be more than 16. They are coming out to live with their married brother in New Jersey, but the inspector declines to allow them to brave the perils of the streets and of the journey to Newark, short though it be, without an escort. They therefore go back to the bench, where they sit pictures of despair. But the inspector has sent for the official in charge of the information bureau, and very soon the girls' brother, who has been waiting here all day, has heard of their arrival, has, somewhat indignantly, replied to the questions which the inspector has put to him,* and is hurrying away with one pretty sister on each arm to look up their baggage downstairs. Not only young girls, but also youths who do not appear to have reached years of discretion are forbidden to leave Ellis Island unaccompanied, and the seats in the information bureau are filled with young people who have proved to the inspectors that they are expected by relations, but who are waiting for these relations to fetch them away. The care which is exercised in this respect is, indeed, typical of one important aspect of the action of the Ellis Island authorities, who, while they endeavour to keep out undesirable immigrants, make the most strenuous efforts to secure the well-being and comfort of those who are admitted.†

* If there is any doubt as to the ability of a relative to support an immigrant who does not appear certain to be able to maintain himself, the relative is asked to make an affidavit verifying his means.

† It would be difficult to speak too highly of the pains taken to make things smooth for the immigrants. What a young peasant woman said in the hearing of the writer to a subordinate employee, who insisted on being allowed to carry her heavy hand-luggage, might, with truth, be said by thousands of weary and bewildered travellers who have been in like manner "personally conducted" by the Ellis Island officials: "I don't know if every one in America is going to be as kind as you, but, if they are, I am going to have a pleasant time here."

To return to the special detention ward, we find that the four inspectors have by now dealt with every case submitted to them, and that the only occupants of this room are the woman who is waiting for money to be sent to take her to Ohio, a Norwegian girl far advanced in pregnancy, who has been "sent inside" by the matron, the young Swedish woman bound for Chicago, and a man with a wooden leg. The Norwegian girl has an uncle in South Dakota, who is at once communicated with. The father of her expected infant came out to America six months ago. It is possible that this man may be induced to marry the girl; and if the Commissioner of Immigration is fully satisfied as to this, then she will be released. On behalf of the unlucky Swede the Commissioner has been approached by one of the Swedish missionaries. The representative of the steamship company having undertaken that, if it shall be found that the woman's statement is correct, she shall have her lost railway ticket replaced by a duplicate, and the mission making itself responsible for looking after her in the meantime, and agreeing to supply her with a sum of money for her expenses on the way, she is released in charge of a benevolent compatriot. Nor does the man with the wooden leg have to wait long for the termination of his imprisonment. His aunt had been waiting in the information bureau, and soon the man is stumping along by her side down the corridor, past the medical offices and the treasurer's room, turns to the left as they come at the end of the passage to the room marked "Secretary" (in rear of which is the private room of the Commissioner of Immigration), and entering at a door on his right hand finds himself in the office of the Commissioner.* The Commissioner passes in review the facts of the case. The man is 22 years of age, is in good health, is a carpenter, and is not by reason of his wooden leg incapacitated from working at his trade. These facts are verified by an affidavit sworn by the man upon his detention by the medical staff. His aunt has also made an affidavit, in which she deposes to the means of herself and her husband, which appear to be considerable, both earning a good income. The Commissioner asks the man if he can get about, and he is requested to cross and recross the room, which he does with little difficulty. A few questions are put to him, from the answers to which it is fairly evident that the man has a good chance of earning his livelihood; and his aunt expresses her complete willingness to see that he shall not in any way "become a public charge." The Commissioner has no hesitation in making an order for the release of the man, who hurries off

* The Commissioner of Immigration referred to is the late Commissioner, the Hon. Col. John B. Weber, who was in office at the time when the Ellis Island establishment was inspected by the writer. In consequence of the accession to power of the Democrats, this gentleman, who is a Republican, resigned his position, quitting Ellis Island at the end of March 1893, and was succeeded by Dr. Joseph H. Senner, a gentleman on the editorial staff of the great German newspaper of New York, the *Staats Zeitung*.

with his relative to hunt up his baggage and catch the next boat for New York.*

We will now make our way back to the central hall and go over to the side which we have not yet inspected, the side opposite to the detention room already described. That room is used exclusively for the detention of persons (other than contract labourers) who have arrived to-day. Those who have on previous days been ordered to be detained, otherwise than for diseases requiring hospital treatment, are confined in a compartment on the other side of the hall, which we will now visit. The sole occupant of this place at present is a woman with an illegitimate child, a woman who, with her infant, will almost certainly be sent back as "likely to become a public charge." We pass through to the next compartment, which is reserved for the examination of persons suspected of coming within the category of contract labourers. The first batch of men examined declare that they are shop assistants, that they hope to obtain employment, but have no idea who will employ them, though they admit that the brother of one of their number keeps a store in the town to which they are going. They are quite certain that this shopkeeper did not send them word that he would give them employment. They are down in the ship's manifest as masons, but that is a mistake. The inspector is at his wit's end to know what to think, but ultimately decides to let the men go. The next case is that of a Welshman and his young son, iron-workers by trade. This Welshman has come to America because his elder son, who came over some time ago, and is employed at some works in Illinois, wrote that the foreman had said there would be work for them. This is a case on the borderland of illegality. If the foreman had urged the son in Illinois to send for his

* With reference to three classes of immigrants, no one of which came under the personal observation of the writer during his inspection of the Ellis Island depôt—persons whose passage was assisted by charity and persons who had been inmates of (a) an "almshouse" or (b) a prison—the following information was given by Col. Weber. He said that persons whose passages had been paid for by *charity*, i.e., by money voluntarily given by philanthropic persons, (chiefly Jews) were not treated as being necessarily "paupers," but were considered to be persons in need of *temporary* support. All such persons—it may be observed—are specially examined, and have to show affirmatively that they do not come under any one of the forbidden categories, though this procedure is not observed in the case of a man whose passage has been prepaid by a *relative* (see the Immigration Law of 1891, section 1, Appendix D., *post*, p. 139, and *Report of the Select Committee of the House of Representatives on Immigration and Naturalization*, 1892, pp. 342-344).

With respect to persons who admit that they have been inmates of a poorhouse, Col. Weber stated that there are not many immigrants who make this confession. If they do, they are generally debarred from landing. Though an exception may occasionally be made. Thus, two children came to New York from an English workhouse to join their parents who had previously come to the United States, where they had obtained work at good wages. Inquiries were made from the person by whom the father of these children was employed; and, upon this gentleman giving a certificate that the man was a sober, honest, and industrious servant, Col. Weber allowed the children to land.

With respect to persons who admit having been in prison, Col. Weber would look to the nature of the offence. A man convicted of an assault in which he used a knife would be sent back; but if he, e.g., had stolen a handkerchief or committed some other slight offence, Col. Weber would not debar him from landing unless the offence was recent and showed a depraved character.

father and brother, then the contract labour inspector would feel bound to report the matter to the Commissioner for his decision. But apparently, all the foreman did was to answer a question put by the man as to the probability of work being offered to his father and brother if they came out. So these men, too, are released. Much less doubtful is the case of 11 other ironworkers, natives of Austria, whose statement (as is usual whenever the inspector is satisfied that illegality is fairly presumable) is taken down in writing and sworn to by the suspected labourers. One of these men, who has a brother-in-law at work at a certain iron mill, "says that he received, one month ago, a letter from his brother-in-law, A. B., telling him that there was work for 11 men at the same mill in which he is employed; that each man would receive two dollars per day for his work, and for him to come, and bring 10 men with him; that all should have work at the above-mentioned price per day. Affiant further says, that the boss or foreman of the said mill told his brother-in-law that he had work for 11 men, which was so stated in said letter received by him one month ago. Affiant further says that his passage was paid by said brother-in-law, the other 10 men paying their own passage to America; they would not have come to America but for said letter and assurance of work."* Here there is no practical doubt that the men came to the States upon the express invitation of the owners of these ironworks given by the foreman of the mill as agent for the owners; the affidavit will go before the Commissioner, with the recommendation of the inspector, that these 11 ironworkers be returned to Europe, and he will certainly send them back, and that without delay, unless they obtain a respite by claiming a re-hearing.

What a re-hearing is like, we may learn by proceeding to a room at the end of the dépôt, where an Italian workman is at this moment endeavouring to obtain the rescission of an order for his expulsion made two days ago. This man was one of eight who came under the following circumstances, set forth in detail in an affidavit sworn on arrival jointly by the whole party. C. D. deposed that he had received a letter from E. F., whose full address was given, informing him that E. F. had obtained instructions from the section chief of the permanent way staff of a certain railway company to come at once to G., bringing with him from 12 to 15 men who should have work at a dollar and a quarter a day, "and in response to said letter deponents have come to America, and say that they consider the letter a contract and agreement to work, and further say they would not have come to America except for said letter received by C. D., and say further that they all know the contents of said letter. C. D. says further that F. keeps a boarding-house, and boards Italian railroad

* Copied from the affidavit sworn on March 6, 1893, by 11 iron-workers, who were consequently ordered to be returned to Havre by the steamship company which had brought them to the United States, as having come in violation of the contract labour law.

"labourers." The contract labour inspector sits at a table, examining the immigrant through an official interpreter and taking full notes of his statement, while a lawyer employed on the man's behalf, a clerk from the office of the steamship line which brought the man to America, and does not want to be compelled to take him back, and an Italian gentleman eager to secure fair play for his compatriot, assist in the proceedings. The man on his trial is now ready to swear that practically the whole of the statements contained in the affidavit previously sworn by him are incorrect. He had never intended to go to G. at all; he always meant to stay in New York. He had never the slightest idea what work he was going to get, or what wages he was going to receive, and so on.†

The contract labour inspector does not appear inclined to recommend a reversal of the decision for the expulsion of this immigrant; nor does the Commissioner, before whom the matter is brought, see his way to avoid excluding the man. An appeal to the Superintendent of Immigration and to the Secretary of the Treasury Department will no doubt be made on his behalf; but the Washington authorities are not likely in a case like this to reverse the judgment of the Commissioner at New York ‡

* These particulars are extracted from the affidavit made in a case re-heard in the presence of the writer on March 24, 1893.

† The Commissioner of Immigration (Col. Weber) said that on a re-hearing persons detained as contract labourers almost invariably swear to the contrary of what they had deposed originally; he had only known two cases in which contract labourers had repeated their former statements in the affidavit made by them on appeal, adding "I never was more sorry to have to send anyone back than I was in having to bar these two men."

‡ As a concrete example of the manner in which immigrants are dealt with, the following account furnished by the immigration authorities at Ellis Island, of the disposition of a vessel's complement of steerage passengers may be of interest:—

DISPOSITION OF SS. "GALLIA'S" STEERAGE PASSENGERS, March 13, 1893.

Total number arriving at Immigration Station - - - - 598
Temporarily detained for second or more careful examination - - - - 60

Causes for Detention.	Disposition of Persons detained (after examination).
Pregnancy - - - - - 3	Pregnancy, married at this station and discharged - - - - - 2
	Pregnancy, held under affidavit— not disposed of - - - - - 1
Minors - - - - - 3	Minors discharged to parents - - - - - 3
To be called for (defective addresses, young women, or who, for various reasons are held for responsible callers) - - - - - 21	To be called for, discharged to relations and friends - - - - - 21
No money - - - - - 13	No money, received money and tickets and sent to destination - - - - - 13
Doctor's certificates - - - - - 11	Doctor's certificates, cases slight, and surroundings good, discharged - - - - - 11
Suspected contract labour violators - - - - - 9	Contract labour violators, not sufficient evidence, discharged - - - - - 9
Total - - - - - 60	Total - - - - - 60

Number discharged after detention - - - - - 59

Number detained for further consideration - - - - - 1

Total - - - - - 60

We have now visited all the principal parts of the main building at Ellis Island. At the back of this building stand the detention house and the hospital. The detention house, which is used at night only, contains three distinct divisions, one for married persons, another for single men, and the third for single women. Each bedstead has an upper and a lower tier, the bed on each tier holding two persons. The sanitary arrangements are satisfactory; the place is kept scrupulously clean, and the accommodation provided, although far from luxurious, is, on the whole, about as good as that provided upon an ordinary emigrant ship.

The hospital, which, as already stated, contains 75 beds, is adequate for most purposes; but some bad cases of infectious disease and all violent lunatics are sent, the former to special hospitals, the latter to an asylum belonging to the State of New Jersey with which the immigration authorities have a contract.

To the hospital come, in addition to new arrivals fresh from the ship, those who, after being some months in the country, fall into destitution by reason of ill-health. Here, for example, is a woe-begone Italian, who was sent here on the ground that the state of his lungs renders it impossible for him to earn his living. In an isolation ward is a young Jewess, wearing a perpetual smile; she is imbecile. Both these immigrants landed in New York within the last twelve months, and will in a few days be sent back to Europe as having become a public charge. If it can be made out that their destitute condition arises from causes existing prior to their landing, then the expense of their return will be borne by the steamship companies by which they were brought; if not, then they will be sent back at the cost of the United States.

In addition to the various buildings already described in detail, Ellis Island contains within its area of five-and-a-half acres a house for the resident doctors, a well-arranged laundry, an engine-house, wherein is situated the plant required for generating the electric light used all over the depôt* and the steam used for heating purposes, and also the pumping apparatus for pumping water to the necessary elevation for the supply of the buildings; there is, too, a simple but sufficiently commodious refreshment room for the use of the staff.

The character of the machinery erected for the purpose of sifting out the undesirable from among the general crowd of immigrants entering the port of New York has, it is hoped, now been sufficiently indicated. It remains to speak of the staff, to whom is assigned the working of this machinery and to attempt to give some idea of the extent of the task to be coped with and of the results obtained. The staff at Ellis Island (according to

* In the main building alone there are on the ground floor 17 arc-lights, each of 2,000 candles power, and 75 incandescent lamps, each of 16 candles power; on the first floor there are 10 arc-lights of 2,000 candles power each, and no less than 263 incandescent lights of 16 candles power each. On the wharf in front of the main building there are 5 arc-lights, each of 2,000 candles power.

the figures supplied by the authorities there) consists of the following officials:—*Commissioner's Office*, 1 commissioner, 1 assistant commissioner, 1 treasurer and disbursing agent, 1 private secretary, 1 stenographer and type-writer, 3 messengers; *Executive Bureau*, 1 chief clerk, 2 clerks; *Landing Department*, 1 superintendent of landing and assistant inspector, 1 chief registry clerk and assistant inspector, 13 registry clerks, 1 night clerk, 1 matron, 2 boarding officers; *Information Office*, 2 clerks (1 male and 1 female), 2 interpreters, 9 gatekeepers, 4 night watchmen, 7 watchmen, 16 labourers, 1 lampist, 1 plumber, 8 charwomen; *Engineer's Department*, 1 assistant custodian and chief engineer, 3 assistant engineers, 6 firemen; *Contract Labour Department*, 10 inspectors, 6 interpreters; *Medical Department*, 1 surgeon in charge, 2 assistant surgeons, 1 steward and assistant inspector, 1 apothecary, 8 hospital attendants.

The heavy nature of the work to be performed by this staff of 119 persons may be judged by the fact that the total number of immigrants who pass through the Ellis Island depôt in the year is normally* between 400,000 and 500,000. What makes the work the more trying is that the flood of immigration has by no means an even flow. During the winter months the number of arrivals is comparatively small; but, as soon as March comes round, the rush begins. Two to three thousand immigrants frequently arrive and are inspected in one day, while the numbers not seldom run up to three or four thousand.† On one occasion no less than 5,280 immigrants were passed through the sifting machinery at Ellis Island between 8 a.m. and 5.30 p.m.

As to the results of the action taken in regard to the restriction of immigration, these may be judged from the statistics given in Appendix B., Tables I.–VI., *post*, pp. 111–116, which the Ellis Island authorities have been good enough to place at the disposal of the writer.‡

* The total number of immigrants dealt with at New York in the fiscal year ending June 30, 1892, as given in the *Report* of the Superintendent of Immigration for that year was admitted, 445,987; returned either without being permitted to land or after landing (under the one-year clause), 2,235; bonded, 2,011; total, 450,233. From Sept. 1, 1892, to March 1, 1893, the volume of immigration dealt with at Ellis Island was, on account of the cholera, quite abnormally low, see *post*, pp. 47–50.

† The extent to which the volume of immigration varies according to the season of the year will appear from the figures, showing the arrivals of alien steerage passengers at New York in 1890–93, which are given in Appendix B., Table VII., *post*, p. 116, figures for which the writer is indebted to the kindness of the immigration authorities at that port.

‡ These statistics, it will be seen, relate exclusively to steerage passengers, saloon and second-cabin passengers not being (except in rare instances) subjected to the sifting process carried out at Ellis Island. In addition to these steerage passengers, there arrived at New York in 1892 the following saloon and second-cabin passengers: citizens of the United States, 63,346; Irish, 5,974; English, 22,358; Welsh, 261; Scotch, 5,913; German, 13,497; French, 3,939; Russian, 541; Polish, 47; Swiss, 1,264; Swedish, 1,845; Norwegian, 536; Belgian, 811; Dutch, 1,345; Italian, 1,730; Spanish, 1,603; Portuguese, 179; Danish, 913; Hungarian, 447; Austrian, 1,299; Bohemian, 189; Finnish, 36; Armenian, 37; Chinese, 256; Australian, 62; Turkish, 203; Greek, 39; of all other nationalities, 3,784; total, 132,454.

The figures contained in these tables show that the total number of the cases in which alien immigrants were dealt with under the immigration laws at Ellis Island in the course of 1892 was 375,178, of which 374,741 were cases of persons dealt with on their first arrival. Out of these 374,741 persons, 2,137 were debarred from landing; while 437 immigrants, who had been permitted to land in 1891 or 1892, were sent back at the expense of the steamship companies in 1892, as having become a public charge by reason of causes existing prior to landing. In addition, it has been ascertained that in the course of the year 1892 14 other persons, who within 12 months from the date of their first arrival at New York had become chargeable to the public from causes not proved to have existed prior to their landing, were returned by the Ellis Island authorities, the cost of the return journey of these people being defrayed by the United States.

With respect to the rejection of ineligible immigrants, it will be seen that out of the total number of alien steerage passengers arriving at New York in 1892, in all 2,137 were debarred from landing. It is a fact worthy of notice that, although nearly one-third of all the steerage passengers brought to the port of New York in the course of this year were brought by British lines,* yet only 204 out of the 2,137 debarred immigrants, or considerably less than one-tenth of the total, were persons who had been brought by British lines.† This fact appears to indicate that the class of immigrants brought by British steamships is exceptionally high, and makes it seem probable that our steamship companies exercise a more than common degree of vigilance in discovering and rejecting would-be immigrants of an undesirable type.

Our share of the total number of 437 persons, who, having been allowed to land, were afterwards returned at the expense of the steamship companies, is not so marked an extent noteworthy for its smallness. For in 1892 there were in all 115 persons, who had been brought by British lines, and who were sent back at the cost of those lines as having become a public charge from causes existing prior to their landing.‡

With regard to the special precautions taken to discover the existence of pregnancy with a view to the exclusion of persons whose condition is likely to prevent them from being or remaining

* Out of the 389,852 steerage passengers who arrived at New York in 1892, there were 110,507 who were brought by British lines. These figures, furnished by the authorities at Ellis Island, include citizens of the United States as well as aliens. The total number of citizens so included is stated as 15,111; but how many of these came by British lines is not stated.

† The nativity of the 204 persons brought by British lines and debarred from landing is stated to have been as follows; Irish 76, English 73, Welsh 3, Scotch 14, Polish 2, Russian 28, Swedish 1, Finnish 1, German 6.

‡ The nativity of the 115 persons sent back under the one-year clause by and at the cost of British lines is stated to have been as follows; Irish 40, English 20, Welsh 2, Scotch 6, Polish 4, Russian 30, Swedish 4, Bohemian 2, other Austrian 1, German 6.

self-supporting, certain statistics placed at my disposal by the Ellis Island authorities will be found in Table IV. in Appendix B., *post*, p. 114.

The care which is taken by the medical staff to detect disease may be illustrated by the figures given in Appendix B., Tables V. and VI., *post*, pp. 115, 116, showing the cases in which immigrants were stopped for special examination in two specimen months (March, 1892, and March, 1893), which were furnished by the courtesy of the immigration authorities at New York. 'It will be observed that the causes of detention for special examination extend over a wide range of diseases, both mental and physical, and include incapacitating defects, whether arising from the decay of old age or the effects of accident.

In passing, it may be remarked with reference to the nativity shown in the statistical tables relating to immigration at New York that, according to the statement of Colonel Weber, so far as this port is concerned, out of all immigrants entered as Russians about 90 per cent. are Hebrews, while 10 per cent. only of those entered as of Polish birth are members of the Hebrew race.

It is worthy of note that, according to the estimate of Colonel Weber, about 50 per cent. of all the immigrants who arrive at New York come with their passages prepaid by persons in America, mostly relatives of the immigrants.

It is trusted that the methods adopted by the immigration authorities at New York for the detection of ineligible immigrants have by now been sufficiently explained. It remains to point out that these methods are applied almost entirely to steerage passengers; neither saloon nor second-class passengers are, as a rule, sifted at all. If a contract labourer or a batch of contract labourers is discovered among the second-cabin passengers by the contract labour inspector on boarding the vessel as she enters the harbour, then he will bring this man or these men with him to Ellis Island for investigation there. But such cases are quite exceptional; and in all other cases the saloon and second-class passengers are allowed to land without being taken to Ellis Island on being inspected by matron, doctors, or registry clerks as to their eligibility as immigrants. The reasons which the writer has heard given by officials employed in the immigration service to account for the fact that the machinery of Ellis Island is applied to the steerage passengers alone are, in the first place, that the second-cabin passengers arriving at New York are so numerous that it would be impracticable to examine them as well as the steerage at the Island Depôt; and further, that the second-cabin passengers, who include among their number many citizens of the United States, would be difficult to handle, as they would not submit to interrogation and restraint as tamely as do the ordinary steerage passengers. Whether, if second-class passengers were examined at Ellis Island, any large proportion would be found to be ineligible, is open to doubt.

The cost of a second-cabin passage to New York would appear to be in most cases very considerably higher than the steerage fare,* so that it may be unlikely that among the second-class immigrants many are "paupers or likely to become a public charge."

THE SIFTING PROCESS AT BALTIMORE.

Next to New York in importance as a point of entry for immigrants, though coming far behind New York, is the port of Baltimore.† At Baltimore the arrangements for the inspection of immigrants, although based in all respects upon the same principles as those in force at New York, differ in some particulars worthy of note. While (as has already been mentioned) at New York saloon and second-cabin passengers are (with rare exceptions) exempt from the necessity of going through the sifting machine, the less elaborate machinery in operation in Baltimore is applied without distinction to all immigrants (*i.e.*, aliens coming to settle, as distinguished from mere visitors or tourists) whether travelling as first-class, as second-cabin, or as steerage passengers.

But it should be observed that, while at New York the saloon and second-cabin passengers (as will have been seen from the figures already given) form a large fraction of the total arrivals, at Baltimore the great bulk of the arrivals are those of steerage passengers. This is shown by the figures furnished by the agents of the North German Lloyd Steamship Company at Baltimore which are subjoined.

LIST of PASSENGERS who arrived at BALTIMORE during the Years 1891 and 1892 by the following LINES.

1891.

Where from, and Line.	Cabin.	Inter- mediate.	Steerage.	Total.
Bremen—North German Lloyd -	473	—	44,970	45,443
Rotterdam—Netherlands Line -	55	—	712	767
Hamburg—Hamburg-American Packet Company - - - -	15	—	2,456	2,471
Liverpool—Allan Line - - -	162	151	563	816
Total - - - -	645	151	48,701	49,497

* Mr. Bumphrey, General Manager of the Cunard Steamship Company, Limited, writes under date of May 26, 1893: "You may take it that the second-cabin fare, speaking generally, is from 63 p.c. to 65 p.c. higher than that of the steerage. "For instance, when our steerage rate was 4*l.* 4*s.*, our second was 7*l.*; when other people's steerage was 4*l.*, their second cabin was 6*l.* 10*s.*, with our present rate of 5*l.* 5*s.* for steerage, we are asking 8*l.* and 9*l.* for seconds in the Boston ships, and "9*l.* and 10*l.* in the New York ones."

† If arrivals from Canada were counted in, then Boston would rank second; but the figures given in the official publications of the United States Immigration Service do not cover arrivals from Canada (see *Report of Superintendent of Immigration for year ending June 30, 1892*, p. 41, n.).

1892.

Where from, and Line.	Cabin.	Inter- mediate.	Steerage.	Total.
Bremen—North German Lloyd	426	—	43,878	44,304
Liverpool—Allan Line	51	101	296	448
Hamburg—Hamburg-American Packet Company	3	—	3,607	3,610
Rotterdam—Netherlands Line	4	—	834	838
Total	484	101	48,615	49,200*

The examination at Baltimore is conducted in a large shed incomparably less commodious than the splendid *depôt* at Ellis Island by a staff relatively minute in number. On the occasion when this Baltimore *depôt* was visited, what appears to be the full staff,† consisting of one contract labour inspector and four registry clerks, was at work under the supervision of the Commissioner. The number of the persons brought by the vessel whose clearance was witnessed was 789; these were medically inspected in 28½ minutes, two persons (a boy and a girl) being told to stand on one side for subsequent special examination. The boy (about 10 years of age) attracted the attention of the contract labour inspector, who brought him back to the doctor; but his singular gait and the glazed, fixed look of his eyes, which gave him the appearance of imbecility, turned out to be due to the effects of liquor. The girl (about 12 years old) was noticed by the doctor on account of her face being covered with spots, which (the doctor said) induced him to suspect the presence of syphilis. Whether this suspicion was correct cannot be stated, for the girl escaped into the crowd; it was expected by the doctor that the registry clerks would discover and detain her during the process of inspection and interrogation; but she was not discovered by them, and the doctor abandoned all hopes of finding her.‡

The whole of the 789 immigrants were inspected and examined by the registry clerks and the labour contract inspector (the methods adopted being generally similar to those in vogue at the New York immigration *depôt*{}) in 3 hours 40 minutes, it

* The figures in the text relate to all passengers, whether immigrants or not. It will be seen by the figures given in Appendix B., Table VIII., *post*, p. 117, that out of this total of 49,200 passengers arriving in 1892, in all 48,467 were immigrants.

† See the official figures, *post*, p. 64.

‡ The medical gentleman employed on this occasion was acting as quarantine doctor as well as for immigration purposes. The vessel, it should be explained, had called at New York before coming to Baltimore, and had passed a quarantine inspection at the former port. The doctor did not compel immigrants to uncover their heads as they passed him; as to the practice in this respect at New York, see *ante*, p. 15.

§ The columns in the registers of immigrants are, in the main, the same at Baltimore as at New York, except that the column as to health is headed "Condition of Health and Physical Condition," the latter phrase referring to defects such as an amputated arm or leg, and that there is at Baltimore a column headed "If in Possession of Ticket" (*i.e.*, railway ticket for the journey inland), and another column headed "Religion," with sub-divisions "Cath.," "Prot.," and "Heb."

being stated that the work would have been got through with greater expedition but for the fact that almost all these officials were new employees unaccustomed to their duties, the former officials, with one exception, having recently resigned in consequence of the entry into power of the Democratic party. No person was debarred from landing, though a Jewish woman with two very young children came very near to being sent back, or, at any rate, detained for further inquiries. The particulars of this case appear worthy of narration as affording a typical illustration of the merciful manner in which the immigration laws are applied. This woman possessed, for the support of herself and her two children, no more than 20 cents (10*d.*). She said that she was going to St. Louis to join her husband who had prepaid her passage to Baltimore; but she had no ticket for her railway journey. She did not know her husband's address, which was no doubt accounted for by the fact that she was unable to read. But the agent of the steamship company hoped to be able to find out through the books at the office the address of the husband, which he would presumably have given when buying the prepaid passage. An agent of Baron de Hirsch was present, and he volunteered to pay the woman's railway fare to St. Louis, taking his chance of the husband's refunding the money. Thereupon the woman and her children were released, and allowed to go on their journey.

The shed, in which the sifting process is carried on in Baltimore, is, as has been said, far less commodious than the great *dépôt* at Ellis Island, but appeared to afford facilities in the main sufficient for the purpose for which it is used. Large numbers can be dealt with here, if necessary, without inconvenience; and it was stated that on one day in 1892 over 4,000 immigrants were inspected in about eight hours. The extent of the work carried out by the immigration authorities at Baltimore may best be judged from the figures given in Appendix B., Tables VIII.-XI., *post*, pp. 117-119, figures which these authorities were so good as to place at my disposal.

It will be seen that the total number of the cases in which immigrants (saloon, second-class, and steerage together) were dealt with by the immigration authorities at Baltimore in 1892 was 48,484, that 48,467 persons were dealt with on their first arrival, of whom 65 were debarred from landing, and that 17 persons, who had been allowed to land in 1891 or 1892, were sent back in 1892. Of the 65 debarred immigrants, 41 were excluded as "paupers or likely to become a public charge," while 20 were offenders against the contract labour law,* the remaining 4 being persons afflicted with various bodily ailments.

* It appears probable that these 20 persons formed but a small fraction of the total number of persons who came to Baltimore during 1892 in contravention of the contract labour law, it being said that many men of this class who arrive at Baltimore, being fully acquainted with the provisions of this law, avoid its enforcement by making statements tending to show that they do not come within these provisions, especially by alleging that they are coming to join relatives.

No one was rejected as an idiot or a lunatic, a convict or a polygamist.

The 17 persons above referred to as having been allowed to land at Baltimore, and having subsequently been returned, were all returned at the expense of the owners of the vessels which had brought them, as having within one year after debarkation become a public charge from causes existing prior to landing. As to the other class of returned immigrants—those who, having become a public charge from causes not provable to have existed prior to landing, must be sent back at the cost, not of the steamship companies, but of the United States—it has been ascertained that no case of this description occurred at Baltimore in 1892.

Out of the 65 persons who were debarred from landing 14,* and of the 17 persons returned under the one-year clause 6,† were brought and returned by British vessels.

It is to be remarked that at Baltimore the immigrants are asked to state their religious profession, and that (as shown by Table XI. in Appendix B., *post*, p. 119) rather more than half (24,640 out of 48,467) were Roman Catholics, while 21,424 persons were entered as Protestants and the rest (2,403) as Hebrews. While the total number of Russian immigrants entering the port of Baltimore in 1892 was 4,880, it will be seen that only 1,949 of these were Hebrews; of the 8,583 Poles, again, no more than 57 were Hebrews. At New York (it will be remembered) it is estimated that of all the Russian immigrants coming to that port 90 per cent., and of all the Poles 10 per cent., are Hebrews (*ante*, p. 29). The large number of non-Hebrew Russians figuring in the Baltimore returns is stated to be due to the considerable number of Menmonites who seek refuge in the United States by way of the Maryland city, and who (it may be of interest to add) are regarded as a highly desirable body of settlers.

Speaking generally of the immigration taking place at Baltimore, it is said that this is of an exceptionally good character. The unpopular Italian is a rare visitor; 20 only out of a total of 48,467 immigrants belonging to that nationality. On the other hand, those warmly-welcomed settlers, the Swedes (352) and the Norwegians (65), form but a small fraction of the year's immigration. But the strong point in favour of Baltimore is the fact that, on account of the railway fares to many parts of the West being cheaper from Baltimore than from New York, Boston, or Philadelphia, the Maryland port is a favourite with those who wish to go out West. In short, the bulk of the immigration into Baltimore, instead of remaining in and over-crowding that city, flows precisely in those channels in which it is the most beneficial, and consists of those hardy and industrious settlers who

* The nativity of these 14 persons is given as—English, 13; Scotch, 1.

† The nativity of all these 6 persons is given as English.

form the most acceptable accession to the population of the United States.*

It must be added that a very large proportion of immigrants who land at Baltimore come with passages prepaid by relatives or friends already in the United States. The agent of the North German Lloyd Line, by which the great majority of immigrants are brought to Baltimore, estimates that of all the steerage passengers carried to this port by that line from 65 to 70 per cent. come with prepaid passages.

It should be stated that the arrangements made at Baltimore for the convenience of those immigrants who leave by railway are extremely good, the trains being made up at the door of the immigration depôt, and no unnecessary delay occurring between the landing of the immigrants and their departure on the cars.

The facilities afforded by the detention house at Ellis Island are not to be found at Baltimore. In some cases persons detained by the immigration authorities are kept on board the vessel which brought them, the steamship company having to see that they do not escape; in other cases an immigrant under detention will reside at a boarding-house until finally allowed to land or sent back. It appears that in one respect the practice at Baltimore is different from that at New York, for at the latter port the cost of an immigrant's food during detention is now † invariably paid by the company on whose vessel he came, and that, even though he is ultimately allowed to land; but at Baltimore, if an immigrant is "delayed" (as it is there called) for inquiries to be made in order to decide whether he shall be permitted to land, the cost of his maintenance is charged to the steamship company only in case the immigrant is ultimately debarred from landing; in other cases the expense usually falls upon the Government, and is defrayed out of the head-tax. ‡ On the other hand, in one point the steamship companies are treated with greater severity at Baltimore than at New York. If a man (for example) landed at New York in December, 1892, becomes a public charge at, say, Buffalo, in May, 1893, from some cause which can be shown to have existed at the time when he was landed, then the immigration authorities at Ellis Island do indeed compel the steamship company by which the man was brought to America to take him back from New York to Europe at their own expense, but they do not apply to the steamship company to pay the immigrant's fare from Buffalo.

* From Table X., Appendix B., *post*, p. 118, it will be seen that the entire number of persons coming to Baltimore in 1892 with the intention of settling in any part of the State of Maryland was no more than 4,264, much less than one-tenth of the total immigration at Baltimore.

† Since the Federal authorities took over the regulation of immigration at New York. Compare the regulations under the new immigration law, Art. 9, in Appendix D., *post*, p. 145.

‡ The agent of the North German Lloyd Steamship Company stated that cases not seldom occur in which (*e.g.*) the husband of a woman who has been detained pending inquiries, and who is ultimately released, recoups to the immigration authorities the cost of her keep.

Now, if an immigrant landed at Baltimore is afterwards returned by the steamship company under the one-year clause, the immigration authorities at that port insist that the steamship company shall pay the full amount of the expenses incurred in transporting him to Baltimore from the place where he had become a public charge.*

THE SIFTING PROCESS AT BOSTON.

The immigration which takes place at Boston is of two kinds, which it will be convenient to deal with separately—Transatlantic immigration, and immigration from the Dominion of Canada, and we will begin with the treatment of Transatlantic immigrants.

TRANSATLANTIC IMMIGRANTS.

The practice at Boston resembles that in force at Baltimore in this respect, that the sifting process is applied to second-cabin passengers in the same manner as to immigrants arriving in the steerage; but saloon passengers are only inspected in a casual manner, no questions being put to them unless there is some special ground for suspicion. The sifting process itself differs in important respects from that adopted either at New York or at Baltimore. In the first place, Boston does not possess any locality in the nature of an immigrant depôt. Wherever a ship happens to dock, there are her passengers examined, on the ship and in the shed at the wharf, without any mechanical appliances—gangway barriers, "detention pens," &c.—such as exist at New York and Baltimore. In the next place, the big registers with their columns of information, which the clerks are expected to fill in with the answers elicited from the immigrants, are not to be found at Boston. Indeed, it would be physically impracticable to find a place for these huge books on the deck where the inspectors carry out their examination. However, the best way to explain the system in vogue at Boston will be to describe the landing of a ship's complement of passengers, witnessed by the writer.

The ship in question, bringing 32 saloon, 259 second-cabin and 774 steerage passengers, was boarded by the immigration inspectors immediately she came up to the dock. The medical officer, however, could not be found; it was shortly after 2 p.m.

* With respect to the treatment of the expectant mothers of illegitimate infants, a case (mentioned by the doctor on duty as having recently occurred) in which a pregnant unmarried woman, accompanied by the father of the expected infant was allowed to land upon the assurance, given by this man, that he would marry the girl when they arrived at their destination out West, seems to show that less strictness is maintained in regard to this matter at Baltimore than at New York. For at New York, in a case like this, the woman would have been sent back, unless the man consented to be married to her, there and then, at Ellis Island.

on a Saturday afternoon when the arrival of the vessel (which was not expected to come in quite so soon) was announced, and he had gone for the day. The commissioner was also absent, being detained at home by illness, and the general direction of the work was in the hands of Mr. Colcord, one of the immigrant inspectors. It should be observed that there is no special contract labour inspector stationed at Boston, where the immigrant inspectors (four in number) combine with their other duties that of endeavouring to detect breaches of the contract labour law. As soon as the steamship was made fast, one of the immigration inspectors went to the purser's cabin, where he examined the passenger lists, apparently looking out for certain names, of which he had a note on a slip of paper. Nothing suspicious being detected, the inspection of the passengers was forthwith commenced. A gangway plank was let down from the ship's side to the dock, sloping downwards at a sharp angle. At the head of the gangway stood two inspectors, each with a small note-book; a third inspector assisted generally. The second-class passengers were taken first; and between 3.38 p.m. and 4.50 p.m. (when work ceased for the day) about 190 answered the questions put to them and passed out, the only detentions being those of two young girls, whom Mr. Colcord declined to allow to go on shore alone, and who accordingly waited until next day, when their mother came for them. The doctor not being present, there was no medical examination; but it was stated that, if the immigrant inspectors had noticed any person apparently ineligible by reason of disease, they would have detained him for inspection by the doctor next day. It must be added that the work of the inspectors was performed under circumstances involving some inconvenience, because of the noise and confusion which went on all the time, the deck being crowded with people impatient to get on shore. It must, however, be stated that on the following day stricter discipline was maintained, and the inspectors were able to get through their task with very slight impediment.

When the business of inspection was resumed next morning, two gangway planks were let down on to the wharf. At the head of one gangway stood Mr. Colcord with a second inspector, who took notes for him of the answers made by the immigrants. At the head of the other gangway stood a third inspector, who both asked questions and noted answers. The balance of the 259 second-cabin passengers left over from yesterday were first examined, then the steerage.

The questions put to the immigrants were of two classes, the ordinary questions, put to determine the admissibility of the immigrant under the immigration laws, and some special questions put in order to enable the compilation of certain statistics, which are furnished to the Collector of Customs (nativity, destination, and whether going to any and what

relation).* The questions put for the information of the Collector of Customs were put to each and every passenger without exception; but with regard to the interrogatories administered with specific reference to the restriction of immigration a large degree of discretion was used. Everyone over the age of 20 years was asked how much money he had, and in some cases people were obliged to show their money. At the same time, it should be observed that, whether a person had much money or little seemed to have a very small bearing upon the question of his eligibility. One man with only 5s. in the world, two persons with only 50 cents [2s.] each, one man with only 20 cents [10d.], two persons (the one a man, the other an unmarried woman) with no money whatever in their possession, all these were allowed to land.

The question of age appeared to be gone into principally in either of two cases: (a) if it was not clear at a glance whether the immigrant was over or under 20 years (and accordingly whether the money question had to be inquired into or not); and also, (b) if a man or a woman looked to be too old to earn a living, and seemed on this ground "likely to become a public charge."

Other questions were put as they seemed required in each case. A great many people were asked if they had ever been ill? If they had ever been in a hospital or other public institution? Some were asked if they had ever received poor-law relief. But here, again, no harshness was exercised. Thus a wheelwright with a son of 15 years, owned to having had relief from the guardians some time ago, but was not excluded. Nor was another man, travelling with his wife and daughter, who admitted that he had had potatoes for seed given him in a bad year by the poor-law authorities, debarred from landing.

So far we have been dealing with the non-medical part of the inspection, which at Boston precedes the medical examination. The doctor stands at the foot of the two gangways at the point where they converge on the wharf; and the immigrants, after they have been examined by the inspectors, defile past him, in most cases walking, in a few instances running down the gangway plank. Occasionally the inspectors observe some case presenting suspicious symptoms (*e.g.*, a man who showed some signs of defective intellect, and another who had caught a bad cold on the voyage and looked as if he were going blind), and call up the doctor, who then comes on to the deck and gives his opinion as to the true character of the disease.

The whole of the passengers (other than those who had been examined on the preceding day) were inspected, first by the immigrant inspectors and then by the doctor, in 3 hours 27 min. Adding this to the work of the preceding day we find that the total time spent in examining the entire complement of the vessel's second-cabin, and steerage passengers (1,033 in number)

* The Customs authorities appear to have requested the immigration officers to furnish these particulars for quarantine purposes; see *post*, pp. 47-50.

other than five detained for special investigation, was 4 hours 39 min., the rate at which the immigrants passed on to the wharf as they were released being nearly three to the minute on the first day, and about two to the minute on the second. It should be added that the passengers brought by this ship were, on the whole, a specially eligible lot of people. Of the steerage passengers 555 were natives of Ireland, 202 of England, 13 of Scotland, 1 of Denmark, and 1 of Russia (a Jew who was said to have been some time in England and who spoke English well), while 2 were citizens of the United States. Of the total number of 772 alien steerage passengers* three were in transit to places outside the United States, and 49 were resident in the States, while the others were all (according to their statements) going to join persons who might in most cases be presumed to be likely to look after their welfare by helping them to find employment or otherwise—to join brothers and sisters, or both, 458; uncles or aunts, or both, 74; cousins, 49; parent or parents, 65; husbands, 19; sons or daughters, or both, 35; wives, 3; nephews, 2; brother-in-law, 1; sisters-in-law, 2; friends, 12.

The only detentions made were those of a woman with three children, and a man travelling alone, these five persons being detained as apparently likely to become a public charge. The woman was deserted by her husband whose whereabouts she did not know, but had grown-up children living in the United States to whom she was allowed to telegraph. One of these children (a daughter) afterwards came to Boston and fetched her mother, brother, and two sisters away, no objection being made to their landing. The man, who owned to being 50 or 51 years of age, and who looked to be so far advanced in years that he could scarcely be expected to find employment without difficulty, was also subsequently released, his nephew, described as "a boss at a puddling furnace," having come to Boston to claim him.

The system of examination in force at Boston having now been illustrated, it may be of interest to inquire how this system compares, in point of efficiency, with the more elaborate methods adopted at New York and at Baltimore. First as to the absence of registers; this is a defect with compensating qualities of its own. No doubt, a man who has to fill in columns already prepared with appropriate headings is less likely to forget to ask a question of importance than is an investigator who has to carry his schedules in his head. On the other hand, a clerk filling in blanks in a printed book is apt to get mechanical in his work, to take down answers without paying much attention to their nature, and to refrain from putting any further questions which these answers may suggest. But at

* Of the 774 steerage passengers, including citizens of the United States, the destinations were as follows:—Connecticut, 1; Colorado, 1; California, 1; Illinois, 8; Iowa, 1; Maine, 3; Minnesota, 2; Massachusetts, 700; New Hampshire, 7; Nebraska, 1; New York, 12; Pennsylvania, 2; Rhode Island, 31; Wisconsin, 1; in transit, 3.

Boston the questions put varied to a convenient extent with the circumstances, and even a prompt and categorical reply (if its accuracy were doubted) was not seldom followed up by further interrogation. Thus, in some instances, an immigrant, who professed to be able to read and write, was asked to demonstrate his ability there and then, a test which the writer never saw applied elsewhere. Especially to be commended is the plan sometimes adopted at Boston of dispensing the interrogator from the labour of taking down answers, this being done by another man standing by his side. To observe closely the demeanour of a person under examination is a matter of the first importance, and the eyes of an investigator ought always to be free.

Next as to the absence of any special immigrant depôt; in this respect Boston is certainly unfortunate. The deck of a vessel is not a place suitable for carrying out an inspection of the nature necessary under the circumstances. The features of a reasonably well-appointed depôt, with proper barriers and detention compartments tend to impress the persons under examination with the official character of the inquiry, to make them more readily amenable to discipline, and to lead them to give the required information with greater promptness, and in all probability with greater accuracy than they exhibit where no special appliances exist, and where only a *minimum* of formality is observed. At the same time, there can be but little doubt that the inspectors would do their work better, if things were made more comfortable for them than is now the case, especially in cold or rainy weather.

As to the medical inspection, it would appear that the first essential is a proper light; and this requisite was sadly wanting on the occasion above described, when the immigrants came rapidly down steeply-inclined gangways with a strong sun behind them. What with the shadow cast over the upper part of their faces by the hats of the men (which they were not ordered to remove) and with the comparative darkness of the shed into which the immigrants passed in order to come before the doctor, his task of discrimination was one, under all the circumstances, almost impossible to perform with precision.

The general character of the work carried out by the immigration authorities at Boston in relation to Transatlantic immigration in 1892, will be judged from the figures placed by them at my disposal, which are contained in Tables XII.-XIV. set forth in Appendix B., *post*, pp. 119-121.

The figures supplied by the immigration authorities at Boston refer to all passengers of every class (saloon, second-cabin, and steerage) other than citizens of the United States and "transients," but do not include in the gross total of arrivals (29,709) the persons (113) debarred from landing; bearing this in mind, we shall see that the total number of the cases in which immigrants of alien nationality brought to Boston from Trans-

atlantic ports were dealt with by the immigration authorities in the course of the year 1892 was 29,895. The persons dealt with on their first arrival numbered 29,822, of whom 29,709 were allowed to land, while 113 were excluded. In all, 73 immigrants, who had been allowed to land in 1891 or 1892, were sent back in 1892. Out of the 113 persons who were debarred from landing, 105 were excluded as "paupers, or likely to become a public charge," 3 because they were suffering from various physical maladies, 1 as insane, and 4 as "assisted immigrants," that is to say, persons whose passages had been in whole or in part paid for by others, and who were unable to prove that they did not belong to one of the classes of persons ineligible as immigrants, or to the class of contract labourers.* No convict was detected and returned, nor any polygamist. Not a single individual is stated to have been debarred as a contract labourer.

The 73 persons, who (as stated above), after having been allowed to land, were subsequently sent back, were all persons who had become a public charge from causes existing prior to their landing, and were accordingly returned at the cost of the owners of the vessels which had brought them to America.† No case occurred in which, the cause of a man's becoming a public charge not being shown to have existed prior to landing, he was sent back at the cost of the United States.

Of the 113 persons who, after crossing the Atlantic, were debarred from landing at Boston in 1892,‡ in all 107,§ and of the 73 persons returned to the Old World under the one-year clause in the course of 1892, in all 68 had arrived in British vessels.||

* As an example of the lenient manner in which the law is administered may be cited a case of recent occurrence in which a young man of 19, who came to Boston with no money and without friends in the United States, was allowed to land, the steamship company having agreed to support him until he could find employment.

† The causes specified are:—"Public charge, 45; Insanity, 18; Pregnancy, 2; Paralysis, 1; Diseased, 7."

‡ The total number of passengers arriving at Boston from Transatlantic ports in 1892, whether citizens or aliens, and whether resident, transient, or settlers (including those debarred from landing), is stated to have been 32,963, the proportion brought by British lines being as under:—

By what Lines brought.	Cabin.	Inter- mediate.	Steerage.	Total.
British Lines - - -	1,628	4,246	25,204	31,078
All other Lines - - -	470	—	1,415	1,885
Total - - - -	2,098	4,246	26,619	32,963

§ The nativity ascribed to these 107 persons is:—"Great Britain" (? United Kingdom), 93; Germany, 1; Russia, 2; Poland, 6; other countries, 5.

|| The nativity ascribed to these 68 persons is "Great Britain," 55; Germany, 1; Russia, 4; Poland, 2; Sweden, 4; Finland, 1; Austria, 1.

It should be noted that, according to the belief entertained by the immigration authorities, practically the whole of the 2,604 Russians, and probably about 10 per cent. of the 874 Poles arriving at Boston from Transatlantic ports in 1892 were Hebrews; while it is stated that both of the two Russians and one of the three Germans debarred from landing were Hebrews (these persons being refused admission "by reason of physical disability which rendered them likely to become a public charge," and that the four Russians, two Poles, and one Austrian sent back under the one-year clause were all Hebrews, the causes of their return being:—"Public charge, 4; Insanity, 2; Diseased, 1." All these 10 debarred or returned Hebrews were brought by British vessels and were sent back to British ports.

It is worthy of remark that, according to the estimate of the Boston immigration authorities, the proportion of immigrants arriving at that city in 1892 from Transatlantic ports whose passage to America was paid for by relatives or friends in the United States was higher than at New York or even at Baltimore, being reckoned at "about 75 per cent."

Boston does not possess any detention house for immigrants. In some cases a person detained in order to enable inquiries to be made* or pending his return is imprisoned on the vessel which brought him or which is going to take him back. But if this course would involve an undue degree of inconvenience to the steamship company (*e.g.*, if an appeal to the Washington authorities as to the man's return is pending), then the immigrant is detained in the "almshouse" of the State of Massachusetts. The rule here (as at New York) is that the maintenance of an immigrant detained for inquiries to be made shall be defrayed by the steamship owners, whether he be ultimately allowed to land or not. But (also in accordance with the New York, rather than the Baltimore practice) the cost of conveying to the port, *e.g.*, a lunatic who, within one year after landing, has got into an asylum at a distance, is not claimed from the steamship company which has to take him back from Boston.

CANADIAN IMMIGRATION AT BOSTON.

The immigration into Boston from Canadian ports (*e.g.*, Yarmouth and Halifax) is quite distinct in character from that which takes place from the Transatlantic ports,† and is treated

* In a statement prepared by Mr. Wrightington, Commissioner of Immigration at Boston, for the Chicago Exhibition, it is mentioned that, taking all the Massachusetts ports together, the whole number of immigrants from all countries temporarily detained for further investigation during the 10 years ending December 31, 1892, was 1,242, of whom 662 were returned and 580 were ultimately allowed to land.

† Questioned as to whether the Canadian vessels brought passengers from Europe travelling *viâ* the Dominion, the authorities at Boston answered in the negative, asserting without hesitation that practically no immigrants who come to Canada from Europe use Boston as a point of entry into the United States. But the figures given later (*post*, p. 42 *n.*) show that cases, no doubt exceptional, do occur in which European immigrants enter, or attempt to enter the United States by this route.

in a widely different manner. Persons found to be ineligible or to have come in violation of the alien contract labour law are debarred from landing; but the examination of the passengers on vessels coming from the Dominion is of a very slight character. On the occasion upon which the writer witnessed the landing of the passengers brought by a steamer from Yarmouth, Nova Scotia, the doctor and the immigrant inspector stood at the head of the gangway plank, the passengers defiling past them. The inspector put questions to the first few who came along (he said he usually questioned about one person in ten), asking if the man had been here before? For how long? Where was he going to? For whom was he going to work? Had he got work already? The rest he merely glanced at. The entire examination of the 24 passengers by doctor and immigrant inspector occupied five minutes.

The total number of the aliens who arrived at Massachusetts ports, chiefly at Boston, from ports in the Dominion of Canada during 1892 was 27,461, of whom 63 were not permitted to land but returned,* 56 because considered likely to become a public charge, 1 because afflicted with physical, and 1 because suffering from mental disease, and 5 as contract labourers, while 37 persons were sent back to Canada under the one-year clause, the causes of such return being specified as "epilepsy, 1; "dipsomania, 1; insanity, 8; pregnancy, 5; public charge, 22."

It is fairly certain that the five quarrymen who were sent back to Canada in 1892 as having come in violation of the contract labour law were not the only persons, were indeed but a very minute proportion of the persons who came to Boston or the minor ports of Massachusetts, under circumstances making their entry into the United States unlawful. For a very large part of the Canadian immigration into Boston and these smaller ports is that of "birds of passage," men, that is, who come over every spring, and after working through the summer in the United States, return to their homes in Canada. These farm hands, fishermen, carpenters, &c., know well enough that they have a job waiting for them, employment having been promised to them before they started; but they are far too well acquainted with the United States laws to be entrapped into compromising admissions. Mr. Colcord, the able inspector at Boston already referred to, says that "they teach the contract labour law in the Nova Scotian schools." Be this as it may, the application of this law is, in the case of very many among the immigrants from the Dominion, attended with almost insuperable difficulties. What is more, Mr. Colcord declared that, in his belief, every immigrant from Canada whom the

* The nationality of these 63 debarred persons is given by the immigration authorities as follows:—"43 were natives of the Dominion of Canada, 13 of Newfoundland, 2 of England, and 4 were natives of Finland. The English subjects had been residing in Nova Scotia between one and two years. The Finns were direct from their native country *via* Nova Scotia."

inspectors had stopped at Boston, had afterwards got into the United States by the land frontier, usually by Vanceborough, Maine. He said they had investigated some such cases and found this to be the fact.

THE SIFTING PROCESS AT PHILADELPHIA.

The machinery used at Philadelphia for the restriction of immigration is of special interest as showing the possibility of obtaining a degree of efficiency little, if at all, inferior to that obtained at the admirably appointed depôt in New York, while dispensing with the employment of the more elaborate apparatus which is in use, and which is no doubt required at that place, where the number of persons to be dealt with is so much larger than at Philadelphia.*

At Philadelphia, as at Boston, no special examination is made in the case of saloon passengers, unless on a cursory inspection there appears some reason for suspicion; but, as at Baltimore and Boston (though not at New York), the second-cabin passengers are examined with the same care as the steerage immigrants. As at Baltimore, a large shed is used for the application of the sifting process, though the second-class immigrants, if few in number, are often inspected on the ship which brings them or as they come off the ship down the gangway plank.† The medical examination takes place on board the ship. Upon the occasion when the writer was present, the passengers (other than the single saloon passenger, a citizen of the United States) were mustered on deck (their number being 157 second class, 505 steerage, total 662) and made to defile between two doctors, of whom one was examining for quarantine purposes as port physician, while the other, representing the Federal Government, was inspecting both for quarantine and also for immigration purposes.‡ The rate at which the immigrants passed the doctors was about 27 to the minute; but one case of an aged man, badly crippled by rheumatism, was held over for special examination (lasting 1½ minutes) at the end. Men were not, as a rule, compelled to take off their hats, though this was insisted upon in the case of an immigrant whose face was covered with a rash.

After the medical examination was ended, the immigrants (on this occasion both second-cabin and steerage alike) walked from the ship to the inspection shed some little distance off, care being taken that none of them got away.

* It was stated that the greatest number of immigrants landed in one day at Philadelphia was 1,170.

† As to the questions with regard to the eligibility of immigrants which at Philadelphia have since 1882 been required to be answered by the doctor and the purser of the ship bringing them, see *post*, pp. 46, 47.

‡ The port physician had a lay assistant; the federal doctor, a medical assistant; but the duties of these assistants were in connection with quarantine, rather than with immigration purposes.

The inspection of the immigrants was carried out by two interpreters, two ordinary immigrant inspectors, and a special contract labour inspector, all acting under the Commissioner, Mr. John J. S. Rodgers. A boarding-house keeper gave her assistance for the detection of pregnancy. There is somewhat less specialization than at New York, the contract labour inspector (as well as the interpreters and ordinary inspectors) acting as registry clerk at one of the sifting gangways, while the interpreters and the ordinary inspectors not only look out for ineligibility, but do their best to detect and detain violators of the contract labour law. The columns in the registers are in the main identical with those in use at New York, but there is here no separate column for "Condition of Health." The work is got through in a somewhat more leisurely manner at Philadelphia than at New York, the amount of time given to the examination of each immigrant averaging nearly two minutes. In several cases a vigorous attempt to obtain admissions justifying the rejection of immigrants as contract labourers was made, but no amount of cross-examination could elicit anything sufficiently definite to warrant their being barred. The rheumatic old man was passed by the inspectors because he was claimed by relatives willing to look after him. At the end of the proceedings only two persons remained for further inquiry. The one was a penniless Irish youth who had come with a ticket for Philadelphia prepaid by someone in Trenton, New Jersey, to which place he desired to go. Finally, the agent of the Hibernian Society offered to pay his fare to Trenton and he was discharged. The other detained immigrant was a man advanced in years, an ironworker from Stockton-on-Tees, coming, as he alleged, on a visit to a son at a town in Ohio. He had a little over 2*l.* in his possession, but had no railway ticket for his journey inland. The Commissioner had received a letter from the poor-law authorities of this town warning him that the old man was coming, that he had been in receipt of relief from the guardians in England (which he admitted to have been the case), that he was physically unfit to work, and that his relatives in the United States would not and could not support him. After hearing the man's story the Commissioner sent him back to be detained on the ship pending further investigation.*

The work done by the immigration authorities at Philadelphia in 1892 will be seen from the figures given in Appendix B, Tables XV.-XVII., *post*, pp. 122-124, which these authorities

* It appears likely that this man was ultimately allowed to land; for, nearly a month later, the agents, at Liverpool, of the ship which brought him stated that he had not come back on the next or the following vessel. The rough guess which the Commissioner made was that the information as to this man's intended arrival was given by his son's wife, whom the man alleged to be on bad terms with him, and who, it seemed likely, did not want to be encumbered by the presence of her father-in-law. The old man asserted positively that his son expected, and would welcome, him.

were good enough to place at the disposal of the writer. The figures given in these tables (which refer to alien passengers travelling in the second-cabin or steerage, other than "transients," but do not deal with saloon passengers, and in which the 20 persons debarred from landing are not included in the gross total of arrivals, 29,292) show that the total number of the cases in which the immigration authorities had in the course of the year 1892 to deal with passengers who had come to the United States with a view to settling there by way of Philadelphia was 29,338.* Of these, 29,312 were cases of persons dealt with on their first arrival, while 26 persons who landed in 1891 or 1892 were returned in 1892. Out of the 29,312 persons who came as immigrants in 1892, in all 20 were debarred from landing, of whom 18 were rejected as "paupers, or likely to become a public charge," 16 of these being stated to have been stowaways and 2 pregnant women, and 2 were denied admission as violators of the contract labour law. The 26 persons mentioned as having been returned after being allowed to land† include 25 who were sent back at the cost of the steamship companies, and 1 immigrant, who, having within one year of landing become a public charge by reason of causes not existing at the time of landing, was returned at the cost of the United States. It will be remarked that among the 20 persons debarred from landing there was not a single individual who was excluded on the ground that he was discovered to be an idiot or insane, or a convict, or a polygamist, and only two who were kept out as contract labourers.

Of the 20 persons debarred from landing at Philadelphia 4,‡ and of the 26 immigrants returned after having been allowed to land 14,§ had been brought by British lines.¶

With respect to the particulars of nativity given in the statistical tables last referred to it should be noted that of the 2,601 Russians 1,959 (say 75 per cent.), and of the 3,111 Poles 388 (about 12½ per cent.) are believed to have been Hebrews.

* The total number of arrivals at Philadelphia in 1892 was 32,025, of whom 2,284 were citizens of the United States and 429 were tourists and visitors (of the following nationalities:—Irish, 34; English, 107; Welsh, 9; Scotch, 10; German, 97; French, 9; Russian, 8; Polish, 19; Swiss, 1; Swedish, 34; Norwegian, 15; Belgian, 5; Italian, 3; Spanish, 7; Danish, 18; Hungarian, 7; Austrian, 12; Finnish, 2; Turkish, 5; of all other nationalities, 27).

† Of these 26 persons, 19 were returned because they were suffering from physical, and 3 because afflicted with mental disease, 3 because of pregnancy, and one on account of deformity.

‡ The nativity of these 4 persons is given as follows:—English, 2; German, 2.

§ The nativity of these 14 persons is given as follows:—Irish, 10; Russian, 4.

¶ By "British lines" is meant lines of vessels sailing from British ports; some of these vessels sailing to Philadelphia are American-owned. Out of the total arrivals at Philadelphia in 1892 (32,025), 111 saloon, and 19,781 second-cabin and steerage passengers are stated to have been brought by British lines, as against 294 saloon and 11,839 second-cabin and steerage passengers brought by all other lines. A certain number of British vessels (on some of which immigrants were carried) not belonging to regular lines are included in "other lines." The details as to these "tramp" vessels could not be obtained.

At Philadelphia it is reckoned that more than 50 per cent. of all immigrants come with their passage prepaid by relatives or friends in America.

There is no detention house at Philadelphia. Persons detained (*e.g.*, for inquiries to be made) are treated differently according as it appears probable or unlikely that they will eventually be allowed to land, those belonging to the latter class being kept on board ship in the custody of the steamship company, the others being sent either to an emigrant boarding-house or to the public "almshouse." Whether the man be ultimately landed or not, the cost of his maintenance during detention is at Philadelphia defrayed by the steamship company. If an emigrant, who landed at Philadelphia, becomes a public charge at some place distant from that city, and is sent back thither for return under the one-year clause, the cost of his journey to the port is defrayed out of the immigrant fund (the "head-tax" money).

It is worthy of remark that at Philadelphia it has been the practice since 1882 for the following queries to be filled in, signed by the ship's doctor and purser, and handed to the immigration authorities before any passengers are disembarked:—

"Office of U. S. Commissioner of Immigration,
1,224, Chestnut Street, Philadelphia, Pa.,

_____, 189 .

To Officers of Steamship_____.

You will please write answers to the following questions, and return the same to this office.

_____,
Commissioner.

1. How many passengers on board? Saloon, _____
Steerage, _____.
2. Is there any loathsome or dangerous contagious sickness on board? _____
Any other sickness? _____
3. How many lunatics? _____
4. How many idiotic or imbecile persons? _____
5. Any immigrants assisted or transported by any foreign Government? _____.
6. Have there been any deaths on board? _____
7. Have there been any births? _____
8. Are there any stowaways or workaways on board? _____
9. Are there any who have been convicted of a felony or other crime or misdemeanour involving moral turpitude that you know of? _____
10. Are there any polygamists? _____

11. How many very old or feeble persons unaccompanied by those able and willing to care for them? _____.
12. Do you know of any destitute persons? _____
Paupers? _____.
13. How many cripples, or blind, or deaf? _____
14. Are any of the females (married or unmarried) pregnant, destitute, or alone? _____.
15. Any immigrants coming to this country in violation of contract-labour law? _____.
16. Has the physician or purser of this steamship made due and careful personal examination of each of the passengers, in order that the foregoing questions may be correctly answered? _____

Physician.

Witness:

Purser."

At Philadelphia the address to which persons who give that city as their destination are going is in all cases taken by the immigration authorities. With respect to persons going to a distance from Philadelphia, if they have not money enough to pay for their food on their onward journey, then "lunches," each costing 25 cents (1s.), are given to them at the expense of the United States (the money coming out of the immigrant fund, the head-tax) so that they shall have rations sufficient to support them until they reach their destination. In some months the total cost of these free rations amounts to as much as \$100 (20*l.*) in the month.

TEMPORARY RESTRICTION OF IMMIGRATION THROUGH QUARANTINE, SEPT. 1892—FEB. 1893.

The enforcement of regulations intended to preserve the health of a country may, it is obvious, involve the restriction of immigration either generally or from certain particular points. In order to keep out disease, it may be deemed necessary to keep out persons who might conceivably bring disease with them. Such incidental restrictions it would be out of place to deal with here. But the circumstances under which immigration into the United States was recently during a period of six months limited by the application of rules made for quarantine purposes, but discriminating between different classes of immigrants appear to deserve a brief description. Cholera having in the summer of 1892 broken out with some virulence in various parts of Europe, the following circular was issued by the United States authorities, the approval of President Harrison being expressly denoted by his signature.

" CIRCULAR.

QUARANTINE RESTRICTIONS UPON IMMIGRATION TO
AID IN THE PREVENTION OF THE INTRODUCTION
OF CHOLERA INTO THE UNITED STATES.

1892.

Department No. 150.

Treasury Department,
Office of the Supervising Surgeon-General
U. S. Marine-Hospital Service,
Washington, D. C., September 1, 1892.

To Collectors of Customs, Medical Officers of the Marine-Hospital Service, Foreign Steamship Companies, State and Local Boards of Health :

It having been officially declared that cholera is prevailing in various portions of Russia, Germany, and France, and at certain ports in Great Britain, as well as in Asia, and it having been made to appear that immigrants in large numbers are coming into the United States from the infected districts aforesaid, and that they and their personal effects are liable to introduce cholera into the United States, and that vessels conveying them are thereby a direct menace to the public health, and it having been further shown that under the laws of the several States quarantine detentions may be imposed upon those vessels a sufficient length of time to ensure against the introduction of contagious diseases, it is hereby ordered that no vessel from any foreign port carrying immigrants shall be admitted to enter at any port of the United States until said vessel shall have undergone a quarantine detention of twenty days (unless such detention is forbidden by the laws of the State or the regulations made thereunder), and of such greater number of days as may be fixed in each special case by the State authorities.

This circular to take immediate effect except in cases of vessels afloat at this date, which will be made the subject of special consideration upon due application to the Department.

WALTER WYMAN,
Supervising Surgeon-General U. S.
Marine-Hospital Service.

CHARLES FOSTER,
Secretary of the Treasury.

Approved September 1, 1892.
BENJAMIN HARRISON."

To impose upon vessels bringing immigrants* a detention of twenty days was, of course, virtually to forbid the carriage of immigrants; and, although it is said that as a matter of fact, the period of detention actually enforced was in but few cases of anything like the length prescribed by this circular, yet in consequence of the measures adopted in pursuance of this circular the flow of immigration into the United States received a very serious check. It must be stated that the virtual exclusion of immigrants which the circular contemplated was gradually modified, exceptions being made in favour first of one class and then of another class of immigrants. By a circular of

* An immigrant within the meaning of these quarantine regulations is defined to be "any person who arrives from his home in a foreign country with the intention of making a permanent settlement" in the United States.

November 16, 1892, it was laid down that cabin passengers might be carried without involving the detention for twenty days of the vessel bringing them, and a like exception was made in favour of citizens and residents of the United States and their families returning to the United States in the steerage. A further exemption was made in respect to those steerage passengers who had actually made their arrangements for emigration to the United States before September 1, 1892. But the most important exemptions were those* made in favour of steerage passengers who, while not coming within the previous exemptions—not being citizens, residents, or members of the families of citizens or residents of the United States returning from abroad, but being new immigrants coming for the first time to the United States—came within certain specified categories, being the wives (travelling alone or with their children) of citizens or residents, or being nearly related (as fathers, mothers, sons, daughters, brothers, or sisters),† to persons who were citizens or residents of the United States, and going to America to live with those persons and form part of their households. As was inevitable, the steamship companies, who could not afford to have their ships detained on account of their bringing immigrants not within the exemptions successively made by the United States authorities, declined to carry any steerage passengers except such as stated that they came within one or other of the exempted categories; and in this manner the quarantine rules adopted in order to keep out cholera operated to greatly reduce the volume of immigration into the United States.‡ However, the whole subject of quarantine was considered by the Legislature; and on Feb. 15, 1893, an Act was passed “granting additional quarantine powers, and imposing additional duties upon the Marine-Hospital Service”; and on Feb. 24, 1893, a code of quarantine regulations was issued, neither the new Act nor the new regulations making any such discrimination in favour of particular classes of immigrants as had been made under the rules in force since September, 1893; and those rules became obsolete. It is now no longer necessary that a man desirous to emigrate to the

* These exemptions appear to have been created, not by the issue of any general regulations, but by special instructions given in regard to vessels which arrived to the officials at each of the different ports. It appears to have been considered that the danger of bringing in the cholera was smaller while the numbers of the immigrants was kept down by this discrimination in favour of certain classes of immigrants.

† The statement as to the exemptions made by the United States authorities is based upon the forms of declaration used at this period by the steamship companies who required each immigrant to show that he came within one or other of certain specified classes. But in a letter addressed by Mr. O. L. Spaulding, Assistant Secretary, Treasury Department, on Dec. 9, 1892, to the Allan Line of steamships it is stated that no exemption can be made in favour of the fathers, mothers, brothers, or sisters of residents and citizens (*Decisions under the Tariff and Navigation Laws, &c.*, December 1892, p. 1234).

‡ For figures as to volume of immigration at New York during the cholera period see Appendix B., Table VII., *post*, p. 116.

United States should be able to prove that he is, *e.g.*, a son or a brother of a citizen or resident. On the other hand, the provisions of the new quarantine law are stringent ; in particular it is enacted "that whenever it shall be shown to the satisfaction of the President that by reason of the existence of cholera or other infectious or contagious diseases in a foreign country there is serious danger of the introduction of the same into the United States, and that notwithstanding the quarantine defence this danger is so increased by the introduction of persons or property from such country that a suspension of the right to introduce the same is demanded in the interest of the public health, the President shall have power to prohibit, in whole or in part, the introduction of persons and property from such countries or places as he shall designate and for such period of time as he may deem necessary." As a fact, the steamship companies appear to prefer anticipating by their own action any such measures as might be adopted by the Government of the United States under the section just cited, and, in consequence, the principal English companies, at any rate, are at present in most cases very reluctant, if they do not absolutely decline, to book to the United States immigrants coming from countries infected with cholera.

METHODS PRESCRIBED BY THE ACT OF 1893.

For the reasons given above it has seemed best to defer the consideration of the New Immigration Law of 1893 ; but the provisions of this statute must now be shortly described. This law enacts, in the first place, "that, in addition to conforming to all present requirements of law, upon the arrival of any alien immigrants by water at any port within the United States, it shall be the duty of the master or commanding officer of the steamer or sailing vessel having said immigrants on board to deliver to the proper inspector of immigration at the port lists or manifests made at the time and place of embarkation of such alien immigrants on board such steamer or vessel, which shall, in answer to questions at top of said lists, state as to each immigrant the full name, age, and sex, whether married or single ; the calling or occupation ; whether able to read or write ; the nationality ; the last residence ; the seaport for landing in the United States ; the final destination, if any, beyond the seaport of landing ; whether having a ticket through to such final destination ; whether the immigrant has paid his own passage or whether it has been paid by other persons, or by any corporation, society, municipality, or government ; whether in possession of money, and if so, whether upwards of thirty dollars, and how much, if thirty dollars or less ; whether going to join a relative, and if so, what relative and his name and address ; whether ever before in the United States, and, if so, when

" and where; whether ever in prison or almshouse* or sup-
 " ported by charity†; whether a polygamist; whether under
 " contract, express or implied, to perform labour in the United
 " States; and what is the immigrant's condition of health
 " mentally and physically, and whether deformed or crippled,
 " and if so, from what cause." It is further provided " that
 " the immigrants shall be listed in convenient groups and no
 " one list or manifest shall contain more than thirty names.
 " To each immigrant or head of a family shall be given a ticket
 " on which shall be written his name, a number or letter
 " designating the list, and his number on the list, for con-
 " venience of identification on arrival. Each list or manifest
 " shall be verified by the signature and the oath or affirmation
 " of the master or commanding officer or of the officer first
 " or second below him in command, taken before the United
 " States consul or consular agent at the port of departure,
 " before the sailing of said vessel, to the effect that he has
 " made a personal examination of each and all of the passengers
 " named therein, and that he has caused the surgeon of said
 " vessel sailing therewith to make a physical examination of
 " each of said passengers, and that from his personal inspec-
 " tion and the report of said surgeon he believes that no one
 " of said passengers is an idiot or insane person, or a pauper or
 " likely to become a public charge, or suffering from a loath-
 " some or dangerous contagious disease, or a person who has
 " been convicted of a felony or other infamous crime or mis-
 " demeanour involving moral turpitude, or a polygamist, or
 " under a contract or agreement, express or implied, to perform
 " labour in the United States, and that also, according to the
 " best of his knowledge and belief, the information in said list
 " or manifest concerning each of said passengers named therein
 " is correct and true;" and "that the surgeon of said vessel
 " sailing therewith shall also sign each of said lists or manifests
 " before the departure of said vessel, and make oath or affir-
 " mation in like manner before said consul or consular agent,
 " stating his professional experience and qualifications as a
 " physician and surgeon, and that he has made a personal
 " examination of each of the passengers named therein and
 " that said list or manifest, according to the best of his know-
 " ledge and belief, is full, correct, and true in all particulars
 " relative to the mental and physical condition of said pas-
 " sengers. If no surgeon sails with any vessel bringing alien
 " immigrants, the mental and physical examinations and the
 " verifications of the lists or manifests may be made by some
 " competent surgeon employed by the owners of the vessel;"
 and further "that in the case of the failure of said master or

* As to the sense in which the term "almshouse" is applied in the United States, see *ante*, p. 16 n.

† The word "charity," as used in the United States, covers not alone money voluntarily contributed by benevolent persons, but also money raised by *taxation*, e.g., poor-rates.

“ commanding officer of said vessel to deliver to the said inspector of immigration lists or manifests, verified as aforesaid, containing the information above required as to all alien immigrants on board, there shall be paid to the collector of customs at the port of arrival the sum of ten dollars [$\pounds 2$] for each immigrant qualified to enter the United States concerning whom the above information is not contained in any list as aforesaid, or said immigrant shall not be permitted so to enter the United States, but shall be returned like other excluded persons.”

The necessity of furnishing the elaborate particulars required by this Act which is imposed upon the steamship companies has led them to direct their agents on booking an immigrant to put to him a series of questions corresponding with those mentioned in the Act. The immigrant is only given his ticket* after he has furnished the information required. At the time (May 5 and 6, 1892) when the writer was making investigations in Liverpool, on his return from the United States, the form of interrogatories adopted by the Liverpool companies was one with twenty-one questions corresponding with the questions which the new Act requires to be answered in the manifest of immigrants, and bearing at its head a conspicuous notice that “ if it is found upon the arrival of the immigrant in the United States that the following questions have not been correctly answered, the immigrant will be immediately returned. The immigrant will be required to swear to the truth of the following answers, if it be called for by the Commissioner of immigration at the port of arrival in the United States. (A false oath will subject the immigrant to fine or imprisonment.)” These interrogatories were signed by the immigrant, who certified that “ I have made true answers to the questions which were asked in language understood by me, and which answers have been recorded above.”†

The information obtained by the booking agents from the intending emigrants is sent to the office of the company, where it is embodied in the manifests required by the new law, each sheet being allowed to contain no more than thirty names (so that for a ship's complement of, say, 1,000 immigrants more than thirty separate lists would have to be made out).

Before the ship sails the manifests relating to all her immigrants are verified, as the new law directs, by the oaths of her captain and her doctor, taken before a consular agent of the

* This applies equally in the case of a man who has had his passage paid for him by a friend in America, and who asks to have the “ prepaid certificate ” exchanged for a passage-ticket.

† The form of interrogatories which I saw in use was one originally prescribed by the United States Treasury Department in a code of regulations dated March 11, 1893, which was withdrawn not long after its publication, and replaced by the regulations printed in Appendix D., *post*, pp. 144-147. As the matter now stands, the manner in which the steamship companies shall obtain the particulars which have to be inserted in the manifests is left optional; but it appears probable that the form described in the text will be used.

United States who comes on board for the purpose, each sheet being required to be sworn to separately.

The new immigration law also contains certain provisions, as to the operation of which (since this Act only came into force after the writer of this report had left the United States) it is not possible to give any information in this place. It is enacted "that it shall be the duty of every inspector of arriving alien immigrants to detain for a special inquiry, under section one of the Immigration Act of March third, eighteen hundred and ninety-one, every person who may not appear to him to be clearly and beyond doubt entitled to admission, and all special inquiries shall be conducted by not less than four officials acting as inspectors, to be designated in writing by the Secretary of the Treasury or the Superintendent of Immigration, for conducting special inquiries; and no immigrant shall be admitted upon special inquiry except after a favourable decision made by at least three of said inspectors; and any decision to admit shall be subject to appeal by any dissenting inspector to the Superintendent of Immigration, whose action shall be subject to review by the Secretary of the Treasury, as provided in section eight of said Immigration Act of March third, eighteen hundred and ninety-one."

With respect to the inquiry to be made under the new law, the regulations of the Treasury Department provide that "the Commissioner of Immigration shall enter of record the name of every immigrant found upon examination to be within either of the prohibited classes, with a statement of the decision in each case, and at the same time give notice in writing to the master, agent, consignee, or owner of the vessel upon which such immigrant arrived, together with the grounds of refusal to land such immigrant, that said vessel is required to return such immigrant to the port whence he came. The regular examination of immigrants under the special inquiry required by statute will be separate from the public, but any immigrant who is refused permission to land, or pending an appeal in his case, will be permitted to confer with friends or counsel in such manner as the commissioner may deem proper. Any immigrant claiming to be aggrieved by the decision of the inspection officers may appeal therefrom, and such appeal shall stay his deportation until decision shall be had thereon. Such appeal shall be in writing, and shall specify the grounds of appeal, and shall be presented to the commissioner, who shall at once forward such appeal to the Department with all the evidence in the case and his views thereon. Any examining inspector dissenting from a decision to admit an immigrant may appeal therefrom, which appeal shall be in writing and specify the grounds thereof, and shall be forwarded by the commissioner to the Department in like manner as in cases of an appeal by an immigrant. Upon a decision of the appeal the immigrant shall be

“ at once landed or deported in accordance with such decision,
 “ and, in case landing is refused, the master, agent, consignee,
 “ or owner of the vessel by which the immigrant arrived shall
 “ be notified of such decision by the commissioner, and that the
 “ immigrant will be placed on board said vessel to be returned
 “ as aforesaid. The expenses for the keeping and maintenance
 “ of such immigrants as are ordered to be returned pending the
 “ decision of their right to land and the subsequent expenses
 “ for the keeping and maintenance of those ordered to be re-
 “ turned, and the expense of their return shall be borne by the
 “ owner or owners of the vessel on which they came.”

The new immigration law also deals with the practice, which had at one time extensively prevailed, of admitting persons apparently unlikely to be self-supporting, on a guarantee given by some philanthropic institution or other surety that such persons should not become a public charge. In future “ no bond or guaranty, written or oral,” of this nature shall be received without the authority in each case of the Superintendent of Immigration given with the written approval of the Secretary of the Treasury.

It is further provided “ that all steamships or transportation companies, and other owners of vessels, regularly engaged in transporting alien immigrants to the United States, shall twice a year file a certificate with the Secretary of the Treasury that they have furnished to be kept conspicuously exposed to view in the office of each of their agents in foreign countries authorized to sell emigrant tickets, a copy of the law of March third, eighteen hundred and ninety-one, and of all subsequent laws of this country relative to immigration, printed in large letters, in the language of the country where the copy of the law is to be exposed to view, and that they have instructed their agents to call the attention thereto of persons contemplating emigration before selling tickets to them ; and in case of the failure for sixty days of any such company or any such owners to file such a certificate, or in case they file a false certificate, they shall pay a fine of not exceeding five hundred dollars [$\$100$], to be recovered in the proper United States court, and said fine shall also be a lien upon any vessel of said company or owners found within the United States.”*

* From *Steam and Sail* (a newspaper published in New York) of May 20, 1893, it appears that the Commissioner of Immigration at that port requires the immigrants to be landed at Ellis Island in batches of thirty, each batch being composed of the persons whose names appear on one of the lists required under the new law, and the batches being delivered at the depôt in order. What occurred in relation to the landing and inspection of the first shipload of immigrants which arrived after the new law came into operation is thus described : “ The work involved in dividing this surging crowd of human beings into the original groups in which they embarked can be readily seen. On the transfer steamers it was necessary to put ropes round each group, and a man who witnessed the operation remarked that they looked like big bunches of asparagus. All that actually remained to be done when the ‘ Majestic’s ’ passengers reached Ellis Island was to examine each group

RESTRICTION OF IMMIGRATION ON THE LAND FRONTIERS.

With reference to the restriction of immigration on the land frontiers of the United States, the Act of 1891 (*ante*, p. 8) gave express power to the Secretary of the Treasury "to prescribe rules for inspection along the borders of Canada, British Columbia, and Mexico so as not to obstruct or unnecessarily delay, impede, or annoy passengers in ordinary travel between said countries: provided, that not exceeding one inspector shall be appointed for each customs district, and whose salary shall not exceed twelve hundred dollars [\pounds 240] per year"; and by the recent code of regulations issued by the Treasury Department it is provided that "collectors of customs on the Canadian frontier, and at all points where commissioners of immigration are not employed, are charged within their respective districts with the execution of the laws pertaining to immigration, and all importation of labourers under contract or agreement to perform labour in the United States. They will employ all customs, immigration, and other officers assigned to them for duty in the enforcement of the Immigration Acts; and all such officers are hereby designated and authorized to act as immigration officers."

The principal immigration into the United States which takes place across the land frontiers is that from the Dominion of Canada. What the precise volume of this immigration may be it is not possible to say. For, since 1885, the United States authorities have ceased to collect or publish any statistics relating to the number of immigrants entering the Republic by land. The immigration into the States from Canada is of two kinds. First, there are the natives of the Dominion, who emigrate into the United States in considerable numbers. Some of these people come with the intention of settling permanently in the States, others are "birds of passage," who come for a season only. From inquiries made in Boston, it would appear that the proportion of the Canadian immigrants who come to stay is steadily increasing. The estimate given in the last annual report of the United States immigration authorities of the number of the "birds of passage" who "cross the border" every spring to return every autumn is 60,000*; but it seems possible that this estimate includes those persons (say 25,000–30,000 annually) who enter the United States from the Dominion not by the land frontier but by sea. In addition to the emigration of natives of Canada (whether permanent or temporary) there is a somewhat extensive movement of immigrants coming across the Atlantic to Canadian ports and making their way thence to

"in order and compare the answers of each immigrant with his record as found in the list of his group. Letters of the alphabet described each group, and registry clerks simply began at group A., examined the thirty immigrants it comprised, and then went on down the alphabet in regular order." (*Steam and Sail*, May 19, 1893, p. 5.)

* *Annual Report of Superintendent of Immigration for 1892*, p. 11.

different parts of the United States. Here, again, anything like an exact estimate is impracticable.* The report of the Canadian Department of the Interior for 1892 gives the number of the arrivals at Halifax, Quebec, and Montreal, the three principal ports for immigration into the Dominion, as "in round numbers 52,000. These people comprised 28,000, who declared their intention of settling in Canada, while the majority of the remainder were avowedly *en route* to the United States."†

The character of the measures adopted for the restriction of immigration upon the northern frontier of the United States it was not possible for me within the time at my disposal to investigate personally, my attention being taken up with the sea-ports. But Mr. Burnett visited some places of importance on the Canadian frontier, and his observations in respect to the restriction of immigration at these places are subjoined.

* It is sometimes attempted to found an estimate of the number of persons coming to Canada *en route* for the United States upon the figures given in the *Reports* of the Minister of Agriculture for the Dominion of Canada. Thus the *Annual Report* of the Superintendent of Immigration (of the United States) for 1892, represents that "the Minister of Agriculture of the Dominion of Canada, in his official report for the calendar year 1891, reports the following immigrant passengers as arrived at Canadian ports from European countries *en route* for the United States during the following calendar years:—1885, 25,927; 1886, 53,429; 1887, 91,053; 1888, 85,708; 1889, 84,862; 1890, 103,854; 1891, 105,213" (p. 30, note *b.*). But this is a mistake. The figures quoted by the Superintendent of Immigration are not given in the Canadian *Report* as those of arrivals at Canadian ports *en route* for the United States, but as "immigrant passengers for the United States" (*Report of the Minister of Agriculture for the Dominion of Canada for the calendar year 1891*, p. xxiv). That as many as 105,213 persons arrived in 1891 at Canadian ports *en route* for the States seems to be impossible. The great bulk of the persons arriving at Canadian sea-ports are brought by vessels sailing from the United Kingdom. Now, the total number of the emigrants carried from the United Kingdom to British North America in 1891 was only 33,752 (*Statistical Tables relating to Emigration and Immigration from and into the United Kingdom in the year 1892*, p. 27). It seems probable that the 105,213 persons mentioned in the Canadian Report include a large number of passengers who passed from one point in United States territory to another through the Dominion. Certainly these 105,213 were not all immigrants going to the States *via* Canadian sea-ports.

† *Report of the Department of the Interior* [of the Dominion of Canada] for the Year 1892, p. xv. The Allan and the Beaver Lines, two of the three great English steamship companies taking passengers to Canada, have furnished the number of the persons carried in 1892 to Canadian ports with through tickets for places within the United States, which was 11,658, while the Hansa line sailing from Hamburg carried to Canada 2,019 persons, of whom it is stated by the owners of these steamships that "about two-thirds went to places in the United States." The Dominion Line was asked to supply the figures, but has not done so.

BRIEF ACCOUNT OF THE RESTRICTION OF IMMIGRATION ON
THE CANADIAN FRONTIER (furnished by Mr. BURNETT).

BUFFALO.

At Buffalo the Collector of Customs has under him one inspector of immigration. There is also a medical examination of immigrants by a medical man appointed by the local authorities, mainly for purposes of quarantine. The inspector looks out for persons coming within the classes prohibited by the Immigration Acts. More immigrants are sent back under the Contract Labour Law from Buffalo than from any other town on the frontier. Seven Germans had recently been stopped in Buffalo because they came from Hamburg, which was a district affected by cholera. They were bound for Winnipeg, but came down to Buffalo in the first place. Only one of them came across to see if he would be allowed to land, and the others waited at the other side; he was sent back. The inspector had no exact figures, but estimated that from 400 to 500 immigrants from Canada were sent back last year under the Alien Contract Law. There was supervision maintained by Customs officials at the ferries, and at the bridges, and there was a large immigration from Canada, the greater proportion being young men. Thirteen Russian Jews who came last year by Halifax were stopped as being paupers. The Jewish Association of the city took the matter up, gave security, and they were allowed to pass.

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The immigration inspector himself states that he thinks it undesirable to have prosecutions under the Alien Contract Labour Law, which he thinks tends to bear rather hardly upon employers. Since July, 1891, he has deported 40 or 50 only, but altogether he has dealt with upwards of 500 under the Contract Labour Law. Where possible, he did not deport aliens coming under contract if he could avoid it. The way in which he disposes of most cases in which he finds that men have come under contract, is to have them discharged from the employment of those to whom they are under contract. That enables them to take other employment in the city, whereas if he deports them, they will not be allowed to return for five years. He has to deal with cases in which the contracts are both actual and implied. Sometimes they are actual written contracts about which there can be no mistake. For instance, the Grand Trunk Railway had brought over a passenger agent from England at a salary of \$125 a month. This man was deported

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The case was taken into court, but the inspector's decision was confirmed. So far as implied contracts are concerned, he considers that if any immigrant comes under a general assurance of work from anyone connected with, or employed in any firm, that would be an implied contract. As a rule, labour organizations report to him cases of suspected or probable labour contract. He is not himself a trade unionist, nor does he sympathize with them, but if they report cases of infringement of the Act, he is obliged to do his duty. Many immigrants who come over under contract are badly treated by the employers, who know that the contracts cannot be enforced. In drawing a distinction between men who should be merely discharged, or who should be deported, he applies the discharge system to those who express a desire to settle in the country and become naturalized citizens. He has to enforce the Immigration Acts generally, and in one case prosecuted a man for introducing girls as prostitutes, and had him sentenced to 12 months imprisonment.

CHICAGO.

At Chicago little seems to be done in respect to supervision of immigrants. It is only a port of arrival for immigrants from Canada to a limited extent. There are two inspectors of immigrants nominally under the direction of the Collector of Customs, but these inspectors do not seem to have much to do, and are seldom to be found at the office. Their chief duty is to look after cases of infraction of the Alien Labour Contract Law. They may receive information as to suspicious cases from Washington, or direct from trade unions who think the law has been violated. There are not many cases arising in Chicago in which persons are sent back. Last year, during a strike in Chicago, the trade unions concerned made many complaints of violation of the law, but they do not seem to have been well founded. The Collector of Customs states that the principal work is, of course, to attend to the collection of custom dues. Immigrants coming from Canada, he says, come chiefly by Port Huron, Duluth, Detroit, or other points on the frontier, so that practically there is little immigration work done at Chicago. The two immigration inspectors are special agents of the Treasury, and though nominally under his orders, they receive their instructions from Washington. He can, of course, give them orders if he thinks necessary, and they must obey him, but he knows nothing of the orders they may receive from the Treasury; he does not know how they may be employed, and they do not report to him what they are thus instructed to do. He quotes only one case in which he had employed them to attend to the removal of a German woman who became insane

before she had been a year in the country, and they put her on board a Pullman car where she could be looked after, and sent her back to her port of arrival. If he knows of any cause of suspicion, or thinks action would be necessary, he should not hesitate to give such orders as he thinks desirable to the inspectors.

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DETROIT.

Detroit being a port of arrival for immigrants to a considerable extent, the arrangements for inspection are much more complete than at Chicago. As stated by the Deputy Collector of Customs, there is one officer entirely set apart for the work of immigrant inspection, to which he devotes his whole time. It is also part of the duty of Custom House officers generally, to scrutinize persons arriving by any of the boats. At Detroit there are also two medical officers who attend to the work of inspection of immigrants from the sanitary point of view. The bulk of the immigrants coming to, or passing through, Detroit into the United States come by way of Windsor by the Canadian and Pacific Railway. By the courtesy of the Canadian authorities the United States officials are allowed to make their examination at the Windsor railway station of the company. They are all closely examined to see that they do not come within any of the prohibited categories of the Immigration Acts. They do not send many back; last year not more than about half-a-dozen out of a total of 3,405 arrivals. The facilities for inspection were not, however, very great. The railway company generally brought their immigrant trains in during the night,* and they cannot inspect them without detaining them until the next morning. As many as 300 had been brought at one time in three cars; so many people crowded together was not good for their health, and inspection under such conditions was not easy. A large number of people cross from Windsor to work in Detroit every day, and some American workers objected to this system. It had been legally held, however, that so long as a man does not come into Detroit under contract, but comes in search of, and obtains work in the ordinary way, he is at liberty to live where he likes afterwards, and can go and come at his pleasure. There had been questions raised by trade unions as to alleged contract labour being sent to supply the place of men on strike at Battle Creek, because the men had gone there in answer to an advertisement. It is invariably difficult to

* By a circular of the Treasury Department dated June 1st, 1893, it is ordered that "hereafter alien immigrants shall not be permitted to enter the United States "at places on the Canadian and Mexican frontiers between the hours of 6 o'clock p.m. and 7 o'clock a.m."—D. F. S.

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obtain a conviction if the case is fought out. The collector is not aware what the result was in this case. The Customs officials, who have no connexion with immigration, have three sets of regulations to observe—the Federal, the State, and the Local—in respect of quarantine, and their duty is to enforce those which are the most rigorous. During last summer there was a 10 days' quarantine; last winter, however, they admitted passengers who had come from Europe into Detroit on the certificate of the authorities at the Canadian point of landing as to the health of the vessel by which these people had been brought to the Dominion.

PITTSBURGH.

There is also an inspector of immigration stationed at Pittsburgh to observe whether immigrants come there who fall within the scope of the prohibited classes. It is true there is little in Pittsburgh for such an inspector to do, Pittsburgh not being a first place of arrival from anywhere. Practically, therefore, the only duties of the inspector there are to look after cases which may be referred to him from head-quarters at Washington, or which he has heard of through communications received from the trade unions, or from the authorities connected with the administration of the criminal laws, or from charitable institutions. Employers in the district consider his position a mere sinecure. The inspector himself, however, says that many cases arise in which he has to make inquiries to see whether the Labour Contract Law has been violated or not. It is, he considers, very difficult to obtain a conviction under the Labour Contract Law. There has been one case decided in court against an inspector, the point on which the decision was given being, that the employer said to the man who came, "I *can* find you work at four dollars a day," instead of "I *will* find you work at four dollars a day." Pittsburgh, though not a point of first arrival, he considers a great centre of distribution, and a fair number of people of all nationalities come there. Cases of infraction of the Labour Contract Law are often not discovered till some time after the man has come, and he receives information by means of letters. Much work also came to him through the authorities, who generally instructed him when people who had not been a year in the country, and who were found to be unsatisfactory, were sent back.

III.—LAWS FOR EXCLUSION OF CHINESE.*

The first step taken by the Government of the United States with a view to the enactment of legislation excluding Chinese labourers† from the United States was the insertion in the treaty with China concluded in 1880 of a provision declaring that the United States should have the right to regulate, limit, or suspend the coming of Chinese labourers to the States or their residence therein; such right was to be exercised reasonably, and the immigration of Chinese labourers and their residence in the United States was not to be absolutely prohibited.

By virtue of this treaty, Congress in 1882 passed the first Chinese Exclusion Act, which prohibited the entry of Chinese labourers into the United States during a period of ten years. The Act was not to apply "to Chinese labourers who were in " the United States on the 17th day of November, 1880 [the " day on which the treaty above mentioned was concluded], or " who shall have come into the same before the expiration of " 90 days next of the passage of this Act," provision being made for the identification of the persons thus excepted, who, if they should at any time desire to leave the United States on a visit to their homes in China or for any other purpose, were to receive a certificate enabling them to re-enter the States without objection.

The term, "labourers," is defined to mean both skilled and unskilled labourers and to include persons employed in mining. Chinamen, other than labourers, desiring to enter the United States are to produce a certificate from the Chinese Government identifying them as entitled to the privilege of entry. The naturalization of Chinese of any class by any Federal or State court was forbidden. The Chinese immigration law of 1882 was amended in 1884 by a statute which contained more stringent provisions with respect to the identification of Chinese labourers coming within the excepted category above-mentioned and also with respect to the identification and classification of Chinese persons other than labourers desiring to enter the United States, and which declared that the provisions of the former Act should "apply to all subjects of China and Chinese " whether subjects of China or of any other foreign Power."‡

* The laws referred to in the text are Federal laws; various State laws on the subject of Chinese labour will be found in Appendix D., *post*, pp. 162-164.

† Certain classes of Chinese were already excluded by legislation forbidding the immigration of coolies, prostitutes and convicts.

‡ It is contended by some that the Act of 1884 prolonged the suspension of the immigration of Chinese labourers until July 5, 1894; see *Report of the Select Committee of the House of Representatives on Immigration and Naturalization, 1891* (on Chinese immigration)—the "Lehlbach Report"—p. IV. An Act "to prohibit the coming of Chinese labourers to the United States" passed in September, 1888,

In October, 1888, an Act was passed, as a supplement to the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882, by which it was provided that thenceforth Chinese labourers who might have resided in the States, but had left, or should leave the States, should not be allowed to re-enter the country.

The period, during which the immigration into the United States of Chinese labourers was suspended by the Act of 1882, expired in May, 1892; but by an Act passed May 5, 1892, it was provided that "all laws now in force prohibiting and regulating the coming into this country of Chinese persons and persons of Chinese descent are hereby continued in force for a period of 10 years from the passage of this Act." By the law of 1892 any Chinese person or person of Chinese descent, when adjudged to be not lawfully entitled to be or remain in the United States, is to be removed thence to China, unless he proves that he is a subject or a citizen of some other country, in which event he is to be removed to such country, but if such country "shall demand any tax as a condition of the removal of such person to that country," he is to be removed to China. In the case of any Chinese person or person of Chinese descent arrested under this legislation, such person is to be adjudged to be unlawfully within the United States unless he shall establish by affirmative proof his lawful right to remain in the United States. The penalty for unlawfully being or remaining in the United States is imprisonment with hard labour for any period not exceeding one year, followed by removal from the country. If a Chinese person who has been denied admission into the States applies for a writ of *habeas corpus*, no bail is to be allowed, "and such application shall be heard and determined promptly without unnecessary delay." With respect to Chinese labourers entitled to remain in the United States, it was enacted that these persons should apply to the collector of internal revenue of their respective districts within one year after the passage of this Act for a certificate of residence, and that any Chinese labourer who should omit to take out his certificate in due time (before May 6, 1893) or who on or after that date should be found within the United States unprovided with a certificate should be deemed to be unlawfully within the United States, and might be arrested and taken before a United States judge, whose duty it should be to order his deportation, unless he should prove that he had been unable, through accident, sickness, or other unavoidable cause, to procure his certificate, and should also prove "by at least one credible white witness, that he was a resident of the United States at the time of the passage of this Act; and if upon the hearing, it shall appear that he is so entitled to a certificate, it shall be granted upon his paying the cost." Provision is also made for granting a

is generally treated as not having come into operation by reason of its being so framed as not to come into effect until the ratification of a treaty with China, which never was ratified; see *post*, Appendix D., p. 156 n.

certificate to any Chinese person not a labourer who may have a right to be and remain in the United States, and who may desire such certificate as evidence of such right.

A code of regulations for the issue of certificates drawn up by the Secretary of the Treasury by virtue of this Act will be found in Appendix D, *post*, pp. 158-162. Attention is there drawn to the fact that "no class of Chinese are prohibited from coming into the United States or remaining here except such as may properly and within the meaning of said statutes be known as 'labourers.' But persons other than labourers must present as a condition precedent to landing the certificate required by section 6 of the Act approved July 5, 1884," *i.e.*, a certificate issued by the Chinese Government or any other Government of which the man may be a subject showing him to have the permission of the Government concerned, fully describing him, and showing him to be entitled to enter the United States.

These regulations declare that under the term labourers are to be classed "all classes of skilled and unskilled labourers, and persons employed in mining, as well as hucksters, peddlers, and persons engaged in taking and drying or otherwise preserving shells or fish for home consumption or exportation and laundrymen." "Persons who are employed in stores but who are not owners or part owners in the business shall be classed as labourers. A person to be exempted from the operations of this law as a merchant must be an owner or part owner of a *bonâ fide* mercantile establishment."*

IV.—GENERAL CONCLUSIONS AS TO THE EFFICIENCY ATTAINED IN THE APPLICATION OF RESTRICTIVE MEASURES IN THE UNITED STATES.

From the preceding pages it will have been seen that the measures adopted in the United States for the restriction of immigration are of two kinds, those which are applied in the case of general immigration being based mainly upon discrimination between different classes of persons without regard to the nation or race to which such persons belong; while, on the other hand, those which are employed in the case of the Chinese are based mainly upon the exclusion of members of a specific race as such.

A. GENERAL IMMIGRATION

With respect to the nature of the measures taken to restrict by discrimination the general (non-Chinese) immigration into the United States, the leading features of the sifting process applied

* For the special provision made to enable Chinese exhibitors and their employees to attend the World's Columbian Exposition at Chicago see Appendix D, *post*, p. 142.

for this purpose have already been shown by a description, based upon personal investigation, of the methods adopted at the principal sea-ports. In a memorandum placed at the disposal of the writer by the Treasury Department of the United States the number and position of the special force engaged in carrying out the regulation of immigration under the (general) immigration laws is given as follows:—

At Ellis Island, New York, 1 Commissioner, 1 Assistant Commissioner, 100 employees; Baltimore, 1 Commissioner, 4 employees; Boston, 1 Commissioner, 4 employees; Philadelphia, 1 Commissioner, 6 employees; Gloucester, Mass., 1 Inspector; Provincetown, Mass., 1 Inspector; New Bedford, Mass., 1 Inspector; in the office of the Superintendent of Immigration, 1 Chief Clerk, 3 employees; San Francisco, 1 Commissioner; in addition an immigrant Inspector is stationed at each of the following places:—Tacoma, Wash.; St. Paul, Minn.; Detroit, Mich.; Portland, Maine; Concord, N. H.; Pembina, N. D.; and Boston.

We have to add the contract labour inspectors stationed as follows:—

At New York, 15; at Chicago, 2; and one at each of the following places:—Baltimore; Philadelphia; Buffalo; Portland; Oregon; Pt. Townsend, Wash.; Burlington, Vermont; Key West, Florida; Pittsburgh; Springfield, Illinois; El Paso, Texas; Sault Ste. Marie, Mich.; Milwaukee, Wisconsin; Suspension Bridge, N. Y.

The list just given shows the total number of persons employed in regulating immigration and in enforcing the contract labour laws (including the Superintendent of Immigration) to be 165. It will be observed that the list does not take into account the medical staff; and it is proper to bear in mind that the officials of the United States customs are required, wherever practicable, to co-operate with the officers attached to the immigration service.

The amount received in respect of the head-tax on passengers, which constitutes the income of the "Immigrant Fund," varies with the volume of immigration; this amount was nearly 70,000*l.* in the fiscal year, ending June 30, 1892. The total sum expended annually out of this fund for the purpose of regulating immigration appears to be about 60,000*l.*

CLASSES OF IMMIGRANTS EXCLUDED.

Such being the character of the apparatus employed in the work of separating from the mass of immigration the particular persons whom the United States desires to prevent from settling within its territory, it remains to consider what degree of success attends the attempt to discriminate against the different prohibited classes of immigrants. The persons against whom this

discrimination is levelled may, for practical purposes, be classified as being ineligible—

- (a) on moral grounds;
- (b) on grounds of public health and comfort;
- (c) on economic grounds.

The persons excluded on moral grounds are (i.) convicts (*i.e.*, “persons who have been convicted of a felony or other infamous crime, or misdemeanour involving moral turpitude”), and (ii.) polygamists.* Persons suffering from loathsome or dangerous contagious diseases, and violent lunatics, may be treated as excluded in the interest of public health and comfort. Diseases of another type may in many cases bring about the exclusion of an immigrant—diseases, that is, whether of mind or body, which disable the sufferer from pursuing his trade or occupation. Persons rejected as being afflicted with a complaint of this latter type (that is to say, idiots, harmless lunatics, and persons suffering from diseases other than loathsome or dangerous contagious diseases), and also all immigrants rejected on account of physical defects, such as an arm amputated or broken, may properly be included in class (c) as being rejected on economic grounds. When we come to examine this class (c), we observe that the persons excluded on economic grounds are either (i.) persons unlikely to be self-supporting, or (ii.) persons under contract to labour.†

PAUPERS OR PERSONS LIKELY TO BECOME A PUBLIC CHARGE.

Concerning the two classes of persons to whom admission into the United States is denied upon economic grounds a few words of explanation appear necessary. First, as to persons unlikely to be self-supporting, it is to be noted that the aim of the United States in forbidding the admission of immigrants unlikely to be able to provide for their own support has consistently been the pro-

* To these must be added prostitutes, whose importation is forbidden by an Act of 1875, see *ante*, p. 4 n.

† It will be noted that, although the United States law refers to “any person” whose ticket or passage is paid for with the money of another or who is assisted by “others to come” as a distinct type of ineligible immigrant, such persons are not treated in the text as a distinct class. The reason is, that such persons are only ineligible if they fail to prove affirmatively that they do not belong to one or other of the classes specifically excluded. It appears probable that more than half of all the immigrants who come to the States come with passages prepaid by relatives or friends in America; and the fact that a man’s ticket has been bought for him by a kinsman or a friend in the States, in practice, decidedly increases his chance of admission. Indeed, immigrants whose passages are prepaid by relatives are exempted from the special inquiry made in respect of an ordinary “assisted emigrant” (see *Report of Select Committee of the House of Representatives on Immigration and Naturalization*, 1892, the “Stamp Report,” p. 344). For it is felt that, as a rule, a man would not send for, *e.g.*, his brother, unless he felt fairly certain that his brother would be able to make a living in the new country and he were willing to help his brother to find work, and, if need be, to support him until he gets work. The case is different if the passage of an immigrant has been paid by a benevolent society; an “assisted immigrant” of this type being looked upon with suspicion; see *ante*, p 23 n.

tection of the public from the pecuniary burden which would inevitably fall upon the citizens if these incapable aliens were to be allowed to settle in the States. The mere fact that an immigrant is unable to provide for himself has never been considered to be of itself a sufficient reason for his exclusion under the immigration laws; an immigrant of this type is regarded as inadmissible, only if his incapacity to provide for himself will necessarily involve his being provided for by the public. This is clearly shown by the judgment of Mr. Justice Brown in the case of *In re Day*, 27 Fed. Rep. 678-682, set forth in Appendix E., *post*, pp. 165-167, a case decided under the original statute of 1882, which forbids the admission into the United States of "any person unable to take care of himself or herself without becoming a public charge." Here the immigrants in question were eight children from 12 to 15 years of age, who had been sent from England, arrangements having been made "looking to the placing of two of the children with a Mr. Hopkins, a farmer, in Manitoba, and of the rest with persons in Kansas," and their tickets to Manitoba and Kansas having been provided and paid for. These children were forbidden to land by the Commissioners of Immigration on the ground of "their being unable to take care of themselves without becoming a public charge." But Mr. Justice Brown was of opinion that, since arrangements had been made for these children to be sent to persons who had agreed to take charge of them, the mere fact that they were obviously unable to take care of themselves did not of itself constitute a reason for their exclusion. In the words of the judgment:—"By the expression 'unable to take care of themselves without becoming a public charge,' the law does not intend an inability having reference to the passenger's personal efforts alone. Such a construction would exclude every child from our shores, since no child, by his personal efforts alone, can take care of himself. All the means of care or support that are provided for the passenger, and are available for his benefit, must be taken into account. The law intends those only that are likely to 'become a public charge,' because they can neither take care of themselves, or are under the charge or protection of any other person, who by natural relation or assumed responsibility furnishes reasonable assurance that they will not become a charge on the public."

To be eligible an immigrant must either be able to support himself, or must be able to show that his not being able to support himself will not cause expense to the public; but there is no necessity for him to be possessed of means. The very generally diffused impression that the United States laws are intended to exclude a poor man merely as such, and that the possession of a certain sum of money is a condition which must be fulfilled, if a man is to secure admission as an immigrant, is incorrect. It is true that the immigration law of 1891 expressly excludes "paupers or persons likely to become a

public charge." But it would be a mistake to assume that in the eye of the United States law all poor men are indiscriminately regarded as "paupers"; nor is the fact that a man possesses little or no money looked upon as proving that he is, of necessity, "likely to become a public charge."

The definition of the word "pauper" given by Bouvier, the recognised law lexicographer in the United States, is "One so poor that he must be supported at the public expense;" and there can be no doubt that this definition accurately represents the sense in which the term "pauper" is used in the immigration laws of the States. Poverty, however extreme, is not considered to be identical with pauperism. According to the American law, a poor man is a pauper, only if he is unable to support himself.

That the fact of a man's poverty is not regarded as proof that he is "likely to become a public charge" is demonstrated by the judgment of Mr. Justice Benedict in the case of *In re Feinknopf*, 47 Fed. Rep. 447-452, an extract from which is printed in Appendix E., *post*, pp. 174, 175. In that case an Austrian cabinet-maker, the value of whose baggage was estimated at £4, but who possessed in cash no more than 2s., had been ordered to be returned to the place whence he came as "a person likely to become a public charge." The man was unquestionably what is often called in this country a "destitute" alien. But the fact of his "destitution" (*i.e.*, his lack of pecuniary means) was the only evidence obtained by the immigrant inspector and produced before the court in support of the contention that this cabinet-maker was "likely to become a public charge;" and, under these circumstances, it was held that "the case is devoid of any evidence whatever of any fact upon which to base a determination that the petitioner is "likely to become a public charge;" and the order for the man's return to Europe was accordingly declared by the court to be invalid.

It is clear that the restrictions upon immigration imposed by the laws of the United States are framed with the object of excluding the "destitute" alien, only if and so far as his "destitution" is likely to impose a burden upon the pockets of the public.

The view of the true construction of the United States immigration laws here taken is in accordance with that expressed in the Report of Colonel Weber, the late Commissioner of Immigration at New York, and Dr. Kempster, who with other gentlemen were sent to Europe in 1891 to investigate the subject of emigration to the United States. In that report we read:

"In investigating your proposition with reference to pauperism, the question was raised as to the definition of the word 'pauper' within the meaning of existing law. We did not regard a person as a pauper who presented every appearance of industry, willingness, and physical capability to labour, even if

his means on landing were limited, nor yet if he was assisted by friends, relatives, or philanthropic persons, unless such assistance implied a leaning upon others for support. The greatest number of those arriving within the last year, who because of special conditions surrounding their cases received assistance *en route*, were Jews; yet they very rarely become a charge upon the public. Indeed, no race or nationality present so clean a record in such respect as they.

"A person who by reason of unexpected misfortunes or persecutions is deprived of his accumulations, who has been subjected to pillage and plunder while fleeing from the burdens which have become unbearable, if capable of supporting himself and family, if he has one, with a reasonable certainty after obtaining a foothold, and that foothold is guaranteed by friends or relatives upon landing, or strong probable surrounding circumstances, is not, according to our definition, a pauper. The history of this country is full of instances of men from all countries who have reached great prominence in our commercial, financial, professional, and legislative bodies, both in State and nation, who would have been returned as paupers if the standard of pauperism was based upon money possessions when landing.

"Again, a large class of persons who land here with little or no means are girls and young women who only partially fill the increasing demand for domestic work, and who would be considered as paupers if the lack of means upon arrival was established as the rule to determine pauperism. The decision of the eligibility for landing of such persons must, to some extent, be left discretionary with the immigrant officials at our seaports, who it would be unreasonable to expect could in every instance detect the weakness of the subject or predict his future status."*

So much as to the proper construction of the immigration laws. What the practice in respect to the admission of persons possessed of small or of no means has been, is beyond question. With regard to the practice which prevailed under the law of 1882, forbidding the entry of "any person unable to take care of himself or herself without becoming a public charge," we have the evidence of Mr. Edgar L. Ridgway, President of the New York Board of Emigration (by which the immigration law was administered at New York up to April, 1890) who was asked before the Select Committee on immigration and naturalization which sat in 1890: "But you do not permit them to land if they are not suitable people?" Having answered "No, sir," Mr. Ridgway was then asked: "Those whom you do not permit to land are persons who do not have any money?" He replies: "Not in all cases. For instance, there might be a rugged, hardy young man come here, with nobody dependent upon him, and he not have any money, but he would be

* *Report of the Commissioners of Immigration upon the causes which incite Immigration to the United States* (the "Weber Report"), pp. 126, 127.

“allowed to land.”* The practice under the Act of 1891, in which “paupers or persons likely to become a public charge” are expressly mentioned as ineligible, is shown by the evidence given before the Select Committee on immigration and naturalization which sat in 1892, by Colonel Weber.

“Q. To what extent are you or your inspectors influenced by the possession or non-possession of money by immigrants? How far do you make that an earmark of poverty or wealth?—A. That depends somewhat upon the circumstances. The man, of course, who comes here with \$10 [2*l.*] is certainly very little better off than the man who has \$1 [4*s.*] or \$2 [8*s.*]. It is only a question of a few days for his money to give out, you understand. The appearance of the man, his vocation, his willingness to work, his apparent industry, and the demand for the kind of work that he is ready to give, is what governs in such cases. I have sent men back who had \$100 [20*l.*] in their pockets.

“Q. As likely to become a public charge?—A. Yes, sir.

“Q. And not criminals?—A. And not criminals.

“Q. And had not been in any poorhouse?—A. According to their statements they had not been in any poorhouse.

“Q. On what theory of reasoning did you do that? Was it on account of physical defects?—A. His appearance indicated that he was a roysterer and a bum who would probably land in the police station before a great while.

“Q. Notwithstanding his \$100?—A. Notwithstanding his \$100.

“Q. You might think that he was not sick or diseased in any way, and had never been in any prison or poorhouse, and had \$100 when he came along, and yet you would turn him back?—A. He would give his vocation, perhaps, as clerk, and they are a drug in the market in this country.”†

Thus a man is liable to be sent back as “likely to become a public charge,” even though he be possessed of means. On the other hand, a man may not have one farthing in the world, and yet may be deemed eligible and allowed to land. That persons possessed of little, if any, means have habitually been allowed to enter the United States no one will deny. The last Report of the Superintendent of Immigration (for 1892), in giving an account of the money brought by the immigrants over the age of 20 years who arrived and were admitted at the port of New York during the six months ending June 30, 1892, states explicitly that “the 9,306 Russians who brought less than \$100 [20*l.*] “were nearly all destitute. Very few of them had sufficient “money to pay their passage to their destination in the interior “of the country. The vast majority of them came on tickets

* *Report of the Select Committee of the House of Representatives on Immigration and Naturalization, 1891* (the “Owen Report”), p. 561.

† *Report of the Select Committee of the House of Representatives on Immigration and Naturalization, 1892* (the “Stump Report”), p. 359.

“furnished by the ‘Baron Hirsch Fund.’” * The reason why these destitute people (who appear to have been Hebrew refugees) were not debarred from landing was, that they were willing and able to work, that their co-religionists were willing and able to look after them until they obtained employment, and that it was, as a matter of fact, not likely that they would “become a public charge.”

Although it has been the practice to permit the landing of persons who were obviously likely to be unable immediately to support themselves (having no means, and not being certain to obtain employment at once), provided always that either their relatives or some charitable individuals or institutions were ready to support them for *an interval* (until they could get work), † yet it should be clearly understood that a different rule obtains in the case of persons who, being unprovided with money, and being unfit to obtain employment, will be *permanently* unable to provide for their own support. A man too old or too ill to earn his living by his labour would, even though he had no money, be allowed to land, if a son of his resident in the United States were shown to be willing and able to look after him. But such a man as this would not be allowed to land, if it was clear that he would have to depend for his support (permanently, and not for an interval only) upon relief given by a benevolent individual or institution.

But, although a man in need of temporary assistance is not considered to be necessarily ineligible on this ground, provided that some relative or some benevolent individual or institution is willing and able to support him, yet if this be not the case, and if, therefore, he would, if admitted, become a charge upon the public funds even for a brief period, he will be denied admission. To permit the landing of a man who, although it is fairly certain that he will in, say, a month’s time be able to provide for himself, will have to be kept by the public purse during that month, is against the law. ‡

* *Annual Report of Superintendent of Immigration* for 1892, p. 26. With this statement should be compared the case of certain passengers who were brought, most of them as “assisted immigrants,” to New York by the steamship “Massilia,” in January 1892. The majority of these people were refugees from Russia; many of them had suffered exceptional hardships, their journey being prolonged until all their means were exhausted. There were 277 persons in all; of whom, according to the statements made to the registry clerks, one had 3*l.*, one had 6*s.*, and one had 4*s.*; another man had 10*l.*, but concealed this fact. The remaining 273 were one and all absolutely penniless. Yet out of these 277 persons eight alone were debarred from landing. (*Report of Select Committee of the House of Representatives on Immigration and Naturalization*, 1892, the “Stamp Report,” pp. 340-349, 396-403.)

† The fact that persons in need of *temporary* assistance may be perfectly eligible as immigrants is fully recognized in the practice which obtains at Philadelphia of giving to indigent persons free rations sufficient for their journey out West, the cost of these “lunches” being paid for out of public funds; see *ante*, p. 47.

‡ Even in a case like this exceptions appear to be made in exceptional cases. Thus Col. Weber told the writer that if an immigrant were temporarily incapacitated through having broken his leg on the voyage to America, he should allow him to land if he thought it probable that the man would ultimately be able to earn his living, and so cease to be a public charge.

To recapitulate. Under the laws of the United States neither destitution nor inability to provide for his own support is of itself, necessarily and under all circumstances alike, a ground for the exclusion of an alien. An alien may be both destitute and unable to support himself, and may yet be admissible. The persons whom the United States aims at keeping out of the country under the anti-pauper sections of its immigration laws are those persons who, whether destitute or not, are likely to be unable to support themselves, under circumstances which make it probable that the burden of their support will be cast upon the public.

CONTRACT LABOURERS.

We come now to consider the laws forbidding the admission of contract labourers—"any alien or aliens, any foreigner or foreigners under contract or agreement, parol or special, express or implied, made previous to the importation or migration of such alien or aliens, foreigner or foreigners, to perform labour or service of any kind in the United States" (with certain exceptions specified in the statutes). The object of the laws against contract labour is the protection of the American working-men from the competition of aliens induced to come to the United States by a promise of work made by employers.*

It will be seen that the protection which this legislation aims at conferring upon the American workman is of a strictly limited character. Its object is to prevent the importation of gangs of foreign workmen, such as, before the enactment of these laws, were brought into the country to do work, especially to perform coarse labour, at wages lower than those obtained by workmen already in the country, to prevent the American employers from filling the places of men out on strike by sending for aliens from abroad, and to prevent them from importing skilled artisans to be employed in substitution for skilled men already in the United States.

But these anti-contract labour laws were not enacted with the view of making it impossible for the American employer to get work done by foreigners already in the United States, or

* In the *Report of the Committee on Labour*, to which the Alien Contract Labour Bill was referred, and which recommended its passage, the object of the proposed enactment is thus explained:—"The Bill in no measure seeks to restrict free immigration: Such a measure would be, and justly so, odious to the American people. The foreigner who voluntarily and from choice leaves his native land and settles in this country with the intention of becoming an American citizen, a part of the American body politic, has always been welcome to our shores. . . . With this class of immigrants this bill has no concern. Its object is to restrict and prohibit the immigration or rather the importation of an entirely different class of persons, the immigrant who does not come 'by his own initiative but by that of the capitalist.' It seeks to restrain and prohibit the immigration or importation of labourers who would have never seen our shores but for the inducements and allurements of men whose only object is to obtain labour at the lowest possible rate, regardless of the social and material well-being of our own citizens, and regardless of the evil consequences which result to American labourers from such immigration."—*Report of Committee of House of Representatives on Labour*, 1884, pp. 1, 2.

who might come to the United States of their own free will without being induced to come by any arrangements for their employment made with him previous to their arrival in the country. And, as a fact, large numbers of foreign workmen, both skilled and unskilled, are employed in the States; and, in many instances, large bodies of aliens are employed under gang-masters, whose treatment of their subordinates is said to be often most harsh.* The American employer is at full liberty to employ the labour of foreigners at any wages which the men are willing to accept, provided always that these aliens did not come to the United States in consequence of a promise of work held out by him to them before they entered the States.

While the protection which the contract labour laws are intended to afford to the American working-man is of the narrow nature here indicated, in one respect the provisions of these laws are in a marked degree stringent. For an alien workman to come within the meshes of the law as a contract labourer, it would (according to the best authorities) appear to be by no means necessary that he shall have made with the employer whose service he proposes to enter a contract expressly specifying all the terms of service. The employer may have confined himself to an offer of an engagement specifying neither the wages to be received nor the length of time for which the man is to be employed. Nevertheless, the acceptance of an offer such as this, followed by the consequent emigration to the United States of the workman to whom the offer was made, makes him liable to exclusion as a contract labourer.

The point just referred to was raised in the case of *United States v. Edgar* (48 Fed. Rep. 91-94),† where Mr. Justice Hallett said, "Upon the letters which passed between the parties and the payment of passage-money by defendant, and the act of the men in coming to Philadelphia, it is difficult to make a complete contract to perform labour, because the elements of time and compensation are entirely wanting. But there is force in the suggestion of counsel for the Government that, in construing a measure of public policy in a case where there may be reason to believe that the act complained of is in violation of the spirit, if not the letter of the law, we ought not to be critical about the terms of the contract for labour mentioned in the statute; and we are not disposed to declare what shall be a sufficient contract under the law." In this case the determination of the point now under consideration was not necessary to the decision. But this point seems to be covered by the recent case of *United States v. Great Falls & C. Ry. Co.* (53 Fed. Rep. 77, 78, advance sheets). This was an action

* See the article on "Italian Immigrants and their Enslavement," by Dr. S. Merlino, *Forum*, April 1893, pp. 183-190, and compare the evidence given before the Select Committee in 1891 by Mr. John W. Keagh, Inspector of Public Works *Report of Select Committee of House of Representatives on Immigration and Naturalization*, 1891, (the "Owen Report"), pp. 540-552.

† See Appendix E., *post*, pp. 175-176.

by the United States to recover from a railway company the penalty of 1,000 dollars (200*l.*) for the importation of a labourer under contract. The offer made to the labourer (John Lamont) was that, if he would immigrate into the United States, the company would (as it was stated in the pleadings) "continue him as an employee at wages satisfactory to the said John Lamont." The case being argued on demurrer (the defendants claiming that the complaint "did not state facts sufficient to constitute a cause of action"), the judge (District Judge Knowles) treated it on the footing that the only doubtful point was whether the complaint sufficiently alleged the acceptance of the offer. That the acceptance of this offer, in which neither the duration of the proposed employment nor the wages to be received was expressly stated, would, if duly pleaded and proved, justify the court in regarding the workman as a contract labourer, appears to have been deemed unquestionable.*

It is, however, proper to mention that, so far as the sea-ports visited (New York, Baltimore, Boston and Philadelphia) are concerned, the immigration authorities at these ports, when questioned by the writer, were unanimous in declaring that the men, who were sent back by them as contract labourers, were in all cases men who were proved to have an explicit agreement as to the rate of wages which they were to receive. At New York it appeared that in very many cases in which men came under an agreement of the non-specific type (*i.e.*, with an assurance of getting work, but with no specific agreement as to what their wages were to be), the contract labour inspectors were accustomed to recommend that the men in question should be debarred from landing as contract labourers, while the Commissioner of Immigration (Colonel Weber) invariably declined to endorse any such recommendation, it being his practice to debar as contract labourers such men only as had received and accepted an offer of work specifying the rate of wages which they were to get from the employer.

But, whatever the practice may have been at New York under the administration of Colonel Weber, a case which occurred before his tenure of office, and for the particulars of which I am indebted to the courtesy of the Honble. Michael H. Herbert, Secretary of the British Embassy at Washington, shows that a less lenient interpretation has at times been given to the terms of the contract labour law. This case was as follows:—An Englishman, intending to go out to a place in Texas, obtained from the agents of the steamship company, by which he was in May, 1889, carried to New York, a letter of introduction to the "reception and locating agent" of a railway company at that place. This letter specified that "the bearer of this is entitled to all the accommodation and assistance provided by the Southern Pacific Co.'s "Immigrant's House at _____, Texas, free upon presentation

* See full report of this case in Appendix E., *post*, pp. 179, 180.

“ of this certificate at the office of the Home,” and was given upon condition of the immigrant’s signing (as he did) a declaration that he was willing, and able to work, and would accept the first employment offered him on arrival, unless a choice of more than one occupation were offered, in which event he was to be at liberty to accept that which might suit him best. This declaration was treated by the immigration authorities at New York as “ a contract or agreement to perform labour or service ” within the meaning of the contract labour laws, and the man was debarred from landing as a contract labourer.

Having now set forth what are the precise classes of persons whom the immigration laws are intended to prevent from settling in the United States, it remains to inquire what degree of success appears to be achieved in this direction.

ENFORCEMENT OF LAWS; AS TO IMMIGRATION FROM CANADA.

When we approach this portion of our subject, it will be found convenient to take as our basis the statistics given in the last annual report of the Superintendent of Immigration as to the arrivals of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1892, which are set forth in Appendix B., Table XVIII., *post*, p. 125; but before proceeding to comment upon these statistics, it must be pointed out that the figures as to arrivals of immigrants given in that report do not include arrivals from British North America or from Mexico, and do not, therefore, give us information in respect to those immigrants who came to the United States from the Dominion of Canada by sea, or those who entered the United States by its northern or its southern frontiers. As to the immigration to the United States from Canada by sea (which takes place by way of the Massachusetts sea-ports) it will be seen from the account given above (pp. 41-43) that the restrictive measures adopted at Boston are of anything but a rigorous character. With respect to the immigration over the frontiers of the United States (taking place principally across the borders between the United States and Canada) it should be noted that the immigration authorities of the United States do not claim that any efficient restrictions have been carried out, the last report of the Superintendent of Immigration (for 1892) expressly declaring that the legislative provisions made for the regulation and restriction of immigration along the southern and northern borders of the United States have “ been practically inoperative.”*

It is, however, certain that in respect at any rate of the enforcement of the contract labour laws some by no means unsuccessful action has been taken upon the northern frontier, a view which is borne out by the observations of Mr. Burnett given above (*ante*, pp. 57-60) and by the statement made in the *Annual*

* *Annual Report of the Superintendent of Immigration for 1892*, p. 11.

Report for 1892 of the Superintendent of Immigration (p. 1, note), that in the year ending June 30, 1892, 831 persons were returned to Canada as alien contract labourers; for it is believed that these 831 individuals were, with but few exceptions, persons who had endeavoured to enter the United States by its northern frontier.* All the same, it would be far from easy to suppose that these 800 and odd persons detected and debarred as contract labourers at points along the extensive northern frontier of the United States constituted more than a small fraction of the total number of immigrants who, in the course of the year 1892, entered the United States from the Dominion of Canada under contract, express or implied, to perform labour in the States.† To say nothing of the positive assertion of Mr. Colcord, the immigrant inspector at Boston, quoted above, that every one of the persons whom the Boston authorities had returned to Canada as contract labourers had afterwards got in over the land frontier, we have the undoubted fact that many thousands of Canadians cross the border into the New England States every spring, returning in the following autumn (see *ante*, p. 55). Now, on the one hand, there can be little doubt that many of these "birds of passage" come with arrangements as to employment of the nature forbidden by the American law made beforehand; and, on the other hand, these men knew far too much about the American law to "give themselves away" by unwise admissions.‡

ENFORCEMENT OF LAWS; AS TO TRANSOCEANIC IMMIGRATION.

It is time to turn from the confessedly less efficient regulation and restriction of immigration carried out in the case of persons entering the United States from British North America or from Mexico to the more elaborate system which is in force in relation to those who come across the ocean to the American Republic.

As we have seen, the restrictive process applied in the case of transoceanic passengers to the detection and rejection of ineligible immigrants practically consists of two parts, of which the first is carried out by the steamship companies before bringing their passengers to America, while the second is performed by the

* A few of these 831 persons returned to Canada as contract labourers are believed to have been those who arrived by sea; the rest appear to have been stopped at various inland "ports" (see *Annual Report of Superintendent of Immigration* for 1892, p. 36, Table No. 10), presumably at towns on the great lakes.

† Compare *Report on Immigration by the Chief of the Miscellaneous Division, Secretary's Office*, for the year ending June 30, 1891, p. 7; especially the statement of the immigrant inspector at Newport, Vermont: "We are receiving at this port three carloads of these French Canadians each day, who are *en route* to the various manufacturing towns in New England, and a large number of them are, in my opinion, under an implied contract to labour."

‡ Compare the statement of Mr. Colcord quoted above (*ante*, p. 42), that "they teach the contract labour laws in the Nova Scotian schools." Be this as it may, it is certain that a workman, who after spending a summer in the States returns to Canada, will take with him a full knowledge of the provisions of the contract labour laws.

officials of the United States when these passengers arrive at the seaport for which they are bound. That the steamship companies are interested in discovering ineligible persons, and in preventing them from obtaining a passage, is obvious. For, by placing the steamship owners under the obligation of carrying back at their own cost passengers who may be found to be inadmissible, and also those who, after having been admitted, are, within a year of their being landed, found to have become a public charge, from causes existing prior to their landing, the laws of the United States inflict what is practically a fine upon the owner of a vessel in every case in which he is proved to have shipped an ineligible immigrant. The penalty in question is not very heavy; still, it is sufficient to induce the steamship companies to exercise a certain degree of care. Accordingly, the discrimination between the eligibles and the ineligibles begins as soon as the intending immigrant applies for his passage-ticket. It is, of course, impossible to say how strict are the precautions usually taken by agents or sub-agents in order to ascertain the eligibility of applicants for tickets. It will probably not be contended that anything approaching to a strict inspection takes place, or that any searching interrogatories are, as a rule, administered. Still, there can be no question that gross carelessness on the part of an agent or sub-agent would be resented by a steamship company saddled with the expense of bringing back passengers improperly booked. It is asserted that some of the principal companies on the Continent compel an agent who has booked a passenger declared ineligible by the United States authorities to refund the cost of the man's return journey.* So far as the Liverpool companies are concerned, no case has, it is stated, occurred in which a booking agent has been discovered to be guilty of misconduct in knowingly or negligently booking ineligible immigrants. It was pointed out that the agents of the Liverpool lines are under a strong inducement to exercise due care, because want of care would be followed by the withdrawal of the offender's agency, not alone for the particular company injured by neglect on any occasion, but for all the companies having their head-quarters at Liverpool; for, in regard to the appointment and dismissal of agents, all these lines act in concert.†

It must be observed that in regard to one class of immigrant the necessity for satisfying the agent of the man's eligibility does not appear to have existed in all cases. In those very numerous instances in which a passage is paid for in America by

* Compare the report of H.B.M. Consul-General at Hamburg, *post*, Appendix C., p. 127; and the report of the United States Consul at Rotterdam, U. S. *Consular Reports*, Sept. 1892, p. 139. Mr. Gustav Schwab, of Messrs. Oelrichs and Co., agents at New York for the North German Lloyd steamship line, has written to me:—"In reply to your question I would say that our company, as we are informed, "actually oblige agents to refund the amount of passage for returned immigrants that are barred."

† The Passenger Acts require that every passage broker shall be licensed by justices, and shall give bond to the Crown to the amount of 1,000*l.* for the proper conduct of his business.

a resident in the United States anxious to bring over a relation or friend, the purchaser of the passage has been in the habit of sending to the intending immigrant a certificate to be exchanged by him for a passage-ticket, this exchange being very often effected by posting the certificate to the head office of the company, and receiving by post the passage-ticket. In a case such as this, no opportunity for personal inspection and interrogation exists. But it is undeniable that very little danger is likely to arise from the absence of such opportunity. In the first place, the agent in the United States, who sells the pre-paid passage, has warned the purchaser that by reason of the provisions of the United States laws his money is liable to be thrown away if he sends the ticket to a man whom the immigration authorities reject. In the next place, the very fact that a man is sent for by a relation or friend who may be presumed not to desire to be burdened with the presence in his house or in his neighbourhood of a ne'er-do-weel relation or acquaintance is of itself a guarantee that he is unlikely to be debarred from landing as "likely to become a public charge." And now that the new immigration law of March 3, 1893, has come into operation, it would appear that the holder of a prepaid certificate will be unable to exchange it for a passage-ticket unless and until he has submitted himself to personal inspection and interrogation by a representative of the steamship company.

On the whole, it would appear that, speaking generally, the examination of intending immigrants at the time when they take their tickets, as carried out hitherto, has possessed a certain, probably not very high, degree of value as a means of weeding out from the crowd of applicants those whom the laws of the United States declare inadmissible. In regard to the point now under consideration, the *Annual Report of the Superintendent of Immigration* for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1892, contains the following passage:—"The number of landings would have increased enormously but for the restrictive features adopted March 3, 1891. Steamship agents report their refusal to sell tickets to 50,000 applicants.* Of the thousands who were deterred from consulting ship agents by reason of the prohibitive features of the law it is not possible to estimate. It is evident that the law has exercised a wholesome and deterrent effect upon immigration" (p. 8). It is a little difficult to accept without considerable reservation this, perhaps, somewhat unduly optimistic conclusion. There can, however, be little doubt that the statute of 1893 (see *ante*, pp. 50-54) is likely to make steamship agents more careful than hitherto in booking immigrant passengers. It is quite probable that, in the course of getting the twenty-one different questions

* Mr. Gustav Selwab, who is admittedly one of the foremost authorities upon the subject of immigration into the United States, wrote, in answer to an inquiry by the writer of this report, that he did not believe that he could give any figures with reference to this statement, and that "this would be a very difficult thing to prove."

contained in the interrogatories now administered to all applicants for passage-tickets properly filled in, facts may be elicited which may tend to the rejection of an ineligible immigrant.* To what extent this will be the case, time will show; but in any event it is difficult to avoid the suspicion that the elaborate formalities now required when an immigrant is booked have a certain tendency to defeat their own object. Suppose, for example, that twenty or thirty different men have in the course of a short time been successively rejected by the local steamship agent because, in answer to his question, they admitted that they had at one time or other been inmates of a workhouse. It may be surmised that it will "get about" that persons similarly situated will, if they wish to emigrate to the United States, do well to be less lavish of the truth when under examination.

After the immigrant has been accepted by the booking agent he has (as above explained) to undergo a certain amount of medical inspection carried out on behalf of the steamship company. If, for example, the man is domiciled in one of the emigrant boarding-houses (as is the case, *e.g.*, at Liverpool, when a Swede who has come from Gothenburg *via* Hull is waiting for the vessel that will take him to America), he will be examined before he comes on board by a doctor sent by the company. It might, indeed, appear to be possible that this boarding-house inspection should be made so severe as to effectually prevent the shipment of even a single person who could fairly be treated by the United States authorities as ineligible on the ground of ill-health. But, in practice, the task of accurate elimination is not altogether easy. A man may have cataract in one or both of his eyes, and yet if he has a son in America willing and able to support him, this man may be allowed to land. The doctor who visits the boarding-house will very probably not care to undertake the duty of cross-examining the man upon points such as these in order to get at the facts. Possibly the doctor may report the state of the man's eyes to the office. Clerks at the office, even if they take the trouble to go into the matter, have no means of ascertaining the truth with precision. It is likely enough that the company will send the man over and take their chance of his being returned. More difficult still to deal with are the cases of women whom the doctor thinks to be pregnant, and who may be unmarried. A medical man entertains a very natural reluctance to challenging a woman with being about to become the mother of an illegitimate child. Sometimes the woman denies that she is pregnant; sometimes she insists that

* In one direction the administration of the new interrogatories, prefaced as they are by a warning that the immigrant may be required by the authorities in the United States to swear to the truth of the answers given by him (including, of course, the statement that he has never been in prison), would appear to be likely to bear fruit. For there is reason to believe that benevolent societies, previously accustomed to send discharged prisoners to the United States, will hesitate to do so now, when this course of action is clearly shown to involve the direct encouragement of untruth, if not of perjury.

she is married. Possibly, the doctor leaves the case to be dealt with by the office, but the authorities at the office, although they often try to get at the truth, and very painful scenes have at times occurred when a justly or unjustly indignant woman has been subjected to cross-examination, do not find it at all an easy task to ascertain the facts.

While a certain proportion of immigrants are examined at a boarding-house, all, without exception, are inspected upon embarkation. But the scrutiny which the ship's doctor makes while the passengers are hurrying on board, supplemented though it be by a second glance given during the examination by the medical officer of the Board of Trade, cannot be considered to be of a very searching character. In particular, the detection of pregnant unmarried women is, under the circumstances, far from easy; and a person of diseased intellect is extremely likely to pass this test without detection.

At this point we pass to the second part of the sifting process, that which is carried out on the arrival of immigrants by the immigration authorities of the United States, a subject which, as above remarked, it is proposed to consider in connexion with the details given in Appendix B., Table XVIII., *post*, p. 125. With regard to the last column of this Table, which is headed "Bonded," this relates to 2,135 persons allowed to land upon a guarantee given by some responsible person that these immigrants should not become a public charge. Since the practice of taking guarantees of this nature has now been practically (save in quite exceptional instances) abolished* it will not be necessary further to refer to this matter.

The figures given in the table just referred to (Appendix B., Table XVIII., *post*, p. 125,) show that out of a total of 583,962 immigrants who arrived at different ports in the United States during the year ending June 30, 1892, in all 2,164 were prevented from landing as being inadmissible under the immigration laws, of whom there were rejected as idiots, 4; as insane, 17; as paupers, 1,002; as diseased persons, 80; as convicts, 26; as "assisted immigrants," 23; as prostitutes, 80; as contract labourers, 932; while during the same period 637 persons, who had been allowed to land, but who within one year of their arrival had been found to have become a public charge, were during the same period deported from the United States.†

* Mr. A. B. Nettleton, Assistant Secretary, Treasury Department, "addressed a letter to the commissioner of immigration at each principal port of the United States on the 6th of December, 1891, directing that no further bonds be taken, except upon specific authorization of the Secretary of the Treasury in any given case;" up to March 3rd, 1892 "only two bonds have been taken since the date of that communication." (*Report of Select Committee of the House of Representatives on Immigration and Naturalization*, 1892, the "Stump Report," pp. 4-6.) By the Immigration Law of 1893, sec. 7, Appendix D., *post*, p. 144, the practice of taking bonds or other guarantees that immigrants shall not become a public charge is altogether prohibited except with the written approval in each case of the Secretary of the Treasury.

† It will be seen that the figures given in Appendix B., Tables I.-XVII., show that during the calendar year 1892 the number of immigrants who arrived and were

With respect to the persons who, on reaching the United States, were at once sent back as ineligible, we remark that these form a very small fraction indeed—considerably less than one-half of 1 per cent.—of the total arrivals. The question to be considered is whether the proportion of ineligible passengers among this large number of close upon 600,000 was in reality so small as this, say, .37 per cent. of the whole. Did the sifting machinery erected by the Legislature of the United States really eliminate all the persons whom it was intended to detect and reject, or did it let through with the good grain any amount, and what amount of worthless chaff?

These are questions which it is, of course, by no means easy to answer. Still, it is hoped that the detailed description which has been given of the sifting process as actually carried out at the principal sea-ports of the United States may enable a judgment to be formed as to the measure of efficiency which this process may fairly be considered to possess. Taking first the persons whom it is desired to exclude upon moral grounds, it can scarcely be deemed probable that the 26 persons sent back (all of them from New York) as convicts in the year ending June 30, 1892, were the only persons out of the total of about 600,000 immigrants arriving at the different sea-ports of the United States in that year who had "been convicted of a felony " or other infamous crime or misdemeanour involving moral " turpitude." The figures given in Appendix B, Table II., *post*, p. 112, show that out of the 27 persons sent back as convicts from New York in the calendar year 1892, no less than 26 were Italians. The detection of Italian convicts is, according to a statement made to the writer by Colonel Weber, the late Commissioner of Immigration in New York, very greatly facilitated by the circumstance that all Italian immigrants are furnished with passports, which are examined by the registry clerks, and which bear an endorsement of any conviction which the holders may have undergone.* But in other cases how can it be possible to detect by mere inspection, as a man walks past the doctors and the registry clerks, the fact that he was some time ago sentenced as guilty of an offence against the criminal law? The same remark applies also in the case of polygamists. The fact that not a single person was sent back from any sea-port in the whole of the United States as a polygamist in the 12 months ending June 30, 1892, may, no doubt, be due to the abandonment of polygamy which is said to be taking place among the Mor-

dealt with by the immigration authorities at the four great ports (New York, Baltimore, Boston, and Philadelphia), visited by the writer, was 482,342, of whom 2,335 (say, .48 per cent.) were debarred from landing; 1,114 of these immigrants being rejected as contract labourers; while in all 553 persons were sent back (after having been landed) as having within one year of their landing become a public charge.

* It is stated that the Italian authorities will not permit an emigrant to leave the country without a passport.—*Report of the Select Committee of the House of Representatives on Immigration and Naturalization, 1891* (the "Owen Report"), p. 403.

mons.* But, in any case, it is clear that the sifting machinery employed is quite inadequate effectually to detect all persons coming within the category of polygamists.

In regard to the discrimination which it is endeavoured to exercise against persons ineligible by reason of disease, whether disease of a nature to destroy the comfort or to injure the health of other persons, or disease of a nature to incapacitate the sufferer from earning his living, a good deal must depend upon the zeal and ability of the medical staff in each case; and in criticising the system it will be proper to take it at its best. Even at its best the system is, of course, very far from being infallible. There must, so far as a layman can judge, be many classes of bodily ailments seriously impairing a man's capacity to earn his living, which cannot be expected to be diagnosed by an inspection so hasty as that which is carried out, for example, at Ellis Island, where the time devoted to the examination of each immigrant usually averages about three seconds.† But that very many bodily ailments of many different kinds are, as a fact, detected by the medical staff attached to the immigration service is abundantly proved.

With respect to idiocy and insanity, it may be taken to be certain that there are many persons undoubtedly suffering from various forms of mental deficiency or disease who are quite likely to pass in the crowd of immigrants wholly unobserved by the medical staff. At the same time, there appears to be little doubt that the medical inspection as at present carried out is adequate to check any such wholesale "dumping" of imbeciles and lunatics as is alleged to have taken place in times past.‡ To carry

* See *Report of the Commissioners of Immigration upon the Causes which incite Immigration to the United States* (the "Weber Report"), p. 185.

† What per-centage of persons, whose ineligibility by reason of bodily ailments would have been detected if the inspection had been much more thorough, does, as a fact, escape detection it is impossible to say. It has been claimed that the medical inspection of immigrants has, at any rate, exhibited much greater efficiency since the regulation of immigration was taken over by the Federal Government. Thus, in an address delivered in January, 1893, Col. Weber said: "The practice of the old State Board of Emigration, which the United States officials have continued, and which is founded not upon mandatory law, but upon regulations, has been to take care of those who fall into distress within twelve months of their landing, at the expense of the immigration fund, instead of sending them to the city hospitals for treatment at the expense of our tax-payers. The year 1889, the last complete year under State control, showed an average daily attendance of such immigrants of 266. Under the Federal control for the first full year, namely, 1891, that average was reduced to 73½, and for 1892, 81 and a fraction. Now this means a better class of immigrants or a more careful sifting at the threshold, one or the other, and perhaps it is both." But inquiries made by the writer tend to show that the diminution of the daily attendance of immigrants seeking hospital treatment at New York is in a very large measure due, not to any of the causes suggested by Col. Weber, but to the fact that, while under the old State Board little difficulty was made in supplying hospital treatment to all applicants, Col. Weber, when he came into office, initiated a much stricter system, so that it soon became known that unless a man was not alone indigent, but also really ill, it was of no use for him to ask the immigration authorities to take him as a hospital patient.

‡ There appears to be some evidence that, so far as any rate as New York is concerned, the rejection of the mentally diseased has been more rigorous under the Federal, than under the State administration. In a paper read on June 12, 1893, at

out anything like a thorough examination of the mental condition of all immigrants would be a most formidable task. But, within its own limitations, the medical inspection may fairly be considered as by no means inefficient for the purpose of detecting, at any rate, gross cases of mental deficiency or disease.

Speaking generally of the medical inspection of immigrants, whether in relation to bodily or to mental disease, it must be said that, although it is true that only a few seconds are, on the average, devoted to the examination of each individual, yet there are very many among the emigrants who are quite obviously up to the standard of soundness insisted upon, while others require and receive an inspection of more than the average duration, and if any doubt still remains, are ordered to stand aside for subsequent leisurely scrutiny. No one would pretend that a doctor examining men on behalf of an insurance company could do his work properly if he took them at the rate of one in every three seconds. But different degrees of strictness appear legitimate in different circumstances; and that the inspection carried out by the medical officers attached to the immigration service of the United States does, as a matter of fact, succeed in detecting a considerable proportion of the cases proper for rejection on grounds within its province seems to be, on the whole, reasonably clear.

So far as the detection of pregnancy is concerned, New York is probably far ahead of the other sea-ports visited; certainly, the chance that a woman in this condition will succeed in passing the matron at Ellis Island unchallenged must, according to the information given to the writer, and to what he has himself observed, be a poor chance indeed.

Coming now to the question of the exclusion of persons likely to become a public charge, we may divide these into two classes. First, we have the persons who from ill-health or old age are incompetent to earn their own living. That a considerable proportion of such cases will, in all probability, be detected by the doctors, we may admit. But after a case of this kind has been discovered by the medical staff, it still very frequently remains to be determined whether the man has such expectation of receiving support, *e.g.*, from his children already in the United States, as will render it improbable that the burden of his maintenance will fall upon the public. If the man's son

the World's Columbian Exposition, Chicago, Colonel Weber states that "the number of insane immigrants under Federal officials never reached 25 per cent. of those turned over to them by the State Board, after disposing of the subjects so transferred by recovery, death, or removal to local institutions at the end of the year." Colonel Porter, Commissioner of the Department of Public Charities and Correction of New York City, told the writer that there has been a great improvement in recent years; that formerly foreign lunatics were "dumped" wholesale into the United States, but that this has now been stopped. If this improvement goes on, we may expect to see the effect in the figures as to inmates of lunatic asylums. So far, however, as regards the asylums of the city of New York, it must be said that no signs whatever of a more rigorous exclusion of mentally diseased immigrants can be perceived in the statistics of these institutions.

lives near to the sea-port, he may come to claim his parent, and it may be possible to ascertain, with at any rate some small approach to certainty, that he is both willing and able to look after the immigrant. But in other cases the inspectors have, as a rule, to be content with assuring themselves on some *primā facie* evidence that the immigrant is expected and will be welcomed by a resident in the United States, whose ability, however, to undertake the task of caring for the newcomer it is impracticable to verify with any exactness. It must further be remarked that it not infrequently occurs that an immigrant, whose arrival was a subject of rejoicing to his relatives in the States, is sooner or later found to be a greater tax upon their means or upon their temper than they care to bear, and is cast adrift without resources, under circumstances which make it in the highest degree likely that he will shortly become a public charge.

Leaving on one side the cases in which an immigrant admittedly depends for support upon relatives, and turning to those cases in which the persons subjected to the scrutiny of the immigration authorities will have to be maintained exclusively by their own exertions, how far, we ask, is it probable that the very rapid diagnosis made by the immigrant inspectors will succeed in eliminating from the stream which defiles past them all those individuals who are likely to be either too idle or too incompetent to provide for their own support?

It is impossible to deny that the test applied is of a very rough-and-ready character. The point of greatest importance in deciding the question whether a particular immigrant is likely to provide for himself and his family by his own exertions is, obviously, the man's antecedents. And upon the subject of the man's antecedents the inspector is, and, for the most part, is likely, in spite of the answers which he receives as the immigrant passes in front of him, to remain blankly ignorant. If it so happen that the immigrant admits that his passage was paid for him by a charitable institution, or that he was at one time or other in receipt of poor-law relief, then the inspector has some evidence of ineligibility to go upon. But then, can it be considered at all certain that all persons whose passage has been paid by charity, or who have ever had relief from the guardians, will confess the facts? And even as to those who do confess the facts, a large degree of discretion has, in practice, to be exercised. For every case in which a man has had poor-law relief is not treated alike;* and immigrants whose passage has been, in whole or in part, paid for by benevolent institutions or individuals are only sent back if they are judged to be unlikely to earn their own living in the States.† In fact, in the whole of the fiscal year, 1892, no more than 23 persons in all were sent

* For cases of persons who confessed to having had poor-law relief, but who were yet allowed to land, see *ante*, p. 37.

† As to assisted immigrants, see *ante*, pp. 23 n., 65 n., 68.

back (21 from Boston, 2 from San Francisco) on the ground of their being "assisted immigrants."

Speaking generally, it must be confessed that it would be idle to expect the inspectors by putting to an immigrant a few hurried questions, the truth of his answers to which cannot, for the most part, possibly be tested in any manner whatever, to determine with precision whether the man was going to be self-supporting or not.

It is not intended to suggest that, by reason of the inevitable imperfection of the system of regulating immigration in force in the United States, that country is, in fact, to any very great extent flooded with immigrants of the non-self-supporting type. For it must be remembered that a very large part of the immigration into the United States is, at present, that of persons coming out to seek their fortune in America at the invitation of friends and relatives already established there; and it may, perhaps, not be unreasonable to suppose that such an invitation is most likely to be extended to persons of whose character and antecedents something favourable is known by those whom they are to join in the States. In cases of this description the task of discrimination imposed upon the immigration authorities has, in effect, been performed for them. But so far as the system itself is concerned, the fundamental difficulty necessarily encountered by any system, which attempts to analyse by a cursory examination the component members of a promiscuous crowd of persons as to whose antecedents little or nothing can be known, and to pick out those who are unlikely to succeed in the battle of life, must be considered to be one of a most serious character.

We must, however, not forget that, in those cases in which an inspector makes the mistake of treating as likely to be self-supporting an immigrant who afterwards belies this supposition, if the man becomes a public charge within one year of his landing (from causes existing prior to his landing) he may be compulsorily returned at the expense of the steamship company by which he was brought to the United States. In the fiscal year 1892 in all 637 persons were sent back under this "one-year clause," which, as ancillary to the system of inspection upon arrival, undoubtedly possesses much practical value.

The special subject of contract labour remains for consideration. In the year ending June 30, 1892, in all 932 persons are in the table now under consideration stated to have been sent back from different sea-ports of the United States as contract labourers, of whom 832 were returned from the port of New York. How far would it be safe to assume that these 932 persons were the only, or nearly the only persons who came across the ocean to the United States in the course of the 12 months in question in violation of the contract labour laws? Speaking broadly, it may be said that the system of inspection in force at the sea-ports of the United States in relation to

transoceanic passengers has the effect of making it at all times far from easy to import large gangs of men; and, in a case in which a strike has broken out, may make it extremely difficult to import even a few men at a time to take the place of strikers. It is, of course, not to be supposed that the inspectors are able to detect every case in which either a single individual or a number of men together emigrate to the United States under a contract or agreement to perform labour or service made previous to departure. In respect to single individuals discovery is certainly very difficult, since the only available proof of the immigrant's being a contract labourer consists, in most cases, in his own confession; though it is said to occur occasionally that a man is so alarmed at the prospect of being returned as a "pauper, or person likely to become a public charge," that, in order to show that he is likely to be able to provide for his own support, he eagerly proclaims the fact that he has already obtained a promise of employment, and so convicts himself of falling within the prohibited category of contract labourer. But in regard to groups of men the mere fact that a large number of workmen all of the same occupation and all, very probably, coming from the same district arrive simultaneously, all bound for the same destination, at any rate affords to the inspector an important clue, and enables him to cross-examine the men with sufficient vigour and pertinacity to elicit, in some cases, a confession of their guilt. It must, however, be said that, even under circumstances such as these, an inspector can seldom feel certain that he has to do with a genuine case of contract labour. It often happens that the strongest apparent indications of guilt are present where the men are entirely innocent. For example, a Hungarian who came over two years ago and is doing well, writes to his two brothers who are working in his own trade at home, urging them to join him. The letter goes the round of the village and is talked about through the district. Finally, not alone the two brothers but also four or five of their friends emigrate to America, and present themselves, all together, to the inspectors. To all appearances, this must be a gang of contract labourers, but it is, in reality, nothing of the kind. Then again, it will occur that a number of workmen belonging to the same trade, and most of them coming from more or less the same neighbourhood, but whose simultaneous emigration is caused not by any arrangement with an American employer but by the depressed condition of the industry in which they are engaged, meet fortuitously on the steamship. They find on board a fellow-craftsman who has been in the States already and is returning after a visit to his friends in the old country. He can speak a little English, and giving out that he "knows his way about," becomes the natural leader of the group, which he undertakes to pilot through the intricacies of the immigrant dépôt. The obvious conclusion for the inspector to come to is that this

man is a "boss" or foreman who has been sent by his employer to recruit and bring over a gang of workmen. But this conclusion is, of course, entirely unfounded; and after a lengthy cross-examination, the inspector lets the men go, and passes on to the next group feeling thoroughly puzzled and disheartened. Under all these circumstances it is not surprising to find that in the fiscal year 1892, out of the total number of 30,733 immigrants arriving at Philadelphia, 2 only were detected and rejected as contract labourers, while at Boston, with a total immigration of 32,632, not a single person was debarred from landing as having emigrated in violation of the contract labour law. At the same time, it must be remembered that in all cases in which a strike is pending the trade union is very likely to request the inspectors to keep a sharp look out for men of the particular trade affected, and the employers, knowing this, will not improbably be deterred from attempting to import alien labour; and in any event will not dare to threaten the adoption of this course. Now, since to a body of men out on strike the threat that foreigners will be imported to fill their places is always discouraging in the extreme, there can be no doubt that the alien contract labour law, making it impossible for employers to hold out a menace of this description, secures for American labour in its contests with capital a tactical advantage of no inconsiderable value.*

* Referring generally to the restriction of immigration of any of the prohibited classes, it is claimed (and justly claimed) that, at New York at any rate, where the great bulk of the immigration into the United States takes place, the substitution of the Federal for the State authorities as administrators of the immigration laws has resulted in a marked improvement in the operation of the sifting machinery. Thus, in his address, delivered in January, 1893, already referred to, Col. Weber said that "the State Board of Emigration Commissioners during the five years preceding the control and supervision of the business by the Federal authorities barred and returned to Europe 1,977 people. During the time the United States have had charge, namely, from April 19th, 1890, down to the 1st of November 1892, about two years and seven months, there were barred and returned to Europe as follows:—

" From April 19th to December 31st, 1890, inclusive	-	343
" For the year 1891	-	1,181
" From January 1st to October 31st, 1892, inclusive	-	1,527
" Total	-	<u>3,051</u>

These figures, it should be noted, take no account of persons returned under the one-year clause of the Act of 1891. It will be remembered that the total number of persons debarred from landing at New York and returned to Europe in the calendar year 1892 was 2,137, a figure larger than the total mentioned above as having been barred and returned during the whole of the five years preceding the assumption of control by the Federal authorities.

Another fact brought forward by Col. Weber in his Chicago paper (referred to *ante*, p. 82 *n.*) is that "the number of steamship tickets for immigrants returning to Europe based upon reduced or charity rates issued by the companies to persons having some means, but who failed in successfully competing here for a livelihood show a decreasing tendency, several of the more important lines marking in 1892 a decline of 25 per cent. over those of 1889." That the number of "charity passages" is smaller now than in 1889 is true. Thus the number of charity

EFFECT OF ENFORCEMENT OF UNITED STATES LAWS UPON
RATEPAYERS IN UNITED KINGDOM.

Before leaving the subject of the regulation and restriction of general immigration it seems proper to inquire to what extent the rejection by the United States of certain classes of immigrants operates to cast a burden upon the public in the United Kingdom by causing to be landed on our shores aliens who thereupon become recipients of public relief. That a certain number of foreigners are brought back to ports in the United Kingdom after being either debarred from landing upon their original arrival in the United States or sent back from the States as having become a public charge is certain. Thus, as we have seen, in the calendar year 1892 there were debarred from landing at New York and returned at the cost of the steamship companies to ports in the United Kingdom 38 aliens (Polish, 2; Russian, 28; Swedish, 1; Finnish, 1; German, 6); and there were, in addition, returned from New York at the expense of the steamship companies under the one-year clause to such ports 47 (Polish, 4; Russian, 30; Swedish, 4; Bohemian, 2; other Austrian, 1; German, 6). From Boston we got back in 1892 as debarred immigrants, 14 foreigners (German, 1; Russian, 2; Polish, 6; of other nativities, 5); and also returned under the one-year clause 13 aliens in all (German, 1; Russian, 4; Polish, 2; Swedish, 4; Finnish, 1; Austrian, 1). From Philadelphia

passages granted by the following lines (according to information supplied to the writer by the companies) was:—

Line.	Period.	Number of Charity Passages.
North German Lloyd	July 1, 1888, to June 30, 1889	177
	July 1, 1891, to June 30, 1892	108
Netherlands American Steam Navigation Company	July 1, 1888, to June 30, 1889	368
	July 1, 1891, to June 30, 1892	308
Anchor	July 1, 1888, to June 30, 1889	39
	July 1, 1891, to June 30, 1892	47
White Star	July 3, 1888, to June 2, 1889	161
	July 3, 1891, to June 2, 1892	130

But how far these figures go in proving the exercise of greater care on the admission of immigrants since Col. Weber was appointed by the Federal authorities in April 1890, is open to doubt. It is quite possible that the diminution in the number of charity passages is to some extent caused by the steamship companies being now compelled to take back, free of charge, persons who would formerly have gone back to Europe on charity passages.

we received as immigrants prevented from landing by the United States authorities in 1892, and sent back at the expense of the steamship companies in all 2 foreigners (Germans) and as returned by reason of their having become a public charge other 4 aliens (Russians). A very considerable proportion of the foreigners rejected and returned by the United States appear, after being re-landed in the United Kingdom, to have been sent on to the Continent by the steamship companies by which they were brought from America to this country.* But in regard to any cases in which this course may not have been pursued, the question arises, to what extent do the foreigners sent back to this country by the United States immigration authorities become a burden upon the rate-payers of the United Kingdom? With a view to ascertaining the facts the Board of Trade recently requested the Local Government Board (England and Wales), the Secretary for Scotland, and the Local Government Board (Ireland) to inquire how many cases occurred in 1892 in which foreigners sent back to this country by the immigration authorities in the United States were received into workhouses, lunatic asylums, &c. in certain places where this would have been the most likely to happen, if at all.

The information furnished to the Local Government Board (England) and by that Board placed at the disposal of the Board of Trade relates to the following parishes or unions—the parish of Liverpool, the adjacent West Derby Union and township of Toxteth Park, the Incorporation of Southampton, the adjacent South Stoneham Union, the Incorporation of Kingston-upon-Hull and the Grimsby Union. The only cases in which foreigners sent back by the United States authorities are stated to have, in the course of the year 1892, been admitted into any institution maintained by the rates in the districts named are three cases which occurred in the parish of Liverpool.†

The information obtained by the Secretary for Scotland relates to the parishes of North and South Leith, Greenock, Barony and Glasgow, and to the Govan Combination. The Secretary for Scotland states that no case in which a foreigner sent back by the immigration authorities of the United States was during 1892 received into any poorhouse, lunatic asylum, &c., occurred in any of the parishes just named, but that four cases of this nature occurred in the Govan Combination.‡

* In reply to questions put by the writer the Companies in Liverpool carrying immigrants to the United States stated that they invariably sent back to the Continent all foreign passengers rejected or returned by the immigration authorities in the United States, the only exception being one case in which a lunatic was sent to the workhouse at Liverpool.

† The nativity of the three returned immigrants is not given; their names are stated as "Jean Bedmoun or Jean Louis Bedmounx," "Claus T. Emanuelson or Chas. V. Emanuel," and "Felix Stahlger or Felix Stardecker."

‡ Nativities not indicated; names given as "Walter Ravensohn," "Augusta Zadouber," "Otto Zadouber," and "Elias Freer."

The Local Government Board (Ireland) states that "it does not appear that any person of foreign nationality sent back to the United Kingdom by the United States Government was received into a workhouse or lunatic asylum in Belfast, Cork, or Londonderry in the year 1892."

B. CHINESE IMMIGRATION.

Passing from the restrictions in force in respect to general immigration, we now come to the subject of the exclusion of Chinese labourers from the United States. As will have been seen from the account of the anti-Chinese legislation given in a previous part of this report, this legislation provides in the first place for the exclusion of Chinese labourers who attempt to enter the United States, and in the next place for the compulsory deportation of all Chinese labourers* who should not, within a period now expired, have proved their right to remain in the United States and have taken out a certificate of residence. With respect to the actual application of this legislation I am not able to speak from personal investigation; for it was not possible within the time at my disposal to visit the places where Chinese immigrants enter or seek to enter the United States; and the date fixed for the deportation of Chinese to commence (May 6, 1893) was subsequent to my leaving America. But in regard to the effects produced by the operation of the anti-Chinese laws it may be of interest to note that, before the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882 came into operation, the number of persons of Chinese nationality entering the United States had been in each of the following years (each year ending June 30)—in 1877, 10,594; in 1878, 8,992; in 1879, 9,604; in 1880, 5,802; in 1881, 11,890; in 1882 (*i.e.*, between July 1, 1881 and June 30, 1882), 39,579, and between July 1, 1882, and August 5, 1882, (this Act coming into effect on August 6, 1882) 6,613.* But in the whole period from August 6, 1882, to June 30, 1892, no more than 9,193 Chinese are stated in the official figures to have entered the United States.†

It should, however, be observed, that in the official figures no account is taken as to 1886 or any subsequent year of immigrants coming by the land frontiers of the United States, either on the north or the south. It seems to be certain that some Chinese labourers get into the United States by British Columbia. It is said in the Report of the Select Committee of the House of Representatives which investigated the subject of

* Certain exceptions being made in favour of persons unavoidably prevented from taking out certificates of residence within the period named. See *ante*, p. 62.

† *Statistical Abstracts of the United States* for 1891, p. 219; for 1892, p. 223. The 9,193 were not all new-comers; some were undoubtedly Chinese labourers who had been in the United States before. But the re-entry of Chinese labourers was forbidden on and after October 1, 1888, and the total number of Chinese stated to have entered between August 6, 1882, and June 30, 1889, is only 1,913. It would appear to be probable that the bulk of the 9,193 were new arrivals.

Chinese immigration in 1891, that the number of Chinese crossing over in this manner "does not exceed three hundred annually;"* while the same authority states that an irruption of the same character has taken place on the southern frontier of the United States.—"The sub-committee also ascertained that quite a number of Chinamen came into this country from Mexico."†

On the whole, the measures adopted for the exclusion of Chinese labourers appear to have been attended with a large amount of success. It is, however, necessary to remark that the official statistics show that the number of persons of Chinese nationality entering the States by sea with the full knowledge of the authorities has for some years been increasing, the figures being in 1887 (when the lowest point was reached) 10; in 1888, 26; in 1889, 118; in 1890, 1,716; in 1891, no less than 2,836; and in 1892, 2,728.‡ Thus in the last three years alone more than 7,000 Chinese entered at United States sea-ports, all of them, of course, securing admittance upon the ground that they were not labourers, but were doctors, teachers, preachers, or other professional men, or merchants. It is, however, impossible to avoid suspecting that a considerable proportion of these immigrants were, in fact, labourers.§

With regard to the new Chinese Exclusion Act of 1892 it appears to be generally agreed that the provisions of this law would, if enforced, lead to the deportation of a very large number of Chinese labourers now in the United States.|| Upon this subject it may be proper to quote the information which

* *Report of the Select Committee of the House of Representatives on Immigration and Naturalization, 1891* (on Chinese immigration—the "Lehlbach Report"), p. I.

† *Ib.*, p. II.

‡ See *Statistical Abstract of the United States* for 1892, p. 223.

§ Compare the following extract from the *New York Tribune*, March 31, 1893:—
 "Washington, March 30.—The enforcement of the Chinese Exclusion Act causes the Treasury officials much trouble, as the Celestial proves himself to be a slippery person. He is now engaged in turning himself into a merchant from a labourer. To such an extent is this the case that Assistant Secretary Spaulding has written the following letter to collectors on the Pacific coast to stop the fraud. He says: "The department is informed that a practice obtains among Chinese labourers in this country who have accumulated small sums of money of entrusting such money to merchants, which is treated as a part of the capital of the business. Chinese labourers who have made such disposition of their savings, although not actively engaged in mercantile business, have claimed to be merchants and thereby entitled to leave the country and to return to the United States. The Department desires you to closely scrutinize the certificates which may be presented at your port, of returning Chinese, and to require evidence of the standing of the holders as *bonâ fide* merchants actively engaged in business. In no case should Chinese be permitted to enter as merchants, unless their right to the privilege is clearly established, and where it appears that the practice herein referred to attempted, the certificates presented should be ignored, the holders arrested, and the facts reported to the Department."

|| With regard to the question of Chinese registration under the Act of 1892 in the State of California, we read that "comparatively no applications [by Chinese for registration] have been received. Out of a possible 72,472 only four certificates of residence have been issued." (*Fifth Biennial Report of the Bureau of Labour Statistics of the State of California*, for the years 1891-1892 p. 14).

appeared in certain English newspapers soon after the date when this deportation was to have begun.

“Philadelphia, May 16.

“The decision of the United States Supreme Court declaring the Chinese Exclusion Act to be constitutional attracts great attention. The belief is that the Government would have preferred an opposite decision. The law required the deportation of unregistered Chinese, but any attempt to put it into force was postponed pending the decision of the Supreme Court. No orders have yet been issued for its enforcement. Only 4,000 Chinese out of 100,000 in the country have registered themselves. Over \$5,000,000 [1,000,000*l.*] would be required to enforce the law, were such a course possible, but only \$36,800 [7,360*l.*] are available for the purpose, and, therefore, the law will probably remain a dead letter. Since its passage there has been a decided change of feeling on the subject, it being recognized that deportation would deprive the Pacific States of a useful labouring class who have become necessary to their welfare. A movement will be made at the coming Session of Congress to repeal the worst features of the Act.

“No indication has yet been given of the intentions of the Chinese in regard to registry. They may now seek to register, though the time has expired. The Chinese Minister at Washington declines to say anything about the decision of the Supreme Court or about a retaliatory policy towards Americans in China, which the Chinese Government may adopt. The withdrawal of the Embassy is expected. The President has decided not to send a United States Minister to China until her policy is made known. The State Department officials believe that China will protect the Americans now there, who number about one thousand. Merchants here fear that the dispute with China will give England the control of the tea trade, and will result in the transfer of the petroleum trade to Russia.

“The decision of the Supreme Court particularly affects three Chinamen in New York who were arrested with the view to their expulsion, but were released on *habeas corpus* pending the decision. They must now leave the country.”
—*Our Correspondent. Times*, May 17, 1893.

“The Cabinet at Washington yesterday discussed the Chinese Exclusion Act. It is understood that a decision was arrived at that the law could not be enforced, there being no funds available for the purpose. The Act only carries an appropriation of 100,000 dols. [20,000*l.*], of which amount Mr. Carlisle, Secretary of the Treasury, stated that less than 35,000 dols. [7,000*l.*] remained, adding that it was estimated that to deport all the Chinamen in the country who had not complied with the law would cost

over 5,000,000 dol. [1,000,000L.]—*Reuter.*—*Westminster Gazette*, May 17, 1893.

“ Philadelphia, May 17.

“ The Cabinet has practically decided to take no action regarding the Chinese Exclusion Law before the meeting of Congress, because no adequate fund has been appropriated for its enforcement. The Government will, therefore, wait till the Chinese Minister can send an official copy of the decision of the Supreme Court to Peking and receive instructions in reply, for he will probably do nothing without instructions. There are evidences that the strong current of public opinion in America against enforcing the harsh provisions of the Act is increasing. Counsel for the Chinese Six Companies have sent a telegram to the Treasury Department asking for a suspension of the law. The Washington officials doubt the reports of intended retaliation on the part of the Chinese, as no evidence has been received pointing to any such action.

“ The United States Collector at San Francisco, who has been talking about the decision of the Supreme Court, says that when the deportation begins he proposes to deal first with the criminal and worthless classes. Of these he has a list of 1,000 whom he could send home. The steamer *Empress of China* has sailed from Vancouver for China with 400 Chinese on board, most of whom had been refused admission into the United States.—*Our Correspondent.*” *Times*, May 18, 1893.

Philadelphia, May 19.

“ According to advices from Washington, the Chinese Minister has assured the Secretary of State that he believes the Chinese Government will not retaliate on account of the Exclusion Law; that nothing will be done to disturb friendly relations with the United States; and that no trouble will result from the Act. The United States evidently will not make more than a perfunctory effort to force it.

“ Meanwhile, a strong religious movement is being organized throughout the country to bring pressure to bear on Congress to repeal or modify the law. The Presbyterian General Assembly at Washington has passed a resolution opposing the Act, while the Methodists have appointed May 28 as a day of prayer to secure just treatment for the Chinese in the country, and invite other religious bodies to co-operate.—*Our Correspondent.*” *Times*, May 20, 1893.

“ The *Sun's* Washington correspondent telegraphs that Mr. Ashton, counsel to the Chinese Government, in reply to a question addressed to him regarding the Chinese Ex-

clusion Law, said that China had already informed Mr. Gresham, Secretary of State, that if any steps were taken under the law all relations with China might be considered as terminated, that all Americans in China would be ordered to withdraw, and that all trade between China and the United States would be stopped.—*Reuter.*" *Westminster Gazette*, May 29, 1893.

Whatever may be the extent to which the Chinese Exclusion Acts may have been evaded in practice, it is obvious that the system of restriction which these Acts were framed to carry out is of a character free from much of the difficulty which surrounds the application of the enactments which have been passed in the United States for the regulation and restriction of general immigration. For, in the enforcement of the Chinese Exclusion Acts, only quite a *minimum* of discrimination is required. All that the inspector, when enforcing the anti-Chinese Acts, has to find out is whether a man is or is not a member of the Chinese race, and if so, whether he is or is not a labourer. About the first question no doubt is likely to arise; and although it would appear that a certain number of Chinese persons have succeeded in disguising the fact of their being labourers, yet under all the circumstances of the case, the difficulty of distinguishing between a labourer and a merchant is, at any rate, very appreciably smaller than that which arises when (as is the case under the general immigration laws) it is attempted to ascertain by inspection whether, for example, an immigrant is or is not going to support himself and his family by his own exertions. With respect to the new provisions of the anti-Chinese law of 1892, there can be no question that a process of elimination such as is contemplated by this enactment would, if carried out with thoroughness, form a most effective complement to any system of restrictive measures applied at the threshold. Certainly, in the present instance, the deportation of many thousands of Chinese labourers, which the enforcement of the provisions of the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1892 would bring about, would do very much to remedy the results of any imperfection which may have existed in the methods hitherto adopted for preventing the entrance into the United States of working-men belonging to the prescribed race, and would afford to American labour a degree of protection against unwelcome competition surpassing in efficacy that which it is possible to afford under any system relying entirely upon mere exclusion.

Before bringing my report to a close, I crave leave to express my best thanks to all those officials of the United States Immigration Service who, at so much expense of time and trouble, furnished information necessary for the purposes of the inquiry

which I was instructed to make. In particular, I am deeply indebted to the courtesy of Col. John B. Weber, late Commissioner of Immigration at New York; of Dr. Wheeler, of the Marine Hospital Service, the head of the medical staff at Ellis Island, New York; of Mr. John J. S. Rodgers, Commissioner of Immigration at Philadelphia; and of Mr. Charles A. Colcord, Immigrant Inspector at Boston. I desire to gratefully acknowledge the assistance given to me, in regard to certain points of law touched upon in my report, by Mr. Calderon Carlisle, Counsel to the British Embassy at Washington.

I have, &c.

(Signed) DAVID F. SCHLOSS.

APPENDIX A.

NOTE ON THE STATE OF OPINION IN THE UNITED STATES WITH REFERENCE TO RESTRICTIONS ON IMMIGRATION AND SUMMARY OF THE PROPOSALS ON THE SUBJECT RECENTLY BEFORE CONGRESS.

PART I.

OPINIONS OF STATESMEN, ECONOMISTS, &c.

The opinions in regard to the restriction of immigration held by leading politicians are sufficiently indicated by the proposals made in the various Bills, an abstract of which is given in the second part of this Note. But those who are interested in the subject will find three articles by Senator Chandler, the first ("Consular Certificates for intending Immigrants") in the *Independent*, October 1, 1891; the second ("Methods of Restricting Immigration") in the *Forum*, March, 1892; the third ("Shall Immigration be suspended?") in the *North American Review*, January, 1893. An article in the *North American Review*, February, 1893, by Senator H. C. Hansbrough, entitled "Why Immigration should not be Suspended," discusses the subject mainly from the point of view of quarantine, suggesting that to close the ports would lead to an incursion by the northern land frontier, and advocating consular supervision and inspection.

Among American economists there are some who entertain a deep conviction of the necessity for further restricting the volume of immigration. General Francis A. Walker, President of the Technological Institute at Boston, wrote an article in the *Forum*, August, 1891, under the title of "Immigration and Degradation," in which he contended that the foreigners lived below the American standard of comfort; that the natives were unwilling to compete with the foreigners in the labour market, and that in this manner immigration had "checked the disposition of the native towards the increase of population at the traditional rate." General Walker maintains that the immigrants of the present day are inferior to those of the past, and concludes by urging the suspension, at any rate for a time, of "the indiscriminate hospitality which has thus far been cheerfully exercised." In an article on "Immigration," published in the *Yale Review*, August, 1892, General Walker advocates that for the next ten years a deposit of 20*l.* shall "be required from every alien entering our ports;" "that, in case any person making such deposit shall depart out of the country within three years after the time of such payment, the amount shall be refunded to him; that, at the expiration of such term of three years, the amount of the deposit shall be repaid to every person then remaining in the country, upon the presentation of satisfactory evidence that he is at the time a law-abiding and self-supporting citizen; that no power-of-attorney given, or assignment made, prior to the day when such repayment by law becomes due, shall have any effect to authorize and enable any other person than the immigrant himself to receive such refund, or any part of it; and that no part thereof shall be subject to attachment to satisfy any debt contracted prior to such date." In an interview which the writer had with him, General Walker said that, in his opinion, the main effect of the Contract Labour Law has

been to keep out skilled labour ; but it has not kept out many people of any class, because it is so easy to evade it. The law was a concession to the demands made by the working-class. General Walker does not think there will be further restriction of immigration. If this were to come about, it must come from the masses, especially the working-classes ; and they are rather proud of the country having the door open for foreign refugees. There is little public feeling on the subject, and very little feeling among the working-class against immigration. Everything in this country is spasmodic ; the enforcement of immigration restriction is an example, and the anti-immigration "boom" has pretty well spent itself. There is a vast amount of land for sale in the West and the South, and the owners want foreigners to buy this land. You could put five millions of people, properly proportioned of men, women, and children, in Virginia, North Carolina, West Virginia, Kentucky and Tennessee ; and if you would keep them there at your cost for six months, they would ever afterwards get a good living there, far better than they had ever got in Europe. You could put the five millions in all at once, provided you were willing to support them for the first six months, and the country would then be under-peopled, according to the European standard very greatly under-peopled. If you could get the emigrants on to the land, General Walker would not object to their coming ; but they stick in the big cities. General Walker says that the native increase has been checked because of the increased immigration of foreigners, the natives shrinking from manual labour. This arose when class distinctions were first created, and the first creation of class distinctions was when a new class came, who, unlike the native American, who did manual labour and also brain work, were fit to do manual labour only ; then the better class of people shrank from the conflict with this lower caste. This began when the Irishmen came. The position is that people do not care that they should have more children than can get into skilled professions, and avoid the necessity of their doing manual labour ; just as the native American would not work in gangs with the Irishmen, so now the Irishmen will not work in gangs with the Italians. It is to immigration that the creation of class is due. There was no economic necessity for importing foreigners ; the work which they do could have been done by natives ; thus the Erie Canal was built by native American labour. Up to 10 years ago, when the immigration began to swamp native labour, the trade unions were not required. Labour then more than held its own ; working men lived well in two-storied houses ; capital had to be begged and prayed to open up new industries ; labour then had the upper hand. General Walker's view has always been in favour of proper restrictions by trade unions, though, when his book on the wages question was written, trade unions, were not required for the protection of labour as is the case at this moment. General Walker says that his view on the subject of immigration is largely biological ; the immigrants now coming are bad stock.

Professor Richmond Mayo Smith, Professor of Political Economy and Social Science in Columbia College, New York, whose book, *Emigration and Immigration*, is well known to all students, told the writer that consular inspection of immigrants, of which he approved when he wrote his book, is not generally favoured in the United States. He had advocated a system of mutuality, the Germans and Italians, for instance, should be assisted by the United States to retain intending emigrants liable to military service, and in return should assist the United States to keep out criminals. But public opinion was indignant. This Republic, it was said, would never consent to prop up the despotic military tyrannies of Europe. Professor Mayo Smith thinks that, on

balance, the drift of public opinion in the United States is for the most part opposed to the further restriction of immigration. The West wants men, but the East wants to restrict immigration, because the newcomers stop in the towns. Professor Mayo Smith now sees more difficulty than formerly in the way of consular inspection, and, since the general view is against it, is not prepared to recommend such inspection. Nor is he prepared to advocate any change in the machinery for restricting immigration. But he thinks that the immigrants are coming too fast; and he would like to check the tide by imposing a head tax of 5*l.* (instead of the present head tax of 2*s.*) on each passenger. In all other respects he is satisfied with the existing laws, if properly administered.

Calling on the Hon. Robert P. Porter, Superintendent of the United States Census, I was referred by him to the *Independent* of October 1, 1891, in which he gives his views at length. Mr. Porter there maintains that the character of immigration has undergone a change for the worse, and proposes consular inspection "and, if necessary, the prohibition of immigration from entire districts."

Mr. Brock, the head of the Statistical Bureau of the Treasury Department, in an interview with the writer, said that he would be content if the existing laws were more rigorously applied, and if some amendments were made—in particular, in the direction of regulating the immigration by the Canadian and Mexican borders.

Mr. Carroll D. Wright, the head of the Department of Labour of the United States, declined to express an opinion upon the question of immigration generally, because he has not investigated it. He was of opinion that, whether or not further restrictions will be imposed upon immigration into the United States, will depend upon the character of future immigration. If unsuitable people still come in, then some stringent measures will be taken. With respect to the law against alien contract labour, Mr. Wright said "the practical effect of the working of the contract labour law is to keep out just those elements which would be most valuable to the country, while it lets in just those who are the least desirable."

Mr. Horace Wadlin, head of the Massachusetts Bureau of Labour Statistics, told the writer that he thinks the present law in regard to immigration is sufficiently strong, if properly carried out. Criminals, paupers, and incapable persons ought to be kept out of the country. A few years ago such persons were not rigidly excluded, but if the present laws are thoroughly carried out, they would effect the desired exclusion. Matters in this respect have certainly been better since 1891. It is possible that it may be necessary to institute a further inspection on the European side. Speaking generally, Mr. Wadlin does not think it probable that there will be much further restriction of immigration by fresh legislation. Mr. Wadlin thinks that the great evil which arises from immigration comes from the concentration in certain districts of certain classes of immigration.

Professor Arthur T. Hadley, formerly at the head of the Connecticut Bureau of Labour Statistics, and now Professor of Political Science at Yale University, in an interview with the writer, said that in the Connecticut Labour Report for 1885* he suggested the restriction of immigration as a possible necessity of the immediate future. Since then his views have been somewhat modified. He still believes that the quality of labourers is a more important thing for the country than the increase

* See *First Annual Report (Second Series) of the Bureau of Labour Statistics of the State of Connecticut*, pp. 59-63.

of their numbers ; but much of the existing agitation for the restriction of immigration is connected with ideas whose acceptance would do more to interfere with improvement in quality among the labouring classes than the immigration itself is likely to do. In other words, the opposition to immigration is connected, to a considerable extent, with opposition to improved machinery and to that habit of trying to do a great deal of work which has done so much to make the present position of the American labourer what it is. As to the likelihood of further restriction, Professor Hadley does not expect this to come in the immediate future ; but in connexion with quarantine there might be temporary measures of restriction connected with mistaken notions regarding the best means of preserving the public health.

Dr. Charles W. Eliot, President of Harvard University, has been good enough to write his opinion, which is as follows :—“ I believe every healthy and honest man, woman, or child brought into this country to be an altogether desirable addition to the resources of the United States. Consequently, I think that immigration should not be restricted, except by rules intended to keep out paupers, criminals, and persons afflicted with incurable or contagious diseases. As to the Contract Labour Law, it seems to me a stupid piece of demagogic barbarism. The more skilled labourers that can be brought to the United States the better for the country. More labourers, skilled and unskilled, are just what this half-occupied continent needs.”

Professor Taussig, Professor of Political Economy in Harvard University, told the writer that he thinks the contract labour law bad in principle ; and that, so far as he knows, it works badly. He thinks it wrong to discourage a man from securing his position before he comes here. The law is easily evaded by tacit agreements concealed from view, especially by those who form the least desirable addition to the population of the United States. As to restriction of immigration generally Professor Taussig did not wish to express any opinion, not having his mind made up so as to express definite views.

Professor Peabody, Plummer Professor of Morals in Harvard University, informed the writer that, in his opinion, the public in the United States has not yet got a sufficient basis of facts ascertained with scientific precision to enable it to found thereon a scheme of further legislation in the direction of restricting immigration. As to what future legislation of this character there will be it is not possible to frame a forecast. Probably there will be no further restrictions, unless there arises some kind of panic. In that case there would be further restriction. Everything in this country is done spasmodically.

Professor Edmund F. James, Professor in the School of Finance, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, said that very few people indeed take an interest in the immigration question, except quite spasmodically. He himself, while not believing that the immigration has caused want of employment, would like to see the number of immigrants reduced to 100,000 annually. The huge influx at present taking place makes the formation of a distinctive national character impossible, and has bad effects politically. But he does not know what are the precise changes in the law, which would be required in order to bring about the decrease in immigration desired by him.

Mr. Edward Atkinson, whose writings on economic questions are well known, presented in the *Forum*, May, 1892, his view of the immigration question in an article, the drift of which will be gathered from its title, “ Incalculable room for Immigrants.” To Mr. Atkinson, “ it seems almost pusillanimous to refuse a refuge to the oppressed and to the industrious and capable, for fear that the institutions of this

“ country may suffer. If we cannot deal with one half of this great continent, of which the resources are as yet hardly even known, will not this prove that our capacity is not yet equal to our opportunities? Boast as we may of what we have accomplished, we shall no longer be able to justify by our conduct of affairs the methods which were established by our predecessors.”

In the *North American Review*, April, 1892, there is an article by Mr. Charles Stewart Smith, President of the New York Chamber of Commerce, in which it is urged that all intending immigrants over 15 years of age ought to be required, “as a condition before embarking for the United States, to appear before the American consul and receive from him a certificate, to be presented on arrival, that the party intending to emigrate to the United States could read and write his native language.” Mr. Smith adds, “I hold that existing laws, properly enforced, with an amendment embracing the reading and writing qualification above indicated, would protect society from the evils connected with immigration, and would insure to us the immense benefits arising from the enormous human stream which must continue to flow to this country.”

At an interview which the writer had with Mr. Abraham Hewitt, that gentleman, who is a large iron-master, and was formerly mayor of New York City, said that, when in Congress as a senator, he had voted against the contract labour law. In his opinion the general view in the United States at this moment is that legislation should be confined to keeping out the incapable.

The Rev. Edward Everett Hale, a writer of repute, in an article in the *Social Economist*, February, 1893, entitled, “How to deal, with our Immigrants,” states that he was at the head of a committee which, through an agent in Manchester, imported girls to be employed as domestic servants. The agent “engaged them with the understanding that they were to receive two dollars (8s.) a week for the first six months of their service. It was also understood that the employer should pay 45 dollars (9l.) of this in advance, in order that their passage might be paid to Boston, and that they might be sent each to the particular home where she was to work. The girl, when she engaged herself in Manchester signed a document promising to work for six months on these terms.” Mr. Hale says, “I conceive it to be a great mistake that the statute prohibiting contracts for labour abroad should break up any such arrangement as this.”

As showing the views held by those connected with the transportation of immigrants may be instanced an article in the *Forum*, Feb., 1893, (“A Practical Remedy for Evils of Immigration,”) by Mr. Gustav H. Schwab. Mr. Schwab, who is a member of Messrs. Oelrichs & Co., agents at New York for the North German Lloyd Steamship Line, is opposed to consular certification, which he thinks would not achieve its object, and maintains that “the regulation and sifting of immigration can most steadily and efficaciously be carried out through the steamship companies, and their agents in Europe. . . . A formula should be prescribed by the United States Government for the examination of intending immigrants by the agent in Europe, and the immigrant should be required to answer satisfactorily questions that will prove his right to admission upon landing in this country. He should be warned that, in case the answers he gives should prove incorrect upon further information or examination on arrival here, he will be returned; and he might be required, upon arrival here, to swear to the answers he has given if his case appears doubtful. A requirement of this kind, with the prospect of punishment for perjury, would undoubtedly operate as a wholesome deterrent.” Mr. Schwab advocates

that "in case it should appear that the status of the immigrant was "incorrectly given, the steamship company should be obliged to return "him"; and "in case any wilful violation of the regulations on the "part of the agent or connivance with the immigrant is shown, the "steamship company would be liable to a fine or penalty." In either case Mr. Schwab supposes that the steamship company would hold the agent liable. He thinks that "the term during which immigrants, who, "after landing in this country, become burdens upon the public, or are "discovered to belong to the interdicted classes, can be returned should "be extended," so as to cover "such period as may seem proper to "protect our poor-houses, insane asylums and other institutions." Another exponent of the opinions of the shipping interest, Mr. Emil L. Boas, the New York representative of the Hamburg-American Line, in *Steam and Sail*, April 23, 1893, urges that immigration adds to the wealth of the country, and has not lowered wages, while he thinks that the present restrictive laws are in every respect adequate to keep out undesirable immigrants.

The amendments in the existing immigration laws which are advocated by Colonel Weber (the late Commissioner of Immigration at New York) as set forth in his address delivered at the Cooper Union, New York, in January 1893, and repeated in his paper read before a congress at the Chicago Exhibition, on June 12, 1893, are as follows:—

"The plan that I would suggest is that laid down in Dr. Kempster's, and my Report referred to, from which I have seen no reason to deviate in its general features, except to add a clause vesting in the President the power to suspend immigration temporarily in the case of threatened pestilence, and possibly an educational qualification; the Report having been written before the outbreak of the typhus and cholera of last year, and before illiteracy statistics were kept at the Immigration Bureau. I would hold the sub-agents of steamship companies, of whom there are many thousands scattered over Europe, responsible for the sale of a ticket to a prohibited person, reaching him not directly by our law, for that is impossible, but striking at his pocket through the steamship agencies or companies in this country; compelling him to pay the return passage of a defective immigrant and levying a fine in each instance in addition, if necessary; or in other words, imposing a penalty, which in a single case would wipe out the commissions received in a great many.

As one of the details of this plan, I would have each intending emigrant, when he applies for a ticket, sign and swear to a duplicate statement covering all necessary points, one copy to be sent through the steamship agents to the Inspection Bureau in the United States, retaining the other for personal presentation by the immigrant upon arrival, and which would answer as a descriptive list showing precisely what he had sworn to upon purchasing his ticket. I would continue a rigid inspection here, and besides hold every alien immigrant, after landing, subject to compulsory deportation, in the discretion of the courts, whenever he develops into pauperism or criminality, and until he had assumed the burdens and acquired the privileges of citizenship; or, in other words, I would have him passing through the Immigration Bureau continuously until he became a citizen."

OPINIONS OF WORKING-MEN.

With respect to the opinions on restriction of immigration entertained by working-men, Mr. Burnett has prepared the following note:—

Opinions of
working-men,
by Mr. Burnett.

Mr. Samuel Gompers, President of the American Federation of Labour, is in favour of certain modified forms of restricting immi-

gration. The methods he proposes are indirect. He is in favour of compelling steamship companies to provide better accommodation for their immigrant passengers. This will naturally have the effect of raising the cost of transit and would thus restrict immigration. The accommodation he suggests should be at least as good as that provided for what are termed "intermediates" or second-class passengers. He does not believe in a system of consular inspection in Europe, or the granting of a certificate to those who may be considered satisfactory, because he fears such a method will limit, if not destroy, the right of political asylum. The sub-agents of shipping companies should be held responsible for certifying the emigrants they send. In case of a false certificate the immigrants should be sent back and the agent disqualified by means of refusal of any further emigrants sent by him.

Mr. P. J. M'Guire, General Secretary of the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners, is of opinion that the bulk of the members of that organization are in favour of some form of restriction, but are undecided as to what shape such restriction should take. Some are in favour of an educational test; others are for a head-tax; others would entirely prohibit immigration from certain countries such as Russia, Poland, and Hungary; whilst others would also prohibit the Italians.

Mr. Linahan, President of the Chicago Trades and Labour Assembly, speaking on behalf of that body says generally that some process of selection of suitable immigrants should be adopted.

Mr. Frank Foster, of the Boston Central Labour Union, is opposed to restriction, because in his opinion it would prevent the admission of men from Europe who belong to international trade unions.

On the other hand Mr. Abraham, secretary of the same body, thinks that immigration has now become excessive, and in the case of some nationalities ought to be prohibited entirely.

Mr. George M'Neil, another of the leaders of the labour movement in Boston, is in favour of restriction and would suspend immigration entirely for some time.

Mr. T. W. Powderly, General Master-workman of the Knights of Labour, is strongly in favour of restriction. In his opinion it is desirable to fix a term of years, during which no immigrant should be permitted to land unless he can show that he has sufficient means to maintain himself and those dependent on him for one year.

GENERAL CONCLUSIONS.

The general impression which I derived from conversation with persons whom I met in the course of my stay in the United States was this. The subject of the restriction of immigration has agitated the public mind in the United States for many years. The question has been very exhaustively investigated on five principal (in addition to several minor) occasions by Committees of the Legislature—by the "Ford Committee" of 1888, the "Owen Committee" and the "Lehlbach Committee" (on Chinese immigration), both of which made a report in 1891, the "Stump Committee," which reported in 1892, and the "Chandler Committee" which made its report early in the present year (1893). The legislation which has recently been adopted (the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1892, and the new immigration law of 1893) may fairly be taken to represent the extent to which the United States, as at present advised, is prepared to go in the direction of restricting immigration. The East finds some of its

cities, especially those upon the sea-board, inconveniently crowded with newly-arrived foreigners, and is inclined to check the flood of immigration. The West is disposed to welcome a considerable accession of new comers, for whom it is able to find employment. The South is convinced that its prosperity would be greatly increased by an extensive immigration.* The net result of these conflicting views, entertained by different sections of voters, is, that it is, on the whole, unlikely that any very stringent measures in restriction of immigration will, for the present at any rate, be passed by Congress. At the same time, a careful eye will be kept upon the administration of the existing laws. The Senate, in the spring of the present year (1893), passed a resolution instructing the Immigration Committee to inquire into the condition and character of alien immigrants coming into the United States, and whether the laws against the introduction of contract labour are properly enforced, as well as to inquire into the execution of the immigration laws. This inquiry is being carried on; and if, as the result of this investigation, amendments are seen to be required, these will be proposed, and no doubt, passed; and if cholera were to break out in the United States, there can be no question that the most stringent measures for restricting or for prohibiting, for a time at least, the immigration of aliens would, in all probability, be advocated with every chance of success.

PART II.

BILLS RECENTLY BEFORE CONGRESS.

It will be proper to indicate by a brief analysis the nature of the various proposals for legislation in respect to the restriction of immigration made during the last two sessions of Congress. Some of the Bills in question approached the subject primarily from the point of view of quarantine. Thus, Mr. Gallinger brought into the Senate a Bill enabling the President, whenever it should be shown to his satisfaction "that by reason of the existence of cholera in a foreign country "there is danger of the introduction of the disease into the United States, and that, notwithstanding the quarantine defence, this danger "is so increased by immigration that a suspension of the same is demanded in the interests of public health," to suspend by proclamation "immigration from such country or place, and for such period of time "as he may deem necessary."† Two Bills brought into the House of Representatives by Mr. Brosius provided for the establishment of a new Federal system of quarantine, and proposed to enact that pending its establishment all immigration from European and Asiatic countries should be suspended for one year. Two Bills on this subject were introduced into the House of Representatives by Mr. Stump, who proposed that "from and after the first day of March, eighteen hundred and "ninety-three, and until otherwise directed by the Secretary of the "Treasury, no alien immigrant shall be permitted to land at any port "in the United States who has not been quarantined at the port of departure for at least seven days immediately preceding the day of em-

* In April 1893, a Convention of the Governors of the Southern States was held at Richmond, Va., "to stimulate immigration into the South"; see also the article on "Our need of Immigrants" in the *Manufacturers' Record* (Baltimore) Feb. 10, 1893, and that on "Immigrant's Opportunities in Georgia," in the *Southern States* (Baltimore) March 1893, both from the pen of Mr. C. J. Haden.

† Compare the provisions of the new Quarantine Law of Feb. 15, 1893, *ante*, p. 50.

“barkation,” and that power should be given to the Secretary of the Treasury, with the approval of the President, “whenever in his judgment the public safety shall require it, or in case the quarantine regulations at home and abroad are found insufficient to afford full and ample protection against the introduction of cholera, or any dangerous, contagious, or infectious disease into the United States, to restrict, suspend, or prohibit immigration, and to exclude all alien immigrants from any designated foreign port, or from any country or locality, whether such immigration be by water or land, for such length of time as he may deem proper.”

Mr. Peffer introduced into the Senate a Bill providing for the examination of intending emigrants by the consuls of the United States, who were to certify as to their eligibility under the Act, the certificate to give the holder full right to enter the United States. The Bill defines the classes of persons who are to be ineligible as immigrants, including “all manual labourers, including clerks, salesmen, master mechanics, and the like, who do not intend to renounce allegiance to the Government of the country of which they are citizens or subjects, and become citizens of the United States.” Mr. Chandler brought into the Senate five different Bills. The first of these Bills provided for consular certificates being obtained by immigrants before departure testifying to their having (after inquiry) been found to be eligible for admission into the United States. Mr. Chandler’s second Bill proposed to check the volume of immigration by imposing upon the owners of vessels bringing emigrants to the United States from any place abroad more than two thousand miles from the United States certain stringent conditions as to the amount of cubic air-space to be provided and otherwise, and proposed to enact that “no steerage or third-class passengers shall be landed in the United States from any steamer in the Trans-atlantic passenger trade.” In his third Bill Mr. Chandler proposed to suspend “the admission of alien emigrants for settlement or residence” for one year, except in the case of persons “coming from American countries who were citizens thereof and actually resident therein for not less than one year before their departures.” His fourth Bill added to the classes already prohibited as immigrants persons unable to read and write, persons not provided with money enough to support them for two months after arrival, “not to exceed \$100 [20*l.*] for each single person or head of a family, and \$25 [5*l.*] for each member of a family accompanying or sent for by” the head of the family; also “persons blind or crippled, or otherwise physically imperfect, so that they are wholly or partially disabled from manual labour, unless it is affirmatively and satisfactorily shown on special inquiry that such persons are sure of an abundant support, and not likely to become a public charge”; lastly “persons belonging to societies which favour or justify the unlawful and criminal destruction of property or life.” This Bill also made provision for consular inquiry and certification (the certificate not to give the right to admission into the United States); and went on to limit the number of immigrants to be brought by any vessel by doubling the amount of cubic air-space per passenger previously required, and to make other requirements as to the accommodation to be provided for passengers. Mr. Chandler’s fifth Bill omits the requirement that immigrants, in order to be admissible, shall possess money enough to support them for two months, but is otherwise similar to his fourth proposal.

In the House of Representatives Mr. Stump introduced (in addition to the two quarantine Bills already mentioned) two other Bills, the first of which was almost identical with the first Bill of Mr. Chandler above

mentioned, while the second Bill was, in the main, identical with the new immigration law of March 3, 1893.

Mr. Oates brought into the House of Representatives a Bill, the leading features of which were that it added to the prescribed classes of immigrants "anarchists," and made it a misdemeanour punishable by fine or by imprisonment, or by both fine and imprisonment for an alien to come or for any person to bring or assist in bringing an alien into the United States in violation of the law. Any alien coming into the United States in violation of law might be returned within two years thereafter at the cost of the company which brought him, or, if not, at that of the United States. The Bill of Mr. Oates proposed to limit the volume of immigration by enacting that no vessel bringing passengers from any foreign port should "transport at one voyage more than in the proportion of one passenger to every five registered tons of such vessel," and by imposing a head-tax of 1*l.* for each alien passenger brought in by sea or land. This Bill also proposed to establish a system of consular inquiry into the eligibility of immigrants, to take place at least three months prior to embarkation; the consul was to give a certificate which, however, was not to be conclusive proof of the right of the holder to admission into the United States. This Bill further contained certain provisions as to the inspection of immigrants.

The Bill introduced into the House of Representatives by Mr. Geary included in the prescribed categories both "anarchists" and "socialists." To offer employment through advertisements abroad or to come to the United States in consequence of such an advertisement was to be deemed a violation of the contract labour law. It was to be a misdemeanour punishable by fine or imprisonment or both to bring to the United States any alien not lawfully entitled to admission. Provision was made for consular certification of intending emigrants (to take place at least three months prior to embarkation); the immigrants were to receive their certificates only upon their signing an agreement that if the holder "shall within five years after landing in the United States be convicted of any felony or other infamous crime or misdemeanour involving moral turpitude, or shall become a public charge by reason of causes existing prior to his arrival in the United States . . . on demand by the proper authorities he shall voluntarily depart from said United States." But this certificate was not to be conclusive evidence of the right of the holder to enter the United States. Other clauses relate to the inspection of immigrants; declare that "the writ of *habeas corpus* shall not be issued by any court of the United States in behalf of any persons detained by the collector of customs under this Act, or whose right to land has been decided adversely to such person by the collector of customs, unless such person shall on oath depose in his petition for such writ of *habeas corpus* that he is a citizen of the United States of America, or has prior to his then arrival in the United States legally declared his intention to become a citizen of the United States;" and impose a head tax of 1*l.* on each alien coming into the United States. This Bill also provided that any alien who shall come into the United States in violation of law may be returned, as by law provided, at any time within five years thereafter, at the expense of the person or persons, vessel, transportation company, or corporation bringing such alien into the United States; and, if that cannot be done, then at the expense of the United States; and any alien who becomes a public charge within five years after his arrival in the United States from causes existing prior to his landing therein shall be deemed to have come in violation of law, and shall be returned as aforesaid. And

“ any alien who, within five years after his arrival in the United States, shall be convicted in any court of record of the United States, or of any state or territory, or the district of Columbia, of any felony, or other infamous crime or misdemeanour involving moral turpitude, shall be deemed to have come in violation of law, and shall, on the expiration of his term of imprisonment, if imprisoned, and if not, then as soon after such conviction as possible, be arrested by the United States marshal and returned to the country from whence he came, the expenses of such return to be paid by the United States out of the immigration fund. And if any country to which any person is returned, under the provisions of this section, shall refuse to receive such persons, then the President of the United States shall, on being advised of such action on the part of such foreign country, issue his proclamation prohibiting all immigration from such country until it allows such person to be returned.” It was further provided that no proceedings for violation of the Contract Labour Law of 1885, or of this proposed Act, should “ be settled, compromised, or discontinued without the consent of the court, entered of record with reasons therefor.”

Mr. Lodge brought into the House of Representatives a Bill requiring consular certification in all cases; the list of prescribed classes of immigrants was to be extended so as to exclude any person who is an “ anarchist or nihilist, or who is hostile to the form of Government or Constitution of the United States.” The consular certificate (which must be applied for at least three months before embarkation) is to set forth the eligibility of the holder, that he or she “ is a person of good character and reputation; that he or she receives no assistance, either charitable or otherwise, to enable him or her to emigrate; that he or she is self-supporting, and if he or she has a dependent family, is capable of supporting such family. Said certificate shall also certify that the holder, if over 12 years of age can, to the personal knowledge of the consul or diplomatic representative signing such certificate, both read and write his or her native language and can read the Constitution of the United States either in English or in the native language of the said holder of such certificate. Such certificate shall also certify that the holder is physically and mentally sound, in good health, and free from disease or deformity as certified by a physician in good and regular standing known to the consular or diplomatic representatives with whom such medical certificates shall be filed.” The consul is to inquire into the character of the applicant for a certificate and to “ require proof as to all the facts certified to.” On his arrival in the United States the immigrant is to be again examined in order to see that he can read and write, and is physically and mentally sound. Other provisions relate to the inspection of immigrants; impose a head-tax of 1*l.* for each immigrant, and restrict the number of passengers to one for every five registered tons of the vessel. It is made a misdemeanour, punishable by a fine of 200*l.* in each case, to bring in an alien unprovided with a certificate. An immigrant must, at any time within 12 months of his arrival, justify his presence in the country by producing his certificate; if he fail to do this, he is to be fined and sent back.

Another Bill, introduced into the House of Representatives by Mr. William A. Stone, proposed to enact that whenever any alien desires to migrate to the United States he or she shall apply to the representative of the United States nearest his or her residence, and shall testify on oath “ the reason of his or her desire to become a citizen of the United States, his or her trade or occupation, age, state of health, and

" whether he or she is the owner of real or personal estate, and of what
 " value. And such applicant shall also file at the time a passport of
 " recent date from the Government to which such applicant belongs
 " granting permission to migrate, and also a certificate from the chief
 " officer or minister of police of the place where such applicant resides,
 " certifying that he or she is under no charge of crime or violation of
 " law, and has not been for the period of five years. The said repre-
 " sentative shall, upon receipt of such application, passport, and certi-
 " ficate, if they appear to be correct, fix a day when such application
 " will be heard, not less than thirty days from the receipt of such
 " application. Notice of such application and hearing, together with a
 " full description of the applicant, the name, age, place of birth, present
 " and previous residence, occupation, and so forth, as given, shall be
 " sent to the state or foreign office of the Government to which the
 " applicant belongs, and to the chief officer or minister of police where
 " the applicant then resides, at least twenty days before the said hearing.
 " The said representative shall subpoena and examine such witnesses at
 " the hearing as shall enable him to determine whether the application
 " signed and sworn to by the applicant is true, and whether the appli-
 " cant is a fit subject to become a citizen and resident of this country,
 " and if said representative shall find said applicant be a fit and proper
 " person to become a resident and citizen of this country, under the pro-
 " visions of this Act, he shall, upon the payment of twenty dollars [47.],
 " for the purpose of defraying the expense of said investigation, issue
 " and deliver to the applicant, under his official seal, a permit which
 " shall enable the applicant to embark at any time within the period of
 " ninety days, after thirty days from the date thereof, and which shall
 " recite that the applicant has been examined and found worthy to
 " become a citizen and resident of the United States, and which permit
 " shall contain a complete and accurate description of the person to
 " whom it is issued. But if it shall appear on said investigation that
 " said applicant is an idiot, or so weak-minded as to be unable to pro-
 " vide for himself or herself, or insane, or a pauper, or a dependent
 " person, or likely to become such, or a person suffering from any sick-
 " ness, disease, or other disability, physical or mental, or that he or she
 " has been convicted of any crime or felony, or any misdemeanour
 " involving moral turpitude, or of any crime or misdemeanour against
 " the Government from which he or she desires to migrate, or any
 " other Government, or that he or she has been engaged in any plot or
 " unlawful scheme against any Government or any of its officers, or
 " that he or she is or has been a member of any society of a secret
 " character, which approves the use of unlawful means against any
 " Government or its officers, or against any individual, or that he
 " or she is a member of any secret society, party, or organization
 " whose constitution or compact is contrary to the constitution and
 " laws of the United States, or if he or she is a polygamist, or if he
 " or she has entered into any contract or agreement to labour in
 " this country, express or implied, or is coming here at the request of
 " any labour or employment agent, or if the Government having juris-
 " diction over such applicant shall object to his or her leaving the
 " country, or if it shall appear that such applicant has not the means
 " or expectation through some relative, or otherwise, of support for at
 " least one year after he or she reaches this country, or if it appears
 " that such applicant is of bad moral character, or that the applicant, if
 " a male, is over fifty-five years of age, or if a female, over fifty years of
 " age, such permit shall be refused by such representative (unless it
 " appears that such applicant, if over the specified age, and otherwise

“ eligible, has reasonable expectations of support through some child already in this country), and any money paid by such applicant on account of his or her application to the United States, or to any of its officers, shall be refunded.” The permits to be given under this Act are, unless obtained by fraud, to be conclusive evidence of the holder's right to enter the United States. If an immigrant is brought without a permit, then “ any officer, employee, or person interested in ” the vessel bringing him, if acting knowingly, are to be fined; the owners of the vessel are also to be fined; so, too, are any persons aiding or contributing to the landing of an immigrant not provided with a permit. It is further provided that “ any alien immigrant who shall first come to this country by water, after the passage of this Act, without a permit as aforesaid, may be arrested at any time within five years after his arrival here, by warrant issued by a United States commissioner, and upon hearing and trial in the United States district or circuit court, and conviction, he or she shall be returned to the country from which he or she came, at the expense and in the custody of the steamship company, line, or vessel that brought him or her here, if practicable, and if not, at the expense of the United States, and the expense of the arrest, trial, and return shall be borne by such vessel, or line, or company, to be recovered by attachment or libel against any vessel or property of such steamship line or company, or vessel, at the instance of the United States attorney of the court having jurisdiction.” The Act is to apply “ to all alien immigrants who shall first come by water to some other country bordering upon the United States, and then seek to enter the United States therefrom ; ” but is not to apply “ to children under sixteen years of age coming with their parents or other relatives, or to persons who come as travellers or visitors on passports issued by their respective countries, granting leave of absence or permission to be absent for a given period of time, or to persons having property or capital invested in this country requiring their presence here, who shall be furnished a special permit by the United States representative on satisfactory evidence of their investments in this country. Persons coming as travellers or visitors on passports who shall engage in business of any kind, or perform labour of any kind, shall forfeit their privileges as travellers or visitors, and be subject to arrest and return to their country as alien immigrants without permits.”

Mr. Washburn brought into the Senate a Bill increasing the head-tax on passengers from 2s. to 4s. and providing that in the case of all vessels bringing alien passengers to the United States from foreign ports distant more than 2,000 miles from the States “ the owner, master, agent, or consignee of such vessel shall deliver for each such vessel to the collector of the port of arrival, or if there be no collector at such port, then to the nearest collector of customs, a bond with sureties in the penal sum of not less than \$50,000 [10,000L.],” conditional for the return by him of any alien immigrants brought by such vessel and found within two years from their arrival to have come in violation of the law, or to have become a public charge. Further, each adult male immigrant, each adult female immigrant unaccompanied by her husband or parent, and each minor unaccompanied by parent or guardian is to make a declaration on oath before a consular officer of the United States, or before one of the Commissioners of Immigration, or one of the Immigrant Inspectors to be appointed under the Act specifying a great number of particulars in relation to the deponent, including—“ Fifth. Whether or not the

“immigrants named in such sworn declaration are of good moral character.” This provision was to apply also to European or Asiatic immigrants, who within five years of their arrival in Canada or Mexico should seek thence to enter the United States. This Bill gave power to the Secretary of the Treasury to appoint one commissioner of emigration and a suitable number of immigrant inspectors for each of the twelve ports of Europe from which the greatest number of alien immigrants have come to the United States during recent years, and also “to appoint and employ a sufficient number of assistant surgeons of the Marine Hospital service, so that one such officer shall sail on each steamship leaving any principal port of Europe for any port of the United States, and having on board not less than one hundred steerage and second-cabin passengers.” The Secretary of the Treasury was directed to advertise in European newspapers “a brief abstract of those provisions of the laws of the United States which define the classes of aliens whose landing therein is prohibited, and the penalty for presenting a false declaration.”

A Bill introduced in the Senate by Mr. Quay is, in the main, identical with that brought into the House of Representatives by Mr. Stone, which has been already described.

Mr. Beltzhoover introduced in the House of Representatives a Bill which proposed that every intending emigrant should, prior to his departure, make an affidavit before the consul or diplomatic representative of the United States resident at or nearest to his place of residence, “That his removal to the United States is with the *bonâ fide* intention of residing there permanently and becoming a citizen thereof,” and added to the ineligible classes that of “anarchists.” Mr. Beltzhoover’s Bill also provided that “any alien (except idiots and lunatics) who shall come into the United States in violation of any of the provisions of this Act or other laws of the United States, or who shall bring, aid, or assist in bringing into the United States any alien, including idiots and lunatics, contrary to the provisions of this Act, shall be guilty of a misdemeanour, and, if prosecuted within two years thereafter, shall, upon conviction, be fined for each such person who comes, is brought, or assisted, not exceeding one thousand dollars [200 ℓ .], and may be imprisoned or sentenced to hard labour for not more than three years, one or both, at the discretion of the court trying the case; but any such person who is called and testifies as a witness for the United States shall not be prosecuted for such offence; and any alien who shall come into the United States in violation of law may be returned at any time within two years thereafter, at the expense of the vessel or transportation company, whether by land or water, by whose line such person was brought into the United States, and if that cannot be done, then at the expense of the United States; and any vessel refusing to return any such rejected person shall not receive clearance papers from any port of the United States while thus refusing.” This Bill proposed to restrict the volume of immigration by enacting “that no vessel which brings passengers to any of the ports of the United States from any foreign port shall transport at one voyage more than in the proportion of one passenger to every five registered tons of such vessel, not including children under the age of one year in the computation, and computing two children over one year and under eight years of age as one passenger; and any vessel which violates this section shall be fined by the collector of customs, or by any United States court having jurisdiction, not exceeding five hundred dollars [100 ℓ .] for every passenger brought in excess of the limit herein

“prescribed.” Mr. Beltzhoover further proposed that “any alien who desires to emigrate to the United States, to reside therein or to become a citizen thereof, may apply to a consul or diplomatic representative of the United States” for a certificate of emigration to be given after inquiry; but this document is not to be conclusive evidence of the holder’s right to be admitted into the United States. This Bill also contained provisions as to the inspection of immigrants.

A Bill, which had already passed the Senate, was referred to the Select Committee on Immigration and Naturalization on January 6, 1893, and was reported next day with an amendment; as so amended this Bill was identical with the new law of March 3, 1893, except that it contained the following additional provisions: “That section one of the Act of March third, eighteen hundred and ninety-one, in amendment of the immigration and contract labour Acts, be, and hereby is, amended by adding to the classes of aliens thereby excluded from admission into the United States the following:—

“All persons physically capable and over sixteen years of age who cannot read and write with reasonable facility their own language, except that an aged person not so able to read and write who is the parent or grandparent of an admissible immigrant may accompany or be sent for by such immigrant.

“Persons blind or crippled, or otherwise physically imperfect, so that they are wholly or partially disabled from manual labour, unless it is affirmatively and satisfactorily shown on special inquiry that such persons are sure of an abundant support and not likely to become a public charge.

“Persons belonging to any society or organization which sanctions or justifies the unlawful destruction of life or property.”

On Feb. 13, 1893, Mr. Greenleaf introduced in the House of Representatives a Bill, by which it was proposed to enact that the United States should “obtain permission from European Powers to locate United States emigration agents in their respective countries”; that no agents should “be located in the non-European provinces belonging to legitimate European Governments, and no emigration from such provinces shall be allowed to enter the United States of America; that any Government refusing permission to locate these emigration agents shall forfeit the entire right of emigration, on the part of its citizens, to the United States of America.” These emigration agents are to have power to grant or deny a certificate of emigration; but shall not grant a certificate “to persons who are prevented from landing under our present laws; nor shall a certificate be granted to persons who are known in their respective localities as immoral in character, or to persons having been convicted and punished, or imprisoned for crimes, except such political crimes as are provided for in the treaties.” It is further provided “that each adult, having received the necessary permission from his own Government to emigrate to the United States of America, shall produce the certificate from the United States agent of emigration, to be inspected by the United States Consul at port of embarkation; and this certificate shall be countersigned by the United States authorities at ports, both of embarkation and entry; that the landing at any United States port of all adult immigrants, not in possession of such certificates, shall be considered a violation of our immigration laws; and any steam or sailing vessel bringing over such immigrants shall be compelled to return them to place of embarkation; that all immigrants from European countries where the passport system is employed shall be debarred from entering the United States of America, if such

“immigrants seek entrance through British or Spanish possessions in America, or through Mexico”; and, in the last place, “that every adult immigrant to the United States of America, from the United Kingdom of Great Britain, or from any British colony or possession in America, or from any Spanish possession in America, or from Mexico, shall not be permitted to enter the United States of America, unless provided with a certificate under the seal of the home Government, showing a citizenship of not less than five years, and testifying as to the good character of the immigrant.”

The extent to which the various proposals here set forth were, in the end, adopted will be seen by a reference to the terms of the new immigration law of March 3, 1893, Appendix D., *post*, pp. 142-144.

APPENDIX B.

STATISTICAL TABLES.

TABLE I.—(NEW YORK.)

STATEMENT showing the Nativity, Sex, and Age of Alien Steerage Passengers who arrived at the Port of New York, from 1st January to 31st December 1892, inclusive.

Nativity.	Sex.			Age.			
	Males.	Fe- males.	Total.	Under 15 Years.	15 Years and under 40.	40 Years and over.	Total.
Ireland - - - -	15,517	14,727	30,044	2,632	25,568	1,844	30,044
England - - - -	11,515	5,947	17,262	3,500	11,963	1,794	17,262
Wales - - - -	355	205	560	122	382	56	500
Scotland - - - -	2,541	1,344	3,885	751	2,902	332	3,885
Germany - - - -	39,704	28,492	68,196	15,091	46,216	6,899	68,196
France - - - -	1,982	1,269	3,251	549	2,315	387	3,251
Russia - - - -	20,730	12,829	33,559	9,131	21,231	3,197	33,559
Poland - - - -	15,149	6,916	22,065	4,332	15,090	1,903	22,065
Switzerland - - - -	3,777	2,164	5,941	934	4,502	505	5,941
Sweden - - - -	19,233	12,617	31,850	4,642	24,871	2,337	31,850
Norway - - - -	7,947	4,800	12,807	1,936	9,721	1,150	12,807
Belgium - - - -	2,049	1,074	3,123	814	1,944	365	3,123
Holland - - - -	3,481	2,506	5,987	2,910	3,246	731	5,987
Italy - - - -	44,745	13,050	57,795	8,847	41,035	7,913	57,795
Spain - - - -	126	28	154	13	131	10	154
Portugal - - - -	1,436	905	2,341	377	1,686	278	2,341
Denmark - - - -	5,228	3,333	8,561	1,690	6,244	627	8,561
Hungary - - - -	21,180	7,305	28,485	3,090	22,438	2,957	28,485
Austria - - - -	16,509	6,699	23,298	3,107	17,651	2,450	23,298
Bohemia - - - -	3,036	2,154	5,190	1,218	3,433	539	5,190
Finland - - - -	3,697	1,716	5,413	639	4,346	428	5,413
Armenia - - - -	846	18	864	21	808	35	864
Australia - - - -	7	6	13	—	13	—	13
Turkey - - - -	134	62	196	46	127	23	196
Greece - - - -	493	8	501	59	408	34	501
All Other Countries - - - -	2,251	1,239	3,490	694	2,455	341	3,490
Totals - - - -	243,288	131,473	374,741	66,295	271,231	37,215	374,741

TABLE II.—(NEW YORK.)

STATEMENT showing the Number and Nativity of Alien Steerage Passengers debarred for various causes from landing at the Port of New York, from 1st January to 31st December 1892, inclusive; also Number and Nativity of those returned (during 1892) within one year of landing from causes existing prior to landing.

Nativity.	Debarred from Landing.							Returned within one Year of Landing.			
	Convicts.	Insane.	Idiots.	Li-able to become Public Charge.	Contract Labourers.	Diseased Persons.	Total.	Public Charge.	Insane.	Diseased Persons.	Total.
Ireland - - -	—	1	—	69	3	3	76	50	7	—	57
England - - -	1	—	—	51	21	—	73	28	2	—	30
Wales - - -	—	—	—	3	—	—	3	2	—	—	2
Scotland - - -	—	—	—	10	4	—	14	7	3	—	10
Germany - - -	—	2	2	161	17	10	192	75	9	—	84
France - - -	—	1	—	13	10	3	27	2	—	—	2
Russia - - -	—	—	—	254	77	15	346	51	11	—	62
Poland - - -	—	—	—	8	4	4	16	6	1	—	7
Switzerland - - -	—	—	—	7	4	—	11	2	—	—	2
Sweden - - -	—	—	—	20	30	1	51	8	2	—	10
Norway - - -	—	—	—	9	3	2	14	4	—	—	4
Belgium - - -	—	—	—	12	2	1	15	1	—	—	1
Holland - - -	—	—	—	9	—	7	16	1	—	—	1
Italy - - -	26	—	—	132	483	14	655	80	9	10	99
Spain - - -	—	—	—	2	—	—	2	—	—	—	—
Portugal - - -	—	—	—	2	—	—	2	—	—	—	—
Denmark - - -	—	—	—	14	—	—	14	6	1	—	7
Hungary - - -	—	—	—	23	111	1	135	20	1	—	21
Austria - - -	—	—	—	88	304	12	404	24	2	—	26
Bohemia - - -	—	—	—	3	3	—	6	4	1	—	5
Finland - - -	—	—	—	9	15	—	24	—	—	—	—
Armenia - - -	—	—	—	6	—	2	8	—	—	—	—
Turkey - - -	—	—	—	1	—	—	1	—	—	—	—
Greece - - -	—	—	—	8	—	1	9	5	—	3	7
All Other Countries - - -	—	—	—	18	1	4	23	—	—	—	—
Totals - - -	27	4	2	932	1,092	80	2,137	376	40	12	437

TABLE III.—(NEW YORK.)

DESTINATION and OCCUPATION of ALIEN STEERAGE PASSENGERS arriving at the Port of New York during the Year ending December 31st, 1892.

Destination.	No.	Destination.	No.
Alaska - - -	7	Massachusetts - - -	15,219
Alabama - - -	297	New Hampshire - - -	710
Arizona - - -	156	North Carolina - - -	259
Arkansas - - -	358	North Dakota - - -	2,293
Connecticut - - -	8,189	Nebraska - - -	3,966
Colorado - - -	1,743	Nevada - - -	432
California - - -	5,851	New Jersey - - -	15,889
Delaware - - -	470	New Mexico - - -	196
District of Columbia - - -	415	*New York - - -	172,972
Florida - - -	342	Ohio - - -	7,867
Georgia - - -	299	Oregon - - -	733
Indiana - - -	1,955	Pennsylvania - - -	51,823
Indian territory - - -	291	Rhode Island - - -	2,814
Illinois - - -	28,080	South Carolina - - -	166
Iowa - - -	5,948	South Dakota - - -	1,300
Idaho - - -	244	Tennessee - - -	388
Kentucky - - -	645	Texas - - -	2,290
Kansas - - -	2,431	Utah - - -	429
Louisiana - - -	551	Vermont - - -	671
Maine - - -	391	Virginia - - -	323
Maryland - - -	2,035	West Virginia - - -	674
Michigan - - -	9,039	Wisconsin - - -	7,749
Missouri - - -	3,229	Washington - - -	1,077
Minnesota - - -	9,802	Wyoming - - -	430
Mississippi - - -	201		
Montana - - -	1,102	Total - - -	374,741

Occupation.	No.	Occupation.	No.
Architects - - -	72	Machinists - - -	1,672
Brewers - - -	563	Millers - - -	636
Butchers - - -	1,814	Musicians - - -	660
Barbers - - -	848	Painters - - -	1,425
Bakers - - -	1,583	Peddlers - - -	789
Blacksmiths - - -	1,786	Plasterers - - -	268
Bartenders - - -	280	Porters - - -	242
Bricklayers - - -	716	Potters - - -	217
Carpenters - - -	3,656	Printers - - -	582
Cabinetmakers - - -	1,559	Saddlers - - -	578
Confectioners - - -	377	Shoemakers - - -	3,575
Cigarmakers - - -	624	Spinners - - -	451
Cooks - - -	431	Tailors - - -	5,076
Coopers - - -	434	Tinsmiths - - -	755
†Farmers - - -	28,612	Tanners - - -	573
Florists - - -	208	Waggonsmiths - - -	416
Gardeners - - -	701	Weavers - - -	1,534
Hatters - - -	418	Waiters - - -	763
Ironmoulders - - -	866	All other occupations - - -	14,764
Labourers - - -	104,348	No occupation, including women and children - - -	180,638
Locksmiths - - -	1,196		
Laundrymen - - -	12		
Masons - - -	3,353		
Miners - - -	4,670	Total - - -	374,741

* It appears that immigrants passing through New York on their way to Canada are entered in the List of Destinations under "New York." The Commissioner of Immigration estimated the number of such persons at about 2,000 per annum.

† Under "Farmers" are entered all agricultural labourers.—D. F. S.

TABLE IV.—(NEW YORK.)
 NUMBER and DISPOSITION of PREGNANT WOMEN detained, for examination at the U.S. Immigration Station, Ellis Island, N.Y., during the
 Year ending December 31st, 1892.

Nationality.	NOTE.—The columns below refer as follows:—															Total.
	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.	14.	15.	
Arabian	17	2	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	20
Austrian	42	16	—	25	5	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	43
Assyrian	2	1	—	3	3	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
Bohemian	25	3	—	7	8	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	38
Belgian	17	3	—	2	4	—	1	1	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	27
Danish	48	7	—	2	4	—	1	1	—	—	—	8	—	—	—	62
English	42	4	—	21	17	—	1	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	89
French	20	2	—	5	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	28
French	14	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	17
French	257	13	—	41	30	—	1	1	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	423
German	19	2	—	12	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	19	—	—	—	40
Hollander	38	7	—	4	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	50
Irish	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
Irish	43	14	—	11	12	—	4	—	—	—	—	4	—	—	—	112
Italian	56	24	—	13	22	—	2	1	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	123
Latvian	4	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	8
Latvian	4	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	5
Latvian	166	41	—	38	11	—	1	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	262
Latvian	155	89	—	12	31	—	1	—	—	—	—	3	—	—	—	246
Latvian	18	—	—	—	2	—	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	28
Latvian	114	3	—	5	3	—	1	—	—	—	—	3	—	—	—	124
Latvian	3	—	—	27	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	36
Latvian	2	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3
Latvian	114	15	—	24	20	—	2	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	144
Totals	1,287	243	1	269	173	18	22	15	6	66	55	89	3	5	1	2,253

TABLE V.—(NEW YORK.)

NUMBER of and CAUSES for which IMMIGRANTS were stopped for special examination by the Medical Staff during the Passing Examination of Passengers arriving at the U. S. Immigration Station, Ellis Island, N. Y., during the Month of March 1892.

Disease.	No.	Disease.	No.
Hydrocephalus	1	Malarial fever	4
Goitre	3	Tubercular disease, glands of neck	15
Sprain of ankle	3	Abscess of arm	2
Fracture of femur, old	1	Laryngitis	2
Hysteria	2	Ptosis	2
Leucorrhœa	1	Pannus	1
Coloboma	1	Eczema	7
Observation*	3	Loss of one leg	5
Granular eyelids	2	Insane	2
Ulcer of nose	1	Club foot	9
Weak minded	2	Chickeu-pox	2
Infected wound of forehead	5	Fracture of clavicle	1
Herpes	1	Ectropion	5
Abscess connect. tissue	4	Curvature of spine	16
Gastritis	1	Irrregular heart	2
Tinea or syccis	4	Effects of sea sickness	7
Alcoholism, acute	3	Hydrocele	1
Synovitis of knee, chronic	1	Scald of foot	2
Loss of arm	2	Valvular disease of heart	1
Tumour of face	1	Cataract of eye	17
Glaucoma	1	Fracture of malleolus	2
Idiot	2	Deformity of face	1
Jaundice	4	Lupus vulgaris	3
Alcoholism, chronic	3	Diarrhœa	4
Asthma	1	Eczema of scalp	3
Pleurisy	1	Favus	9
Scarlet fever	1	Suppurating glands of groin	1
Loss of sight in one eye	82	Staphyloma	1
Anæmia	90	Ankylosis	7
Lame, right leg	27	Rheumatism	11
" left leg	26	Contusion of leg	1
Cellulitis, hand	1	Amenorrhœa	3
Abscess of jaw	7	Pediculi corporis	1
Debility of old age	35	Erysipelas	2
Measles	37	Effects of dentition	1
Pneumonitis, catarrhal	5	Ulcer of cornea	1
" lobar	15	Tubercular disease of knee joint	3
" resolving	1	Wound of scalp	2
Caries, jaw bone	2	Marasmus	7
" dental tissue	2	Wound of finger	3
Opacity of cornea	8	Prurigo	1
Chorea	2	Cirrhosis of liver	1
Acne	2	Gunshot wound, old	1
Paralysis	2	Hip joint disease, chronic	1
Wound of eye	3	Lipoma	1
Bronchitis, acute	18	Ulcer of lip	1
Keratitis	3	Effects of abortion	2
Diphtheria	4	Paralysis of iris	1
Paralysis, infantile	1	Tubercular disease, hip joint	1
Feeble minded	2	Atrophy left arm and hand	1
Deaf mute	2	Tonsillitis	1
Conjunctivitis	11	Knock knee	1
Hernia	8	Loss of eye	1
Effects of child-birth	6	Enlarged spleen	1
Tubercle of lungs	10		
Ulceration of ear	1	Total	662
Alopecia areata	10		

In addition to the above list 132 cases of pregnancy were stopped for examination by the matron, and 82 cases comprising various diseases were sent to hospital direct from steamships.

* Presumably cases detained for observation, D. F. S.

TABLE VI.—(NEW YORK.)

NUMBER of and CAUSES for which IMMIGRANTS were stopped for special examination by the Medical Staff during the Passing Examination of Passengers arriving at the U.S. Immigration Station, Ellis Island, N. Y., during the Month of March 1893.

Disease.	No.	Disease.	No.
Syncope - - - -	1	Observation*—fever - - -	3
Paralysis agitans - - -	1	Staphyloma - - - -	1
Keratitis - - - -	1	Hip-joint disease - - -	1
Loss of one finger - - -	1	Ectropion - - - -	2
„ right leg - - - -	3	Pterygium - - - -	1
Lupus vulgaris - - - -	1	Fracture of tibia, old - - -	1
Anæmia - - - -	47	Talipes equinus - - - -	4
Tubercular glands of neck - - -	2	Malarial fever - - - -	2
Abscess of hand - - - -	1	Erysipelas, foot - - -	1
Cataract, one eye - - - -	15	Rheumatism, chronic - - -	2
„ both eyes - - - -	5	Idiot - - - -	1
Opacity of cornea - - - -	30	Incised wound, forehead - - -	2
Loss of one eye - - - -	9	Sprain of ankle - - - -	2
Lame, right leg - - - -	20	Diphtheria - - - -	1
„ left leg - - - -	16	Ulcer of foot - - - -	3
Favus - - - -	10	Paralysis, infantile - - -	1
Eczema capitis - - - -	5	Loss of nose - - - -	1
Curvature of spine - - - -	11	Hernia - - - -	3
Conjunctivitis - - - -	2	Pannus - - - -	1
Loss of sight in one eye - - -	37	Goitre - - - -	4
Paralysis of hand - - - -	1	Valvular disease of heart - - -	2
Wound, eye-lid - - - -	1	Measles - - - -	9
Debility of old age - - - -	1	Torticollis - - - -	2
Tumor of knee - - - -	1	Alcoholism, acute - - - -	1
Pneumonia, lobar - - - -	3	Ankylosis, knee - - - -	4
„ resolving - - - -	2	Intermittent fever - - - -	1
Eczema, face - - - -	1	Dislocation of ankle, old - - -	1
Congenital deformity left foot - - -	1	Senile debility - - - -	1
Bronchitis, acute - - - -	5	Inflammation connect. tissue, foot - - -	1
Diarrhoea - - - -	1	Loss of left leg - - - -	1
Chorea - - - -	1	Masturbation - - - -	1
Hemiplegia, right - - - -	1	Effects of child-birth - - -	4
„ left - - - -	1	Total - - - -	304
Lameness due to infantile paralysis - - -	1		

In addition to the above list 214 cases of pregnancy were stopped for examination by the matron, and 43 cases comprising various diseases were sent to hospital direct from steamships.

* Presumably cases detained for observation, D. F. S.

TABLE VII.—(NEW YORK.)

ARRIVALS of ALIEN STEERAGE PASSENGERS at the Port of New York.

Month.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.
January - - - -	7,541	11,092	13,761	11,239
February - - - -	13,668	15,377	20,882	8,068
March - - - -	23,045	41,391	40,681	28,073
April - - - -	47,795	59,447	63,289	—
May - - - -	61,330	62,155	66,454	—
June - - - -	37,309	53,380	52,878	—
July - - - -	29,983	33,353	34,707	—
August - - - -	25,914	32,965	30,893	—
September - - - -	30,853	36,591	16,036	—
October - - - -	31,434	36,798	4,691	—
November - - - -	30,590	28,019	12,769	—
December - - - -	17,043	20,116	17,655	—
Total - - - -	358,510	430,884	374,741	47,380

TABLE VIII.—(BALTIMORE.)

STATEMENT showing the Nativity, Sex, and Age of IMMIGRANTS who arrived at the Port of Baltimore, Md., from 1st January to 31st December 1892, inclusive.

Nativity.	Sex.			Age.			
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Under 15 years.	15 years and under 40.	40 years and over.	Total.
Ireland - - -	51	41	92	0	79	7	92
England - - -	135	77	212	49	150	13	212
Wales - - -	2	—	2	—	2	—	2
Scotland - - -	4	1	5	—	5	—	5
Germany - - -	14,017	12,730	26,747	8,532	14,344	3,871	26,747
France - - -	3	6	9	4	3	2	9
Russia - - -	2,634	2,246	4,880	1,706	2,638	510	4,880
Poland - - -	5,392	3,191	8,583	2,131	5,534	898	8,583
Switzerland - - -	15	8	23	1	21	1	23
Sweden - - -	189	163	352	62	238	32	352
Norway - - -	37	28	65	14	46	5	65
Holland - - -	46	38	84	34	42	8	84
Italy - - -	8	12	20	6	10	4	20
Denmark - - -	136	79	215	42	160	13	215
Hungary - - -	675	397	1,072	285	632	135	1,072
Austria - - -	2,624	876	3,500	507	2,625	368	3,500
Bohemia - - -	1,298	1,238	2,536	500	1,468	328	2,536
Finland - - -	12	10	22	8	12	2	22
All other countries - - -	24	24	48	21	25	2	48
Total - - -	27,302	21,165	48,467	*14,268	*28,054	*6,205	48,467

* These figures stand in the statistical tables furnished by the immigration authorities at Baltimore as 14,218, 28,045, and 6,206 respectively; but with obvious inaccuracy.

TABLE IX.—(BALTIMORE.)

STATEMENT showing the Number and Nativity of IMMIGRANTS debarred for various causes from landing at the Port of Baltimore, Md., from 1st January to 31st December 1892, inclusive; also number and nativity of those returned (during 1892) within one year of landing from causes existing prior to landing.

Nativity.	Debarred from landing.				Returned within One Year of landing.
	Paupers, or likely to become Public Charge.	Diseased Persons.	Contract Labourers.	Total.	
England - - -	13	—	—	13	6
Scotland - - -	1	—	—	1	—
Germany - - -	2	2	3	7	3
Russia - - -	3	1	—	4	2
Poland - - -	15	—	—	15	5
Hungary - - -	—	—	1	1	—
Austria - - -	5	—	16	21	1
Bohemia - - -	—	1	—	1	—
All other countries - - -	2	—	—	2	—
Totals - - -	41	4	20	65	17

TABLE X.—(BALTIMORE.)

DESTINATION and OCCUPATION of IMMIGRANTS arriving at the Port of Baltimore, Md., during the Year ending December 31st, 1892.

Destination.	No.	Destination.	No.
Alabama - - -	47	North Dakota - - -	370
Arkansas - - -	74	Nebraska - - -	1,441
Connecticut - - -	73	Nevada - - -	13
Colorado - - -	117	New Jersey - - -	142
California - - -	91	New Mexico - - -	3
Delaware - - -	82	New York - - -	1,911
District of Columbia	199	Ohio - - -	4,692
Florida - - -	8	Oregon - - -	35
Georgia - - -	22	Pennsylvania - - -	7,313
Indiana - - -	964	Rhode Island - - -	11
Indian Territory - - -	5	South Carolina - - -	13
Illinois - - -	10,642	South Dakota - - -	237
Iowa - - -	1,664	Tennessee - - -	43
Idaho - - -	1	Texas - - -	150
Kentucky - - -	208	Utah - - -	2
Kansas - - -	898	Vermont - - -	6
Louisiana - - -	11	Virginia - - -	125
Maine - - -	15	West Virginia - - -	287
Maryland - - -	4,264	Wisconsin - - -	4,675
Michigan - - -	4,116	Washington - - -	59
Missouri - - -	1,326	Wyoming - - -	10
Minnesota - - -	1,939	Canada - - -	3
Montana - - -	18	Oklahoma - - -	8
Massachusetts - - -	124		
New Hampshire - - -	4		
North Carolina - - -	6	Total - - -	48,467

Occupation.	No.	Occupation.	No.
Architects - - -	13	Machinists - - -	126
Brewers - - -	79	Millers - - -	165
Butchers - - -	283	Musicians - - -	43
Barbers - - -	31	Painters - - -	120
Bakers - - -	211	Peddlers - - -	38
Blacksmiths - - -	441	Porters - - -	4
Bartenders - - -	29	Potters - - -	12
Bricklayers - - -	252	Printers - - -	19
Carpenters - - -	717	Saddlers - - -	83
Cabinet makers - - -	171	Shoemakers - - -	491
Confectioners - - -	19	Spinners - - -	14
Cigar makers - - -	35	Tailors - - -	518
Cooks - - -	8	Tinsmiths - - -	60
Coopers - - -	47	Tanners - - -	19
*Farmers - - -	4,910	Wagonsmiths - - -	140
Florists - - -	10	Weavers - - -	146
Gardeners - - -	86	Waiters - - -	23
Hatters - - -	8	All other occupations	845
Ironmoulders - - -	91	No occupation, including	
Labourers - - -	6,130	women and children - - -	30,591
Locksmiths - - -	202		
Masons - - -	128		
Miners - - -	1,109	Total - - -	48,467

* Including agricultural labourers—D. F. S.

TABLE XI.—(BALTIMORE.)

RELIGIONS of IMMIGRANTS arriving at the Port of Baltimore, Md., during the Year ending December 31st, 1892.

Nationality.	Catholic.	Protestant.	Hebrew.	Total.
Ireland	96	26	—	92
England	38	166	8	212
Wales	—	2	—	2
Scotland	1	4	—	5
Germany	9,054	17,506	127	26,747
France	8	1	—	9
Russia	929	2,002	1,940	4,880
Poland	8,163	353	57	8,583
Switzerland	10	13	—	23
Sweden	—	352	—	352
Norway	3	62	—	65
Holland	32	50	2	84
Italy	20	—	—	20
Denmark	—	215	—	215
Hungary	755	210	107	1,072
Austria	3,124	206	110	3,500
Bohemia	2,437	78	21	2,536
Finland	—	22	—	22
All others	—	26	22	48
Total	24,640	21,424	2,403	48,467

TABLE XII.—(BOSTON.)

STATEMENT showing the Nationality, Sex, and Age of IMMIGRANTS landed at the Port of Boston, Mass., from Transatlantic ports from 1st January to 31st December 1892, inclusive.

N.B.—These figures do not include the 113 persons who arrived from Transatlantic ports in 1892, but were debarred from landing.

Nationality.	Sex.			Age.			
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Under 15 years.	15 years and under 40.	40 years and over.	Total.
Ireland	5,266	5,587	10,853	940	9,129	784	10,853
England	3,752	3,226	6,978	1,544	4,404	1,030	6,978
Wales	23	3	26	1	23	2	26
Scotland	793	850	1,643	413	1,039	191	1,643
Germany	318	207	525	126	332	67	525
France	10	10	20	3	15	2	20
Russia	1,472	1,132	2,604	811	1,553	240	2,604
Poland	605	269	874	169	631	74	874
Switzerland	3	1	4	—	4	—	4
Sweden	2,016	1,664	3,680	553	2,805	312	3,680
Norway	637	444	1,081	126	864	91	1,081
Belgium	21	14	35	6	26	3	35
Holland	17	8	25	2	23	—	25
Italy	12	—	12	—	12	—	12
Spain	9	—	9	—	9	—	9
Azore Islands	483	238	721	118	531	72	721
Denmark	95	44	139	27	105	7	139
Hungary	19	10	29	1	24	4	29
Austria	128	65	193	42	131	20	193
Finland	70	49	119	16	88	15	119
Australia	8	2	10	8	2	—	10
Turkey	1	—	1	—	1	—	1
Greece	3	—	3	—	3	—	3
All other Countries	88	37	125	17	92	16	125
Total	15,849	13,800	29,709	4,933	21,846	2,930	29,709

TABLE XIII.—(BOSTON.)

STATEMENT showing the Number and Nationality of IMMIGRANTS coming from Transatlantic ports debarred for various causes from landing at the Port of Boston, Mass., from 1st January to 31st December 1892, inclusive; also Number and Nationality of those returned (during 1892) within one year of landing from causes existing prior to landing.

Nationality.	Debarred from Landing.					Returned within One Year of landing.
	Insane.	Paupers, or likely to become Public Charge.	Diseased Persons.	Assisted Immigrants.	Total.	
Ireland - - - -	1	33	2	1	37	35
England - - - -	—	45	1	3	49	20
Scotland - - - -	—	7	—	—	7	—
Germany - - - -	—	3	—	—	3	2
Russia - - - -	—	2	—	—	2	4
Poland - - - -	—	6	—	—	6	2
Sweden - - - -	—	—	—	—	—	4
Azore Islands - - - -	—	1	—	—	1	3
Austria - - - -	—	—	—	—	—	1
Finland - - - -	—	—	—	—	—	1
All other Countries - - - -	—	8	—	—	8	1
Total - - - -	1	105	3	4	113	73

TABLE XIV.—(BOSTON.)

DESTINATION and OCCUPATION of IMMIGRANTS landed from Transatlantic ports at the Port of Boston, Mass., during the Year ending 31st December 1892.

Destination.	No.	Destination.	No.
Alabama	2	North Carolina	2
Arkansas	1	North Dakota	64
Connecticut	102	Nebraska	48
Colorado	32	New Jersey	11
California	205	New Mexico	8
Delaware	3	New York	2,694
District of Columbia	11	Ohio	79
Florida	2	Oregon	12
Georgia	1	Pennsylvania	404
Indiana	14	Rhode Island	1,403
Illinois	1,302	South Carolina	1
Iowa	102	South Dakota	61
Idaho	7	Tennessee	6
Kansas	54	Texas	15
Louisiana	2	Utah	4
Maine	442	Vermont	58
Maryland	13	Virginia	6
Michigan	213	West Virginia	19
Missouri	23	Wisconsin	283
Minnesota	579	Washington	6
Montana	11	Wyoming	4
Massachusetts	20,759		
New Hampshire	486	Total	29,700

Occupation.	No.	Occupation.	No.
Architect	1	Machinists	159
Brewers	5	Millers	25
Butchers	69	Musicians	28
Barbers	21	Painters	100
Bakers	68	Peddlers	53
Blacksmiths	98	Plumbers	28
Bartenders	9	Plasterers	6
Bricklayers	39	Porters	5
Carpenters	99	Potters	2
Cabinet-makers	31	Printers	21
Confectioners	3	Saddlers	3
Cigar-makers	45	Servants	4,755
Cooks	45	Shoemakers	171
Coopers	13	Spinners	243
Dyers	59	Tailors	450
Farmers*	1,895	Tanners	5
Gardeners	46	Tinsmiths	20
Hatters	21	Weavers	607
Ironmoulders	32	Waiters	37
Labourers	6,173	All other occupations	3,570
Locksmiths	11	No occupation, including women and children	10,462
Laundrymen	2		
Masons	74	Total	29,700
Miners	100		

* Including agricultural labourers.—D. F. S.

TABLE XV.—(PHILADELPHIA.)

STATEMENT showing the Nativity and Sex of IMMIGRANTS (Second-cabin and Steerage) landed at the Port of Philadelphia, Pa., from 1st January to 31st December 1892, inclusive.*

N.B.—These figures do not include the 20 persons who arrived in 1892, but were debarred from landing.

Nationality.	Sex.		
	Males.	Females.	Total.
Ireland	2,094	1,930	4,024
England	1,912	1,435	3,347
Wales	113	63	176
Scotland	271	224	495
Germany	3,982	2,911	6,893
France	112	57	169
Russia	1,552	1,049	2,601
Poland	2,202	909	3,111
Switzerland	57	23	80
Sweden	1,212	576	1,788
Norway	619	337	956
Belgium	528	324	852
Holland	197	132	329
Italy	122	28	150
Spain	17	—	17
Portugal	3	1	4
Denmark	256	140	396
Hungary	1,436	439	1,875
Austria	790	205	995
Bohemia	27	24	51
Finland	65	28	93
China	13	—	13
Australia	1	—	1
Turkey	25	11	36
Greece	16	—	16
All other countries	495	329	824
Total	18,117	11,175	29,292

* The nativity of immigrants of different ages is not given in the statistical table furnished by the immigration authorities at Philadelphia; the number of immigrants of different ages was as follows:—Under 15 years, 6,361; 15 years and under 40, 20,064; 40 years and over, 2,853; not stated, 14.

TABLE XVI.—(PHILADELPHIA.)

STATEMENT showing the Number and Nativity of IMMIGRANTS (Second-cabin and Steerage) debarred for various causes from landing at the Port of Philadelphia, Pa., from 1st January to 31st December 1892, inclusive; also Number and Nativity of those returned (during 1892) within one year of landing.

Nativity.	Debarred from Landing.			Returned within One Year of Landing.
	Paupers, or likely to become Public Charge.	Contract Labourers.	Total.	
Ireland	3	—	3	10
England	5	—	5	2
Scotland	2	—	2	—
Germany	1	2	3	2
Russia	—	—	—	11
Poland	—	—	—	1
Belgium	5	—	5	—
All other Countries	2	—	2	—
Totals	18	2	20	26

TABLE XVII.—(PHILADELPHIA.)

DESTINATION and OCCUPATION of IMMIGRANTS (Second-cabin and Steerage) arriving at the Port of Philadelphia, Pa., during the Year ending 31st December 1892.

Destination.	No.	Destination.	No.
Alabama - - - - -	20	New Hampshire - - - - -	1
Arizona - - - - -	3	North Carolina - - - - -	2
Arkansas - - - - -	7	North Dakota - - - - -	132
Connecticut - - - - -	161	Nebraska - - - - -	215
Colorado - - - - -	55	Nevada - - - - -	2
California - - - - -	94	New Jersey - - - - -	806
Delaware - - - - -	163	New Mexico - - - - -	2
District of Columbia - - - - -	45	New York - - - - -	3,810
Florida - - - - -	2	Ohio - - - - -	944
Georgia - - - - -	6	Oregon - - - - -	9
Indiana - - - - -	266	Pennsylvania - - - - -	12,739
Illinois - - - - -	2,932	Rhode Island - - - - -	37
Iowa - - - - -	538	South Carolina - - - - -	13
Idaho - - - - -	14	South Dakota - - - - -	184
Kentucky - - - - -	31	Tennessee - - - - -	24
Kansas - - - - -	169	Texas - - - - -	30
Louisiana - - - - -	12	Utah - - - - -	114
Maine - - - - -	1	Vermont - - - - -	7
Maryland - - - - -	492	Virginia - - - - -	35
Michigan - - - - -	550	West Virginia - - - - -	44
Missouri - - - - -	232	Wisconsin - - - - -	2,763
Minnesota - - - - -	978	Washington - - - - -	39
Mississippi - - - - -	4	Wyoming - - - - -	6
Montana - - - - -	41		
Massachusetts - - - - -	518	Total - - - - -	29,292

Occupation.	No.	Occupation.	No.
Architects - - - - -	6	Millers - - - - -	51
Brewers - - - - -	45	Musicians - - - - -	48
Butchers - - - - -	232	Painters - - - - -	141
Barbers - - - - -	44	Peddlers - - - - -	17
Bakers - - - - -	196	Plasterers - - - - -	6
Blacksmiths - - - - -	190	Porters - - - - -	6
Bartenders - - - - -	17	Potters - - - - -	18
Bricklayers - - - - -	32	Printers - - - - -	40
Carpenters - - - - -	411	Saddlers - - - - -	23
Cabinetmakers - - - - -	17	Shoemakers - - - - -	324
Cigarmakers - - - - -	98	Spinners - - - - -	32
Cooks - - - - -	38	Tailors - - - - -	546
Coopers - - - - -	34	Tinsmiths - - - - -	45
*Farmers - - - - -	1,485	Tinplate-workers - - - - -	3
Florists - - - - -	5	Tanners - - - - -	55
Gardeners - - - - -	82	Waggonsmiths - - - - -	31
Hatters - - - - -	10	Weavers - - - - -	236
Ironmoulders - - - - -	93	Waiters - - - - -	30
Labourers - - - - -	6,691	All other occupations - - - - -	6,186
Locksmiths - - - - -	105	No occupation, including women and children - - - - -	10,711
Laundrymen - - - - -	2		
Masons - - - - -	127		
Miners - - - - -	657		
Machinists - - - - -	126	Total - - - - -	29,292

* Including agricultural labourers—D. F. S.

TABLE XVIII.—(ALL PORTS.)

TABLE showing the Number of Immigrants Inspected and Admitted into the United States at the Ports below, and the Number of the Prohibited Classes Discovered and Returned to the Countries whence they came, as well as the Number Admitted on Bond, during the Fiscal Year ending June 30, 1892.

Port of Entry.	Number admitted.		Number returned.										Total.	Returned within One Year as Public Charge.	Contract Laborers.	Bonded.	
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Idiots.	Insane.	Paupers.	Diseased Persons.	Convicts.	Assisted Immigrants.	Prostitutes.	Contract Laborers.	Returned within One Year as Public Charge.					Total.
Baltimore	30,877	24,903	55,780			36	3							23	5	60	3
Boston	17,346	35,000	52,346		3	145	3								89	291	108
Barnstable	28	9	37														
Brunswick	2	2	4														
Brunswick	16	10	26														
Galveston	15	8	23														
Gloucester	3	3	6														
Jacksonville	3,822	1,238	5,060			4											1
Key West	5	5	10														
Mobile	3,594	1,117	4,711			3									1	3	13
New Orleans	283,905	162,082	445,987	4	13	780	72	26				508	832			2,235	2,011
New Bedford	600	171	771														
New Bedford	1	1	2														
Norfolk	3		3			7									21	51	
Newport, News	18,752	11,951	30,703			28											
Philadelphia	38	10	48														
Providence	1,013	447	1,460												13	69	
Portland, Me.	313	1	314			6									26	26	
Portland, Oregon	11	1	12														
Port Townsend	11	6	17														
Pensacola	2,022	723	2,745		1												85
San Francisco	18	7	25														
San Diego	5	2	7														
Savannah	11	7	18														
Wilmington																	
Total	361,863	217,800	579,663	4	17	1,002	80	26	23	89	932	657	2,801	2,135			

APPENDIX C.

PART I.

LETTER of INSTRUCTIONS from the Foreign Office to, and report of H.B.M. Consul-General at Hamburg upon the conditions under which Emigration to the United States is carried on at Hamburg and Bremen.

SIR, Foreign Office, February 24, 1893.
 I AM directed by the Earl of Rosebery to transmit to you a copy of a letter from the Board of Trade respecting emigration from Hamburg and Bremen to the United States, and I am to instruct you to report, with as little delay as possible, on the points on which the Board requires information.
 I have, &c.
 The Honble. Charles S. Dundas, (Signed) EDWARD GREY.
 Her Britannic Majesty's Consul-General,
 Hamburg.

[Enclosure.]

SIR, Board of Trade, Commercial Department,
 London, S.W., February 22, 1893.
 I AM directed by the Board of Trade to request that you will be good enough to move the Earl of Rosebery to give directions for inquiries to be made by Her Majesty's Consular Authorities at Hamburg and Bremen with a view to the following particulars being obtained as soon as possible for the information of this Department with regard to the conditions under which emigration is carried on from those ports.
 The points upon which the Board would be glad to receive definite information are:—
 (a.) What qualifications do the shipping companies require an intending emigrant to possess, or what conditions do they require him to fulfil in order to be reasonably certain of his being permitted to enter the United States?
 (b.) What class or classes of emigrants do the shipping companies reject as being likely to be refused admission into the United States?
 (c.) What means are adopted by the companies or their agents (either before or after embarkation), in order to ascertain whether emigrants possess the required qualifications or fulfil the requisite conditions?
 (d.) Is any, and if any, what inspection of intending emigrants to the United States made, either before or after embarkation, on behalf of local authorities charged with the administration of measures relating to public health, or on behalf of the Imperial Government, and how is such inspection carried out?

This information is required in connection with the inquiries which are now being made by this Department in relation to the question of immigration into the United States.

The Under Secretary of State,
 Foreign Office.

I have, &c.
 (Signed) R. GIFFEN.

Her Majesty's Consulate-General, Hamburg,
 March 13, 1893.

MY LORD,

WITH reference to your Lordship's Despatch of the 24th ultimo transmitting copy of a letter from the Board of Trade respecting emigration from Hamburg and Bremen to the United States, and instructing me to report on

the points on which information is desired by the Board of Trade, I have now the honour to report that with regard to the questions (a) and (b), the shipping companies both here and at Bremen take all emigrants except those prescribed in the following classes:—

- (1.) Idiots, blind, deaf and dumb, crippled, or with infectious or loathsome sickness, and pregnant unmarried females.
- (2.) Paupers or those who have received the means for their journey from any society or pauper fund.
- (3.) Criminals, polygamists, anarchists, and persons who proceed to the States under contract to labour.
- (4.) Persons above 16 years old who can neither read nor write if unaccompanied by their parents or other relatives who will be responsible for them.

(c.) Passengers are carefully examined previous to embarkation, and with regard to this I draw especial attention to the fact that the agent who has booked on this side those passengers whom the United States reject has out of his own pocket to defray the cost of their return journey. This affords or rather perhaps guarantees protection to the steamship companies against carrying emigrants liable to rejection.

(d.) All steerage passengers embarking by the steamers of the Hamburg-American Packet Company in Hamburg are inspected—

- (1) by a medical officer of the Hamburg Government ;
- (2) by the doctor belonging to the Company itself ; and
- (3) by a health officer of the New York Quarantine Department who has taken up his residence here for the time being.

The same system is employed at Bremen with the exception that in that port I am not aware that there is any resident health officer of the United States, but a medical man employed under the control of the United States Consulate.

I may add that the Hamburg-American Packet Company are doing all in their power to reduce the numbers of Russian and Galician Jews seeking to be transported by their steamers. The result is that this class are diverted to the United Kingdom and Rotterdam ; more, however, to the latter than the former, because our own lines are averse, I think, to accepting emigrants coming direct from Hamburg at present.

I have, &c.
(Signed) CHAS. S. DUNDAS,
Consul-General.

The Right Hon. the Earl of Rosebery,
Her Majesty's Principal Secretary of State
for Foreign Affairs, Foreign Office,
London.

PART II.

LETTER of INSTRUCTIONS from the Foreign Office to H.B.M. Consuls in the United States and Reports of H.B.M. Consuls at Boston and New Orleans, Vice-Consul at Pensacola, Consuls at San Francisco, Galveston, Philadelphia, Chicago, Charleston and Baltimore, and Consul-General at New York upon the laws or regulations respecting the control or restriction of alien immigration or alien contract or other labour.

SIR, Foreign Office, February 24, 1893.
I AM directed by the Earl of Rosebery to transmit to you a copy of a letter from the Board of Trade respecting the question of alien immigration into the United States, and, in accordance with the Board's request, I am to instruct you to forward to Her Majesty's Minister at Washington the report required for the information of Messrs. Schloss and Burnett.

I have, &c.
(Signed) EDWARD GREY.

[Enclosure.]

Board of Trade, Commercial Department,

SIR,

London, S.W., February 22, 1893.

As the Earl of Rosebery is no doubt aware, it is the intention of this Department to cause inquiries to be made, through the medium of Special Commissioners, now about to proceed to the United States, with reference to matters connected with the question of alien immigration into that country. In order to enable these gentlemen properly to carry out the task entrusted to them, the time at their disposal being limited, the Board are advised that it would be desirable if reports could be obtained from Her Majesty's Consuls throughout the United States with regard to the following points bearing upon the subject of the inquiry, and I am accordingly to request that you will be good enough to move his Lordship to cause instructions to be given with that object.

The questions upon which the assistance of Her Majesty's consular staff is desired are:—

- (a.) Whether any and what laws or regulations respecting the control or restriction of alien immigration or alien contract or other labour exist in the States and Territories within the respective British consular districts, and in what manner and to what extent are such laws or regulations enforced?
- (b.) It would be of advantage if Her Majesty's Consuls at New Orleans, San Francisco, Philadelphia, and Baltimore,* could, in addition, be asked to state in what manner and to what extent the Federal laws (as distinguished from the State laws) on these matters are enforced.
- (c.) The Board would further be glad if those of Her Majesty's Consuls whose districts may be near the northern or southern boundaries of the United States† could be asked to report as to the steps taken to regulate or restrict the immigration of aliens over the land frontier (e.g., from Canada, British Columbia, or Mexico), and also to give their impression of the volume and character of such immigration, having in view the questions of the nationalities and occupations of the immigrants (i.e., as to whether miners, agriculturists, &c.), and also as to whether they are usually possessed of capital or not.

It would be convenient if in instructing Her Majesty's Consuls in the sense of this letter those gentlemen could be asked to forward such information as they may be in a position to furnish to Her Majesty's Minister at Washington with as little delay as possible, so that their reports may be handed or transmitted to Messrs. Schloss and Burnett, the Board's Commissioners, on application.

The Under Secretary of State,
Foreign Office.

I have, &c.

(Signed) R. GIFFEN.

British Consulate, Boston, U.S.A.,

March 8, 1893.

SIR,

HAVING been instructed by the Earl of Rosebery to forward to you a report respecting the question of alien immigration into the States comprising this consular district; I have the honour to report that, having examined into the matter, I find that no State Legislation is in force in this consular district on the question of alien immigration, as by virtue of certain decisions of the United States Supreme Court foreign immigration is a matter of commerce which the Federal Government alone can regulate. A State may enact laws for its protection from the inroad of foreign paupers where such inroad is not prevented by Federal enactments; but the Federal Government having

* These are places which it was believed that the Special Commissioners would not be able to visit during the time at their disposal; in the result, however, Philadelphia was visited by both Mr. Burnett and Mr. Schloss, and Baltimore by Mr. Schloss.

† It was considered doubtful whether either of these boundaries could be visited; in the result, however, Mr. Burnett visited certain places on the northern boundary.

legislated in connexion therewith, all State Legislation to that end is by such Federal Legislation superseded.

I have, &c.
(Signed) W. H. STUART.

Sir Julian Pauncefote, G.C.B., G.C.M.G.
&c. &c. &c.

British Consulate, New Orleans,
March 11, 1893.

SIR,

I HAVE received a circular from the Foreign Office, enclosing copy of one from the Board of Trade containing questions relative to matters connected with the alien immigration into this country, instructing me to report on the subject for the information of Messrs. Schloss and Burnett:

- (a.) The laws and regulations respecting the control of alien immigration are promulgated and enforced by the Federal Government, with which the State has nothing to do.
- (b.) The question as to the manner and to what extent the Federal laws (as distinguished from the State laws) in these matters are enforced could only be answered by the Commissioner for Immigration at New Orleans, who, I have been informed, has been called to Washington, probably to give evidence on this very question.
- (c.) The State of Louisiana not being contiguous with Mexico, there can be no immigration over the frontier. As a matter of fact, the only person at New Orleans able to give information is, as I have stated above, now at Washington.

I have, &c.
(Signed) C. L. ST. JOHN.

Sir Julian Pauncefote, G.C.B., G.C.M.G.
&c. &c. &c.

British Consulate, New Orleans,
March 13, 1893.

SIR,

WITH reference to my Despatch of the 11th instant, on alien immigration, I have the honour to enclose, in original, a despatch from Mr. Howe, Her Majesty's Vice-Consul at Pensacola, on the same subject.

I have, &c.
(Signed) C. L. ST. JOHN.

Sir Julian Pauncefote, G.C.B., G.C.M.G.
&c. &c. &c.

[Enclosure.]

British Vice-Consulate, Pensacola,
March 10, 1893.

SIR,

REFERRING to your Despatch of the 9th instant, and to the enclosure therewith, respecting the subject of alien immigration into the United States, I have to report as follows as regards the port of Pensacola:—

There are not any laws or regulations of the State of Florida, respecting the control or restriction of alien immigration, or alien contract.

In the event, possibly, of alien immigrants arriving at Pensacola, the Federal laws in such respect would no doubt be brought to bear.

There is no immigration in the usually accepted term to this port of any class of persons.

I am, &c.
(Signed) OSMOND C. HOWE.

C. L. St. John, Esq.,
H.B.M. Consul, New Orleans.

British Consulate, San Francisco,

SIR,

March 16, 1893.

I HAVE been instructed to transmit to you a report on immigration as far as it concerns the States under the jurisdiction of this consulate; and I now have the honour to enclose my Report on the subject for the information of Messrs. Schloss and Burnett.

I have, &c.

(Signed) DENIS DONOHOE.

Sir Julian Pauncefote, G.C.B., G.C.M.G.,

Her Majesty's Envoy Extraordinary,

&c. &c. &c.

Washington, D.C.

[Enclosure.]

REPORT on the IMMIGRATION LAWS as carried out on the Pacific Coast
of the United States.

The State of California at present takes no part in the regulations connected with alien immigration, though there is still a State Act on the subject which has not been repealed by the Legislature. The whole matter is now managed by a United States Commissioner of Immigration, who acts under the instructions of the Bureau of Immigration at Washington.

He boards all passenger vessels and questions such passengers as he considers necessary, carrying out in this respect the Act of Congress of February 26, 1885 (23 Stat. 332), the Act amendatory thereof of February 23, 1887 (24 Stat. 414), and the amendment of October 19, 1888 (25 Stat. 566), and also the Act approved March 3, 1891. All these Acts are issued by the Treasury Department, and are published in circulars, the first marked—

1889.

Department No. 122.

Miscellaneous Division.

The second circular, styled "Amendment to Immigration and Alien Contract Labour Laws," is marked—

1891.

Department No. 39.

Miscellaneous Division.

These circulars can be procured at the Treasury Department, Washington.

The Commissioner of Immigration at San Francisco informs me that he puts his questions to immigrants about as follows:—Name, nationality, where from, where going to work, if under a contract, who sent for him, who pays his passage, and is that passage money to be repaid, amount of capital, &c., &c.

He makes a note of the answers, and makes periodical reports to the Bureau in Washington, where, he has no doubt, full tables on this question would be furnished to the Commissioners, upon application.

The amount of immigration here is, of course, very small as compared with that in the Eastern States, and it is a very rare thing to have any one stopped from landing; of course this is entirely apart from the laws governing the entrance of Chinese.

The Commissioner also informs me that there are scarcely any immigrants from Mexico through Southern California, though an inspector is stationed at San Diego, and one where the Guaymas Railway joins the Southern Pacific at Tucson, Arizona, or at the frontier town of Nogales, in the same State. Data as to immigration through British Columbia, which is also looked after by inspectors appointed by the United States Government at frontier towns, the Commissioner here informs me, can readily be procured from the Bureau

in Washington, which is in the Treasury Department. I may state that the Federal laws that I have quoted regulate the immigration of aliens on the Pacific coast.

British Consulate, San Francisco,
March 18, 1893.

British Consulate, Galveston,
March 17, 1893.

SIR,

IN accordance with instructions which I have received from the Earl of Rosebery, I have the honour to report upon certain questions respecting alien immigration into the State and Territory comprising my consular district, viz., Texas and New Mexico, as follows:—

(a.) Whether any and what laws or regulations respecting the control or restriction of alien immigration or alien contract or other labour exist in this consular district, and in what manner and to what extent are such laws or regulations enforced?

As regards Texas, no State laws or regulations respecting alien immigrants exist. The Federal Contract Labour Law would, I presume, be enforced were there any direct immigration by sea, but such direct immigration does not take place, and the cases of those aliens arriving here by steamer are dealt with at their original port of arrival.

With respect to New Mexico, I am informed by the Governor that there are no laws or regulations respecting alien immigration or alien labour apart from those of the National Government.

(b.) The regulation of alien immigration from Mexico.

In both Texas and New Mexico no special steps are taken to regulate this immigration.

No statistics appear to be kept of either numbers, nationality, occupation, &c., but it can be confidently stated that the number of immigrants, apart from mere transient travellers, coming in from Mexico is very small; in fact, it may be said there are scarcely any at all.

I have, &c.

(Signed) HORACE D. NUGENT,

To Sir Julian Pauncefote, G.C.B., G.C.M.G.

&c. &c. &c.

British Legation, Washington.

British Consulate, Philadelphia,
March 20, 1893.

SIR,

IN accordance with instructions received from the Foreign Office, I beg to enclose herewith the laws and regulations governing immigration at the port of Philadelphia,* together with the Annual Report for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1892, issued by the Superintendent of Immigration.

There are no State laws within this consular jurisdiction governing immigration, as all immigration is under the supervision of the Federal Government.

I have, &c.

(Signed) ROBT. CHAS. CLIPPERTON,

Sir Julian Pauncefote, G.C.B., G.C.M.G.

H.M. Consul.

&c. &c. &c.

* The enclosure referred to was the Treasury Department publication of March 11, 1893, containing the regulations of that date (since superseded by those of April 25, 1893), and the laws affecting general immigration.

British Consulate, Chicago,

March 20, 1893.

SIR,

IN accordance with instructions received from the Earl of Rosebery I herewith transmit to you a report on the question of alien immigration as far as concerns my district for the information of Messrs. Schloss and Burnett.

I have, &c.

(Signed) J. HAYES SADLER.

Sir Julian Pauncefoot, G.C.B., G.C.M.G.,
&c. &c. &c.

British Embassy, Washington, D.C.

[Enclosure.]

ON ALIEN IMMIGRATION from Canada into the Consular District of Chicago.

IN the border states of the consular district of Chicago, comprising the States of Wisconsin, Minnesota, North Dakota and Montana, there are no laws or regulations controlling or restricting the free entry of aliens into the United States from Canada or alien or other labour contract.

Since the scare of cholera in the autumn of 1892 certain regulations have been made regarding the examination of immigrants and their baggage which, under certain circumstances can be detained and fumigated, but this can only be considered a temporary measure of precaution taken by the Boards of Health.

There are no records kept in these States regarding the number of aliens who may arrive from Canada, or pass through to other States of the Union, nor are there any statistics existing from which any just appreciation can be formed of such immigration unless the United States authorities in such States should have furnished the Federal Government with such information. My impression is that the number of immigrants into Dakota and Montana is infinitesimal; there are a certain number of Canadians who enter every year into the lumber districts of Wisconsin and Minnesota, and after the season's work is over return to their own country, but the number of immigrants is small, the chief route taken by immigrants from Canada to these parts being through the State of Michigan.

I have, &c.

(Signed) J. HAYES SADLER,

British Consulate, Chicago,
March 20, 1893.

H.B.M. Consul at Chicago.

British Consulate, Charleston, S.C.,

March 21, 1893.

SIR,

I AM directed by the Earl of Rosebery to transmit to you a report respecting the question of alien immigration into the United States, so far as it applies to this consular district, for the information of Messrs. Schloss and Burnett, Board of Trade Commissioners; and, in accordance with these instructions, have the honour to report as follows:

There are practically no laws or regulations respecting the control or restriction of alien immigration or alien contract labour, of a state or local character, that have any force or can be exercised in this district. The Supreme Court of the United States has held—in *Passenger Cases*, 7 Howard 282—that the whole subject of immigration is exclusively within the control of the Federal Government. The States can only regulate it or legislate upon the subject to a very limited degree, and only on the line of their police power.

In the General Statutes of the State of South Carolina, chapter LV., 1891, there is an entire chapter entitled "Of Immigrants and Seamen," but its scope is confined almost exclusively to the licenses and rules for regulation of immigrant and sailor boarding-houses in the city of Charleston. There are also, in several of the other States of the Union, laws purporting to deal with

this forbidden subject of foreign immigration, but the consideration of such State Statutes may be eliminated from the present inquiry, as all legislation of this kind is void, the matter being, as above shown, exclusively within the province of the General Government.

It may therefore be broadly stated that, so far as this Consular District is concerned, and, indeed, to the best of my knowledge and belief, every other United States Consular District, the only valid laws now existing on the subject are the Acts of Congress, of which there are quite a number bearing on the question. The Acts now in force will be found in Volume I. of the Supplement to Revised Statutes of the United States, 2nd edition, on pages 87, 370, 479, 541, 633, and 934.

A reference to these Acts will show that certain classes of immigrants are, by law, excluded, and that all contracts for labour in the United States of a prospective immigrant are declared void, excepting in the cases of ministers of the Gospel, professors in colleges, professional men, and other persons specified in the Act of March 3rd, 1891, as being exempted from its prohibitions. I would also beg, in this connexion, to refer to the case of Rev. E. Walpole Warren, who came over from England under contract to be rector of Trinity Church, New York, the Supreme Court deciding that such a contract was not prohibited by the Acts of Congress, thus reversing, on appeal, the decision of the lower court. (See *Church of the Holy Trinity v. United States*, 143 U.S. 457.)

The foregoing are the only enactments relating to immigration, excepting those relating to the Chinese, that have any force, or could be put into operation here, but no cases have arisen under these laws, as there is no immigration directly from foreign countries into this district.

I have, &c.

(Signed) A. HARKNESS,

Sir Julian Pauncefote, G.C.B., G.C.M.G., Acting Consul,
Washington, D.C.

British Consulate, Baltimore,

March 22, 1893.

SIR,

In compliance with instructions I have the honour to report to you that in Maryland there is no State law, as distinct from Federal law, to regulate or control alien immigration.

There is in existence a State Board of Immigration, whose duty consists in seeing that the Federal law is observed.

I transmit copy of the laws with regard to immigration,* and which has been handed to me by a member of the Board.

I have, &c.

(Signed) W. F. SEGRAVE.

Sir Julian Pauncefote, G.C.B., G.C.M.G.,
&c. &c. &c.

Her Britannic Majesty's Consulate General,

New York, March 24, 1893.

SIR,

I HAVE the honour to send you herewith enclosed, in accordance with instructions received from the Earl of Rosebery, a report on the subject of alien immigration into the United States so far as it relates to this consular district, for the information of Messrs. Schloss and Burnett, the special commissioners now on a visit to this country, with respect to that question.

I have, &c.

(Signed) WM. LANE BOOKER.

Sir Julian Pauncefote, G.C.B., G.C.M.G.,
H.M.'s Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary,
Washington, D.C.

* The document referred to was the Treasury Department publication of March 11, 1893, already referred to.

[Enclosure.]

REPORT ON QUARANTINE AND ALIEN IMMIGRATION INTO THE UNITED STATES, SO FAR AS IT RELATES TO THE CONSULAR DISTRICT OF NEW YORK.

Quarantine at New York established by laws of New York State, 1863, chap. 358.

Equipment of station and floating hospital.

Detention of vessels at floating hospital and at quarantine.

Laws strictly enforced.

Vaccination.

Diseases classed as quarantinable.

Powers and duties of health officer.

Duty of 50 cents on each passenger levied by Act of Congress of August 3rd, 1882.

Supervision of immigration in United States given to Secretary of Treasury.

Act of 26th February, 1885 first prohibited importation of immigrants to perform labour under contract. Contract labour to be returned at expense of owner of ship bringing them.

Secretary of Treasury can return contract labourer within one year after landing.

Persons prohibited from admission to United States.

Those guilty of political offences admitted.

The establishment of a quarantine for the harbour and port of New York for all vessels, their crews, passengers, equipage, cargoes, and other property on board of the same, arriving thereat, exists under the laws of the State of New York, 1863, cap. 358, section 1.

Sections 2 to 7 provide for the construction, equipment, location, &c. of the station, and of a floating hospital.

Section 8, as amended by the laws of 1865, cap. 592, section 1, stipulates that, from the 1st of April to the 1st of November, vessels arriving from a port where disease subject to quarantine is known to exist, or if any such disease should have occurred during the voyage, must anchor in the vicinity of the floating hospital, anchored in the lower bay below the narrows, and (section 9) there remain for at least 30 days after their arrival, and at least 20 days after their cargo shall have been discharged, unless the health officer shall grant a permit to proceed; and vessels from foreign ports and where disease is not known to exist shall be visited by the health officer and detained, should quarantinable disease be found on board, for such period as the officer may determine.

These laws are enforced, and so far as the anchoring of the vessel is concerned, are carried into effect strictly; but vessels are seldom detained for the prescribed period.

Section 10 provides for the vaccination of persons with insufficient evidence of effective vaccination, and known to have been recently exposed to small-pox.

Section 11 stipulates that yellow fever, cholera, typhus, or ship fever, and small-pox, and any new disease not now known of a contagious, infectious, or pestilential nature, are the diseases subject to quarantine.

The subsequent sections relate to the sanitary measures to be employed when merchandize should be landed, the powers and duties of the health officer, &c.

The Act of Congress of August 3rd, 1882, levied a duty of 50 cents on each and every passenger, not a citizen of the United States, arriving in the United States from a foreign port, to be paid to the collector of Customs of the collection district at which the vessel arrives.

Section 2 of this Act gives supervision to the Secretary of the Treasury over the immigration business of the United States.

The first Act passed by Congress prohibiting the importation and immigration of foreigners and aliens under contract to perform labour in the United States, its Territories, and the District of Columbia, was that of the 26th of February, 1885.

An amendatory Act, approved February 23rd, 1887, places the execution of the first Act in the hands of the Secretary of the Treasury, and provides that persons brought into the United States in contravention thereof shall be returned to the country from which they came at the expense of the owners of the vessels bringing them.

An amendment to the Act of February 23rd, 1887, was approved, and gives power to the Secretary of the Treasury to take into custody, one year after landing, and return to the country from whence he came, any person who may have entered the United States, its Territories, or District of Columbia, contrary to the provisions of the Act of February 23rd, 1887.

The Act passed by Congress and approved March 3rd, 1891, entitled "An Act in amendment to the various Acts relative to immigration and the importation of aliens under contract to perform labour," prohibits the admission of "idiots, insane persons, paupers, or persons likely to become a public charge, persons suffering from a loathsome or dangerous contagious disease, who have been convicted of felony or other infamous crime or misdemeanour, polygamists," but does not include persons convicted of a political offence, notwithstanding such offence is designated as a crime by the laws of the country where such offence was committed.

Section 5 of this Act amends section 5 of the Act of February 26th, 1885, and admits ministers of any religious denomination, persons belonging to any recognized profession, and professors for colleges and seminaries.

Section 7 of this Act authorizes the President to appoint a Superintendent of Immigration.

The preceding laws have been strictly enforced since their enactment.

"An Act to facilitate the enforcement of the immigration and contract labour laws of the United States," approved 3rd March, 1893, and which comes into force on the 3rd May, 1893, imposes on the masters of vessels bringing immigrants to the United States the duty of providing lists, and in each list not more than 30 names, and must contain replies to 19 questions respecting each passenger as to age, sex, occupation, &c.

On the 1st of September, 1892, the President of the United States, by virtue of the authority of an Act of Congress, approved March 3rd, 1879, issued a Proclamation ordering that all vessels bringing immigrants into the United States be detained at Quarantine for 20 days. This had the effect of practically stopping immigration, and it has only now begun to be resumed in volume.

The Act of Congress of 15th February, 1893, repeals that of March, 1879, but power is still given by it to the President, when he is satisfied that there is danger of cholera or other infectious disease being introduced into the United States, to prohibit the introduction of persons or property from such countries or places as he shall designate, and for such period as he shall deem necessary.

Vessels arriving with passengers from Europe and the other countries mentioned in this Act (15th February, 1893) must comply with the requirements as to bills of health, inspection of crew and passengers, &c. before departure from port, and with the quarantine regulations of the Treasury Department of 24th February, 1893, and, should the sanitary condition of the vessel be satisfactory to the State health officer at Quarantine in this harbour, the ship will be permitted to land her passengers.

By a Department Order, issued on the 13th of March, 1893, the inspection of passengers taken on board vessels at intermediate foreign ports, and subject to inspection under the provisions of Article 1 of the Regulations of the Treasury of 24th February, 1893, shall be made by a consular officer of the United States. Should there be no consular officer at the port, the inspection shall be made by the local health officer.

These are the requirements now in force.

By an arrangement between the New York State and the Federal quarantine authorities, vessels at present passed by the State health officer at Quarantine are not subjected to examination by the United States officials.

It is thought by the agents of the large steamship companies that the examination of immigrants at the port of embarkation proposed by the Act of 15th February, 1893 will have the effect of eliminating undesirable and prohibited persons from among the passengers, and, consequently, save the companies great trouble and expense on the arrival of their vessels at New York.

The examination, however, of cabin passengers prescribed by that Act will, it is believed, cause a serious falling off in the number of that class of passengers to the United States.

The statistics of immigration from Canada across the northern boundary of the United States have not been published since the year 1885, and there being no British consular at any of the ports within this consular district where immigrants would enter, it is not possible to give the information desired. It is thought that the approximate number, &c. can be obtained at the Bureau of Immigration at Washington.

It will be seen from the foregoing that the only New York State law affecting immigration is the Quarantine Law of 1863, with its amendments. Other laws are Federal, and all, I believe, are referred to in this report.

Immigrants do not come by sea into any port of my district except this, and I am not aware of any State law affecting immigration existing in Rhode Island, Connecticut, and New Jersey, but in Delaware there is a law requiring a licence from the State authorities, and a payment of (\$1) one dollar per head.

Ministers of religious denominations, professional men admitted.

Appointment of Superintendent of Immigration.

Laws enforced.

Masters of ships bringing immigrants must provide lists containing 30 names in each.

President's proclamation of 1st September, 1892, imposing 20 days' quarantine.

Immigration practically stopped.

Power of the President to prohibit the landing of passengers.

Bills of health and inspection of crew and passengers at port of departure.

United States Consular officer to inspect passengers at intermediate ports.

Local health officer may inspect.

Vessels passed by New York State health officers not inspected by United States officials.

Examination of immigrants at port of departure approved by steamship agents.

Examination of cabin passengers not approved of.

Statistics of immigration from Canada cannot be given.

New York the only port of consular district where immigrants come by sea.

(Signed) WM. LANE BOOKER,
Consul-General.

APPENDIX D.

TEXT OF PRINCIPAL LAWS AND REGULATIONS AFFECTING THE
IMMIGRATION INTO, AND EXCLUSION OF FOREIGNERS FROM
THE UNITED STATES.*

PART I.

FEDERAL LAWS AND REGULATIONS RELATING TO GENERAL
IMMIGRATION.

AN ACT to Regulate Immigration.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That there shall be levied, collected, and paid a duty of fifty cents for each and every passenger not a citizen of the United States who shall come by steam or sail vessel from a foreign port to any port within the United States. The said duty shall be paid to the collector of customs of the port to which such passenger shall come, or if there be no collector at such port, then to the collector of customs nearest thereto, by the master, owner, agent, or consignee of every such vessel, within twenty-four hours after the entry thereof into such port. The money thus collected shall be paid into the United States Treasury, and shall constitute a fund to be called the immigrant fund, and shall be used, under the direction of the Secretary of the Treasury, to defray the expense of regulating immigration under this Act, and for the care of immigrants arriving in the United States, for the relief of such as are in distress, and for the general purposes and expenses of carrying this Act into effect. The duty imposed by this section shall be a lien upon the vessels which shall bring such passengers into the United States, and shall be a debt in favour of the United States against the owner or owners of such vessels; and the payment of such duty may be enforced by any legal or equitable remedy. *Provided,* That no greater sum shall be expended for the purposes herein-before mentioned, at any port, than shall have been collected at such port.

Section 2. That the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby charged with the duty of executing the provisions of this Act and with supervision over the business of immigration to the United States, and for that purpose he shall have power to enter into contracts with such State commission, board, or officers as may be designated for that purpose by the governor of any State to take charge of the local affairs of immigration in the ports within said State, and to provide for the support and relief of such immigrants therein landing as may fall into distress or need public aid, under the rules and regulations to be prescribed by said Secretary; and it shall be the duty of such State commission, board, or officers so designated to examine into the condition of passengers arriving at the ports within such State in any ship or vessel, and for that purpose all or any of such commissioners or officers or such other person or persons as they shall appoint, shall be authorized to go on board of and through any such ship or vessel; and if on such examination there shall be found among such passengers any convict, lunatic, idiot, or any person unable to take care of himself or herself without becoming a public charge, they shall report the same in writing to the collector of such port, and such person shall not be permitted to land.

Section 3. That the Secretary of the Treasury shall establish such regulations and rules and issue from time to time such instructions not inconsistent with law as he shall deem best calculated to protect the United States and immigrants into the United States from fraud and loss, and for carrying out the provisions of this Act and the immigration laws of the United States; and he

* It has not appeared necessary to set forth the laws prohibiting the importation of coolies, of persons inveigled or kidnapped for servitude, and of women brought in for the purposes of prostitution, and the immigration of persons undergoing sentence for felonious crimes (other than political), or whose sentence had been remitted on condition of their emigration.

shall prescribe all forms of bonds, entries, and other papers to be used under and in the enforcement of the various provisions of this Act.

Section 4. That all foreign convicts except those convicted of political offences, upon arrival, shall be sent back to the nations to which they belong and from whence they came. The Secretary of the Treasury may designate the State board of charities of any state in which such board shall exist by law, or any commission in any State, or any person or persons in any State whose duty it shall be to execute the provisions of this section without compensation. The Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe regulations for the return of the aforesaid persons to the countries from whence they came, and shall furnish instructions to the board, commission, or persons charged with the execution of the provisions of this section as to the mode of procedure in respect thereto, and may change such instructions from time to time. The expense of such return of the aforesaid persons not permitted to land shall be borne by the owners of the vessels in which they came.

Section 5. That this Act shall take effect immediately.

Approved, August 3, 1832 (22 Stat., 214).

Act of June 26, 1884 (23 Stat. 53), section 22, exempting from tax passengers arriving by vessels employed in the trade between the United States and Dominion of Canada and Mexico.

That until the provisions of section one, chapter three hundred and seventy-six, of the laws of eighteen hundred and eighty-two, shall be made applicable to passengers coming into the United States by land carriage, said provisions shall not apply to passengers coming by vessels employed exclusively in the trade between the ports of the United States and the ports of the Dominion of Canada or the ports of Mexico.

AN ACT to prohibit the importation and immigration of foreigners and aliens under contract or agreement to perform labour in the United States, its Territories, and the District of Columbia.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That from and after the passage of this Act it shall be unlawful for any person, company, partnership, or corporation, in any manner whatsoever, to prepay the transportation, or in way assist or encourage the importation or migration of any alien or aliens, any foreigner or foreigners, into the United States, its Territories, or the District of Columbia, under contract or agreement, parol or special, express or implied, made previous to the importation or migration of such alien or aliens, foreigner or foreigners, to perform labour or service of any kind in the United States, its Territories, or the District of Columbia.

Section 2. That all contracts or agreements, express or implied, parol or special, which may hereafter be made by and between any person, company, partnership, or corporation, and any foreigner or foreigners, alien or aliens, to perform labour or service or having reference to the performance of labour or service by any person in the United States, its Territories, or the District of Columbia, previous to the migration or importation of the person or persons whose labour or service is contracted for into the United States, shall be utterly void and of no effect.

Section 3. That for every violation of any of the provisions of section one of this Act the person, partnership, company, or corporation violating the same, by knowingly assisting, encouraging or soliciting the migration or importation of any alien or aliens, foreigner or foreigners, into the United States, its Territories, or the District of Columbia, to perform labour or service of any kind under contract or agreement, express or implied, parol or special, with such alien or aliens, foreigner or foreigners, previous to becoming residents or citizens of the United States, shall forfeit and pay for every such offence the sum of one thousand dollars, which may be sued for and recovered by the United States or by any person who shall first bring his action therefor, including any such alien or foreigner who may be a party to any such contract or agreement, as debts of like amount are now recovered in the circuit courts

of the United States; the proceeds to be paid into the Treasury of the United States; and separate suits may be brought for each alien or foreigner being a party to such contract or agreement aforesaid. And it shall be the duty of the district attorney of the proper district to prosecute every such suit at the expense of the United States.

Section 4. That the master of any vessel who shall knowingly bring within the United States on any such vessel, and land, or permit to be landed, from any foreign port or place, any alien labourer, mechanic, or artizan who, previous to embarkation on such vessel, had entered into contract or agreement, parol or special, express or implied, to perform labour or service in the United States, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanour, and on conviction thereof, shall be punished by a fine of not more than five hundred dollars for each and every such alien labourer, mechanic or artizan so brought as aforesaid, and may also be imprisoned for a term not exceeding six months.

Section 5. That nothing in this Act shall be so construed as to prevent any citizen or subject of any foreign country temporarily residing in the United States, either in private or official capacity, from engaging, under contract or otherwise, persons not residents or citizens of the United States to act as private secretaries, servants, or domestics for such foreigner temporarily residing in the United States as aforesaid; nor shall this Act be so construed as to prevent any person, or persons, partnership, or corporation from engaging, under contract or agreement, skilled workmen in foreign countries to perform labour in the United States in or upon any new industry not at present established in the United States: *Provided*, That skilled labour for that purpose cannot be otherwise obtained; nor shall the provisions of this Act apply to professional actors, artists, lecturers, or singers, nor to persons employed strictly as personal or domestic servants: *Provided*, That nothing in this Act shall be construed as prohibiting any individual from assisting any member of his family or any relative or personal friend, to migrate from any foreign country to the United States, for the purpose of settlement here.

Section 6. That all laws or parts of laws conflicting herewith be, and the same are hereby, repealed.

Approved, February 26, 1885 (23 Stat., 332).

AN ACT to amend an Act to prohibit the importation and immigration of foreigners and aliens under contract or agreement to perform labour in the United States, its Territories, and the District of Columbia.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That an Act to prohibit the importation and immigration of foreigners and aliens under contract or agreement to perform labour in the United States, its Territories, and the District of Columbia, approved February twenty-sixth, eighteen hundred and eighty-five, and to provide for the enforcement thereof, be amended by adding the following:

“Section 6. That the Secretary of the Treasury is hereby charged with the duty of executing the provisions of this Act, and for that purpose he shall have power to enter into contracts with such State commission, board, or officers as may be designated for that purpose, by the governor of any State to take charge of the local affairs of immigration in the ports within said State, under the rules and regulations to be prescribed by said Secretary; and it shall be the duty of such State commission, board, or officers so designated to examine into the condition of passengers arriving at the ports within such State in any ship or vessel, and for that purpose all or any of such commissioners or officers, or such other person or persons as they shall appoint, shall be authorized to go on board of and through any such ship or vessel; and if in such examination there shall be found among such passengers any person included in the prohibition in this Act, they shall report the same in writing to the collector of such port, and such person shall not be permitted to land.

“Section 7. That the Secretary of the Treasury shall establish such regulations and rules, and issue from time to time such instructions, not inconsistent with law, as he shall deem best calculated for carrying out the provisions of this Act; and he shall prescribe all forms of bonds, entries, and other papers to be used under and in the enforcement of the various provisions of this Act.

"Section 8. That all persons included in the prohibition in this Act, upon arrival, shall be sent back to the nations to which they belong and from whence they came. The Secretary of the Treasury may designate the State board of charities of any State in which such board shall exist by law, or any commission in any State, or any person or persons in any State, whose duty it shall be to execute the provisions of this section and shall be entitled to reasonable compensation therefor to be fixed by regulation prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury. The Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe regulations for the return of the aforesaid persons to the countries from whence they came, and shall furnish instructions to the board, commission, or persons charged with the execution of the provisions of this section as to the time of procedure in respect thereto, and may change such instructions from time to time. The expense of such return of the aforesaid persons not permitted to land shall be borne by the owners of the vessels in which they came. And any vessel refusing to pay such expenses shall not thereafter be permitted to land at or clear from any port of the United States. And such expenses shall be a lien on said vessel. That the necessary expense in the execution of this Act for the present fiscal year, shall be paid out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated.

"Section 9. That all Acts and parts of Acts inconsistent with this Act are hereby repealed.

"Section 10. That this Act shall take effect at the expiration of thirty days after its passage."

Approved, February 23, 1837 (24 Stat., 414).

AMENDMENTS TO THE ALIEN CONTRACT-LABOUR LAW CONTAINED IN THE DEFICIENCY BILL, APPROVED OCTOBER 19, 1888 (25 STAT., 566).

That the Act approved February twenty-third, eighteen hundred and eighty-seven, entitled "An Act to amend an Act to prohibit the importation and immigration of foreigners and aliens under contract or agreement to perform labour in the United States, its Territories, and the District of Columbia," be, and the same is hereby, so amended as to authorize the Secretary of the Treasury, in case that he shall be satisfied that an immigrant has been allowed to land contrary to the prohibition of that law, to cause such immigrant within the period of one year after landing or entry, to be taken into custody and returned to the country from whence he came, at the expense of the owner of the importing vessel; or, if he entered from an adjoining country, at the expense of the person previously contracting for the services.

That the Act approved February twenty-sixth, eighteen hundred and eighty-five, entitled "An Act to prohibit the importation and migration of foreigners and aliens under contract or agreement to perform labour in the United States, its Territories, and the District of Columbia," be, and the same is hereby, amended so as to authorize the Secretary of the Treasury to pay an informer who furnishes original information that the law has been violated such a share of the penalties recovered as he may deem reasonable and just, not exceeding fifty per centum, where it appears that the recovery was had in consequence of the information thus furnished.

AN ACT in amendment to the various Acts relative to Immigration and the Importation of Aliens under contract or agreement to perform labour.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the following classes of aliens shall be excluded from admission into the United States, in accordance with the existing Acts regulating immigration, other than those concerning Chinese labourers: All idiots, insane persons, paupers or persons likely to become a public charge, persons suffering from a loathsome or a dangerous contagious disease, persons who have been convicted of a felony or other infamous crime or misdemeanour involving moral turpitude, polygamists, and also any person whose ticket or passage is paid for with the money of another or who is assisted by others to come, unless it is affirmatively and satisfactorily shown on special inquiry that such person does not belong to one of the foregoing excluded classes, or to the class of contract labourers excluded by the Act of

February twenty-sixth, eighteen hundred and eighty-five, but this section shall not be held to exclude persons living in the United States from sending for a relative or a friend who is not of the excluded classes under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe: *Provided*, That nothing in this Act shall be construed to apply to or exclude persons convicted of a political offence, notwithstanding said political offence may be designated as a "felony, crime, infamous crime, or misdemeanour, involving moral turpitude" by the laws of the land whence he came or by the court convicting.

Section 2. That no suit or proceeding for violations of said Act of February twenty-sixth, eighteen hundred and eighty-five, prohibiting the importation and migration of foreigners under contract or agreement to perform labour shall be settled, compromised, or discontinued without the consent of the court entered of record with reasons therefor.

Section 3 That it shall be deemed a violation of said Act of February twenty-sixth, eighteen hundred and eighty-five, to assist or encourage the importation or migration of any alien by promise of employment through advertisements printed and published in any foreign country; and any alien coming to this country in consequence of such an advertisement shall be treated as coming under a contract as contemplated by such Act; and the penalties by said Act imposed shall be applicable in such a case: *Provided*, This section shall not apply to States and immigration bureaus of States advertising the inducements they offer for immigration to such States.

Section 4. That no steamship or transportation company or owners of vessels shall directly, or through agents, either by writing, printing, or oral representations, solicit, invite or encourage the immigration of any alien into the United States except by ordinary commercial letters, circulars, advertisements, or oral representations, stating the sailings of their vessels and the terms and facilities of transportation therein; and for a violation of this provision any such steamship or transportation company, and any such owners of vessels, and the agents by them employed, shall be subjected to the penalties imposed by the third section of said Act of February twenty-sixth, eighteen hundred and eighty-five, for violations of the provisions of the first section of said Act.

Section 5. That section five of said Act of February twenty-sixth, eighteen hundred and eighty-five, shall be, and hereby is, amended by adding to the second proviso in said section the words "nor to ministers of any religious denomination, nor persons belonging to any recognized profession, nor professors for colleges and seminaries," and by excluding from the second proviso of said section the words "or any relative or personal friend."

Section 6. That any person who shall bring into or land in the United States by vessel or otherwise, or who shall aid to bring into or land in the United States by vessel or otherwise, any alien not lawfully entitled to enter the United States shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanour, and shall, on conviction, be punished by a fine not exceeding one thousand dollars, or by imprisonment for a term not exceeding one year, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

Section 7. That the office of superintendent of immigration is hereby created and established, and the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, is authorized and directed to appoint such officer, whose salary shall be four thousand dollars per annum, payable monthly. The superintendent of immigration shall be an officer in the Treasury Department, under the control and supervision of the Secretary of the Treasury, to whom he shall make annual reports in writing of the transactions of his office, together with such special reports, in writing, as the Secretary of the Treasury shall require. The Secretary shall provide the superintendent with a suitably furnished office in the city of Washington, and with such books of record and facilities for the discharge of the duties of his office as may be necessary. He shall have a chief clerk at a salary of two thousand dollars per annum, and two first-class clerks.

Section 8. That upon the arrival by water at any place within the United States of any alien immigrants it shall be the duty of the commanding officer and the agents of the steam or sailing vessel by which they came to report the name, nationality, last residence, and destination of every such alien, before any of them are landed, to the proper inspection officers, who shall thereupon

go or send competent assistants on board such vessel and there inspect all such aliens, or the inspection officers may order a temporary removal of such aliens for examination at a designated time and place, and then and there detain them until a thorough inspection is made. But such a removal shall not be considered a landing during the pendency of such examination. The medical examination shall be made by surgeons of the Marine-Hospital Service. In cases where the services of a marine-hospital surgeon can not be obtained without causing unreasonable delay, the inspector may cause an alien to be examined by a civil surgeon and the Secretary of the Treasury shall fix the compensation for such examination. The inspection officers and their assistants shall have power to administer oaths, and to take and consider testimony touching the right of any such aliens to enter the United States, all of which shall be entered of record. During such inspection after temporary removal the superintendent shall cause such aliens to be properly housed, fed, and cared for, and also, in his discretion, such as are delayed in proceeding to their destination after inspection. All decisions made by the inspection officers or their assistants touching the right of any alien to land, when adverse to such right, shall be final unless appeal be taken to the superintendent of immigration, whose action shall be subject to review by the Secretary of the Treasury. It shall be the duty of the aforesaid officers and agents of such vessel to adopt due precautions to prevent the landing of any alien immigrant at any place or time other than that designated by the inspection officers, and any such officer or agent or person in charge of such vessel who shall either knowingly or negligently land or permit to land any alien immigrant at any place or time other than that designated by the inspection officers, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanour and punished by a fine not exceeding one thousand dollars, or by imprisonment for a term not exceeding one year, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

That the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe rules for inspection along the borders of Canada, British Columbia, and Mexico so as not to obstruct or unnecessarily delay, impede, or annoy passengers in ordinary travel between said countries: *Provided*, That not exceeding one inspector shall be appointed for each customs district, and whose salary shall not exceed twelve hundred dollars per year.

All duties imposed and powers conferred by the second section of the Act of August third, eighteen hundred and eighty-two, upon State commissions, boards, or officers acting under contract with the Secretary of the Treasury shall be performed and exercised, as occasion may arise, by the inspection officers of the United States.

Section 9. That for the preservation of the peace and in order that arrests may be made for crimes under the laws of the States where the various United States immigrant stations are located, the officials in charge of such stations on occasion may require shall admit therein the proper State and municipal officers charged with the enforcement of such laws, and for the purposes of this section the jurisdiction of such officers and of the local courts shall extend over such stations.

Section 10. That all aliens who may unlawfully come into the United States shall, if practicable, be immediately sent back on the vessel by which they were brought in. The cost of their maintenance while on land, as well as the expense of the return of such aliens, shall be borne by the owner or owners of the vessel on which such aliens came; and if any master, agent, consignee, or owner of such vessel shall refuse to receive back on board the vessel such aliens, or shall neglect to detain them thereon, or shall refuse or neglect to return them to the port from which they came, or to pay the cost of their maintenance while on land, such master, agent, consignee, or owner shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanour, and shall be punished by a fine not less than three hundred dollars for each and every offence; and any such vessel shall not have clearance from any port of the United States while any such fine is unpaid.

Section 11. That any such alien who shall come into the United States in violation of law may be returned as by law provided, at any time within one year thereafter, at the expense of the person or persons, vessel, transportation company, or corporation bringing such alien into the United States, and if that cannot be done, then at the expense of the United States; and any alien who

becomes a public charge within one year after his arrival in the United States from causes existing prior to his landing therein shall be deemed to have come in violation of law and shall be returned as aforesaid.

Section 12. That nothing contained in this Act shall be construed to affect any prosecution or other proceeding, criminal or civil, begun under any existing Act or any Acts hereby amended, but such prosecution or other proceedings, criminal or civil, shall proceed as if this Act had not been passed.

Section 13. That the circuit and district courts of the United States are hereby invested with full and concurrent jurisdiction of all causes, civil and criminal, arising under any of the provisions of this Act; and this Act shall go into effect on the first day of April, eighteen hundred and ninety-one.

Approved, March 3, 1891 (26 Stat., 1084).

JOINT RESOLUTION of CONGRESS authorizing foreign exhibitors at the World's Columbian Exposition to bring to this country foreign labourers from their respective countries for the purpose of preparing for and making their exhibits.

** Resolved by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the Act of Congress approved February twenty-sixth, eighteen hundred and eighty-five, prohibiting the importation of foreigners under contract to perform labour, and the Acts of Congress prohibiting the coming of Chinese persons into the United States, and the Acts amendatory of these Acts, shall not be so construed nor shall anything therein operate to prevent, hinder, or in anywise restrict any foreign exhibitor, representative, or citizen of a foreign nation or the holder who is a citizen of a foreign nation of any concession or privilege from the World's Columbian Exposition, from bringing into the United States under contract, such mechanics, artisans, agents, or other employees, natives of their respective foreign countries, as they, or any of them, may deem necessary for the purpose of making preparation for installing or conducting their exhibits or of preparing for installing or conducting any business authorized or permitted under or by virtue of or pertaining to any concession or privilege which may have been granted by the World's Columbian Exposition in connection with such Exposition: *Provided, however,* That no alien shall by virtue of this Act enter the United States under contract to perform labour except by express permission, naming such alien, of the Secretary of the Treasury; and any such alien who may remain in the United States for more than one year after the close of said Exposition shall thereafter be subject to all the processes and penalties applicable to aliens coming in violation of the Alien Contract Labour Laws aforesaid.*

Approved, August 5, 1892.

AN ACT to facilitate the enforcement of the immigration and contract-labour laws of the United States.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That, in addition to conforming to all present requirements of law, upon the arrival of any alien immigrants by water at any port within the United States, it shall be the duty of the master or commanding officer of the steamer or sailing vessel having said immigrants on board to deliver to the proper inspector of immigration at the port lists or manifests made at the time and place of embarkation of such alien immigrants on board such steamer or vessel, which shall, in answer to questions at the top of said lists, state as to each immigrant the full name, age, and sex, whether married or single; the calling or occupation; whether able to read or write; the nationality; the last residence; the seaport for landing in the United States; the final destination, if any, beyond the seaport of landing; whether having a ticket through to such final destination; whether the immigrant has paid his own passage or whether it has been paid by other persons or by any corporation, society, municipality, or government; whether in possession of

* Preamble omitted.

money, and if so, whether upwards of thirty dollars and how much if thirty dollars or less; whether going to join a relative, and if so, what relative and his name and address; whether ever before in the United States, and if so, when and where; whether ever in prison or almshouse or supported by charity; whether a polygamist; whether under contract, express or implied, to perform labour in the United States; and what is the immigrant's condition of health mentally and physically, and whether deformed or crippled, and if so, from what cause.

Section 2. That the immigrants shall be listed in convenient groups and no one list or manifest shall contain more than thirty names. To each immigrant or head of a family shall be given a ticket on which shall be written his name, a number or letter designating the list, and his number on the list, for convenience of identification on arrival. Each list or manifest shall be verified by the signature and the oath or affirmation of the master or commanding officer or of the officer first or second below him in command, taken before the United States consul or consular agent at the port of departure, before the sailing of said vessel, to the effect that he has made a personal examination of each and all of the passengers named therein, and that he has caused the surgeon of said vessel sailing therewith to make a physical examination of each of said passengers, and that from his personal inspection and the report of said surgeon he believes that no one of said passengers is an idiot or insane person, or a pauper or likely to become a public charge, or suffering from a loathsome or dangerous contagious disease, or a person who has been convicted of a felony or other infamous crime or misdemeanour involving moral turpitude, or a polygamist, or under a contract or agreement, express or implied, to perform labour in the United States, and that also, according to the best of his knowledge and belief, the information in said list or manifest concerning each of said passengers named therein is correct and true.

Section 3. That the surgeon of said vessel sailing therewith shall also sign each of said lists or manifests before the departure of said vessel, and make oath or affirmation in like manner before said consul or consular agent, stating his professional experience and qualifications as a physician and surgeon, and that he has made a personal examination of each of the passengers named therein and that said list or manifest, according to the best of his knowledge and belief, is full, correct, and true in all particulars relative to the mental and physical condition of said passengers. If no surgeon sails with any vessel bringing alien immigrants, the mental and physical examinations and the verifications of the lists or manifests may be made by some competent surgeon employed by the owners of the vessel.

Section 4. That in the case of the failure of said master or commanding officer of said vessel to deliver to the said inspector of immigration lists or manifests, verified as aforesaid, containing the information above required as to all alien immigrants on board, there shall be paid to the collector of customs at the port of arrival the sum of ten dollars for each immigrant qualified to enter the United States concerning whom the above information is not contained in any list as aforesaid, or said immigrant shall not be permitted so to enter the United States, but shall be returned like other excluded persons.

Section 5. That it shall be the duty of every inspector of arriving alien immigrants to detain for a special inquiry, under section one of the Immigration Act of March third, eighteen hundred and ninety-one, every person who may not appear to him to be clearly and beyond doubt entitled to admission, and all special inquiries shall be conducted by not less than four officials acting as inspectors, to be designated in writing by the Secretary of the Treasury or the superintendent of immigration, for conducting special inquiries; and no immigrant shall be admitted upon special inquiry except after a favourable decision made by at least three of said inspectors; and any decision to admit shall be subject to appeal by any dissenting inspector to the superintendent of immigration, whose action shall be subject to review by the Secretary of the Treasury, as provided in section eight of said Immigration Act of March third, eighteen hundred and ninety-one.

Section 6. That section five of the Act of March third, eighteen hundred and ninety-one, "in amendment of the various acts relative to immigration and the importation of aliens under contract or agreement to perform labour." is hereby amended by striking out the words "second proviso" where they first

occur in said section and inserting the words "first proviso" in their place; and section eight of said Act is hereby so amended that the medical examinations of arriving immigrants to be made by surgeons of the Marine-Hospital Service may be made by any regular medical officers of such Marine-Hospital Service detailed therefore by the Secretary of the Treasury; and civil surgeons shall only be employed temporarily from time to time for specific emergencies.

Section 7. That no bond or guaranty, written or oral, that an alien immigrant shall not become a public charge shall be received from any person, company, corporation, charitable or benevolent society or association, unless authority to receive the same shall in each special case be given by the Superintendent of Immigration, with the written approval of the Secretary of the Treasury.

Section 8. That all steamship or transportation companies, and other owners of vessels, regularly engaged in transporting alien immigrants to the United States, shall twice a year file a certificate with the Secretary of the Treasury that they have furnished to be kept conspicuously exposed to view in the office of each of their agents in foreign countries authorized to sell emigrant tickets, a copy of the law of March third, eighteen hundred and ninety-one, and of all subsequent laws of this country relative to immigration, printed in large letters, in the language of the country where the copy of the law is to be exposed to view, and that they have instructed their agents to call the attention thereto of persons contemplating emigration before selling tickets to them; and in case of the failure for sixty days of any such company or any such owners to file such a certificate, or in case they file a false certificate, they shall pay a fine of not exceeding five hundred dollars, to be recovered in the proper United States court, and said fine shall also be a lien upon any vessel of said company or owners found within the United States.

Section 9. That after the first day of January, eighteen hundred and ninety-three, all exclusive privileges of exchanging money, transporting passengers or baggage, or keeping eating-houses, and all other like privileges in connection with the Ellis Island immigrant station, shall be disposed of after public competition, subject to such conditions and limitations as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe.

Section 10. That this Act shall not apply to Chinese persons; and shall take effect as to vessels departing from foreign ports for ports within the United States after sixty days from the passage of this Act.

Approved, March 3, 1893.

REGULATIONS RELATING TO GENERAL IMMIGRATION.

REGULATION OF IMMIGRATION.

Treasury Department, Office of the Secretary,
Washington, D.C., April 25, 1893.

Article 1. Collectors of customs will collect, as provided in section 1 of the Act of August 3, 1882, a duty of 50 cents for each and every passenger not a citizen of the United States who shall come by steam or sail vessel from a foreign port to any port of the United States, except such vessels as are employed exclusively between the ports of the United States and the ports of the Dominion of Canada or of the ports of Mexico, as provided in section 22 of the Act of June 26, 1884.

Article 2. All such moneys collected must be deposited to the credit of the Treasurer of the United States on account of "Immigrant fund" with an assistant treasurer of the United States, or national bank depository, in the same manner as other miscellaneous collections are reported. Separate accounts of the receipts and expenditures of money under the Act must be rendered monthly to the Secretary of the Treasury, on forms to be furnished by the Government for the purpose.

Article 3. Collectors of customs on the Canadian frontier, and at all points where commissioners of immigration are not employed, are charged within their respective districts with the execution of the laws pertaining to immigration, and all importation of labourers under contract or agreement to perform

labour in the United States. They will employ all customs, immigration, and other officers assigned to them for duty in the enforcement of the immigration Acts; and all such officers are hereby designated and authorized to act as immigration officers.

Article 4. Whenever it shall be necessary, in making the examination of immigrants, to temporarily remove them from the vessel upon which they arrived to a desirable place provided for the examination, such immigrants shall not be regarded as landed so long as they are undergoing the examination, and are in charge of the officers whose duty it is to make such examination; and such removal shall not be considered a landing during the pendency of any question relating to such examination, or while awaiting their return as provided by law.

Article 5. The commissioner of immigration shall enter of record the name of every immigrant found upon examination to be within either of the prohibited classes, with a statement of the decision in each case, and at the same time give notice in writing to the master, agent, consignee, or owner of the vessel upon which such immigrant arrived, together with the grounds of refusal to land such immigrant, that said vessel is required to return such immigrant to the port whence he came.

Article 6. The regular examination of immigrants under the special inquiry required by statute will be separate from the public, but any immigrant who is refused permission to land, or pending an appeal in his case, will be permitted to confer with friends or counsel in such manner as the commissioner may deem proper.

Article 7. Any immigrant claiming to be aggrieved by the decision of the inspection officers may appeal therefrom, and such appeal shall stay his deportation until decision shall be had thereon. Such appeal shall be in writing, and shall specify the grounds of appeal, and shall be presented to the commissioner, who shall at once forward such appeal to the Department with all the evidence in the case and his views thereon.

Any examining inspector dissenting from a decision to admit an immigrant may appeal therefrom, which appeal shall be in writing and specify the grounds thereof, and shall be forwarded by the commissioner to the Department in like manner as in cases of an appeal by an immigrant.

Article 8. Upon a decision of the appeal the immigrant shall be at once landed or deported in accordance with such decision, and, in case landing is refused, the master, agent, consignee, or owner of the vessel by which the immigrant arrived shall be notified of such decision by the commissioner, and that the immigrant will be placed on board said vessel to be returned as aforesaid.

Article 9. The expenses for the keeping and maintenance of such immigrants as are ordered to be returned pending the decision of their right to land and the subsequent expenses for the keeping and maintenance of those ordered to be returned, and the expense of their return shall be borne by the owner or owners of the vessel on which they came.

Article 10. At least twenty-four hours before the sailing of the vessel upon which immigrants are ordered to be returned, the master, agent, consignee, or owner of such vessel shall notify the commissioner of the proposed hour of sailing, who shall thereupon place on board all immigrants to be returned by such vessel as aforesaid, and in case any master, agent, consignee, or owner of such vessel shall refuse to receive such immigrants on board, or shall neglect to retain them thereon, or shall refuse or neglect to return them to the port from which they came, or to pay the cost of their maintenance while on land, such master, agent, consignee, or owner shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall be punished by a fine of not less than \$300 for each and every offence, and any such vessel shall not have clearance from any port of the United States while any such fine is unpaid.

Article 11. No vessel bringing immigrants in the steerage or in apartments other than in the first or second cabin, from ports where contagious or infectious diseases are prevailing, shall be admitted to entry unless it appear by the certificate of the consular officer at such port that said immigrants have been detained at the port of embarkation at least five days under medical observation in specially designated barracks or houses set apart for their exclusive

use, and that their clothing, baggage, and personal effects have been disinfected before being placed on board by one of the following methods:--

(1.) Boiling in water not less than thirty minutes.
 (2.) Exposure to steam not less than thirty minutes, the steam to be of a temperature not less than 100° C. (212° F.), nor greater than 115° C. (239° F.), and unmixed with air.

(3.) Solution of carbolic acid of a 2 per cent. strength.

This method (No. 3) may be applied only to leather goods, such as trunks, satchels, boots, shoes; to rubber goods, &c., the articles to be saturated with the solution.

(4.) Articles that would be destroyed or injured when subjected to any of the above methods may be disinfected by immersion in solution of bichloride of mercury, 1 part to 2,000, until all parts are thoroughly saturated, due precaution being taken against mercurial poisoning.

The above restrictions will also be applied to vessels bringing immigrants from non-infected ports, but who come from infected localities.

Article 12. There shall be delivered to the commissioner of immigration at the port of arrival by the master or commanding officer of the vessel, lists or manifests, made at the time and place of embarkation, of such immigrants, which shall, in answer to questions at the top of said lists or manifests, state as to each of said passengers—

- (1.) Full name.
- (2.) Age.
- (3.) Sex.
- (4.) Whether married or single.
- (5.) Calling or occupation.
- (6.) Whether able to read or write.
- (7.) Nationality.
- (8.) Last residence.
- (9.) Seaport for landing in the United States.
- (10.) Final destination in the United States.
- (11.) Whether having a ticket through to such final destination.
- (12.) Whether the immigrant has paid his own passage or whether it has been paid by other persons, or by any corporation, society, municipality, or government.
- (13.) Whether in possession of money, and if so, whether upward of \$30, and how much, if \$30 or less.
- (14.) Whether going to join a relative, and if so, what relative, and his name and address.
- (15.) Whether ever before in the United States, and if so, when and where.
- (16.) Whether ever in prison, or almshouse, or supported by charity.
- (17.) Whether a polygamist.
- (18.) Whether under contract, express or implied, to perform labour in the United States.

(19.) The immigrant's condition of health, mentally and physically, and whether deformed or crippled; and, if so, from what cause.

Article 13. Said immigrants shall be listed in convenient groups, and no one list or manifest shall contain more than thirty names. There shall be delivered to each such immigrant or head of a family, prior to or at the time of embarkation, or at some time on the voyage before arrival, as may be found most convenient, a ticket, on which shall be written his name, a number or letter, designating the list and his number on the list for convenience of identification on arrival.* Each list or manifest shall be verified by the signature and the oath or affirmation of the master or commanding officer, or of the officer, first or second, below him in command, and of the surgeon of said vessel or other medical officer, as provided in sections 2 and 3 of the Act of March 3, 1893, therefore the above affidavits must be attached to each list or manifest, which lists or manifests must be kept separate and not fastened together.

* By a circular of the Treasury Department (1893, Department No. 65, Marine Hospital Service), dated May 4, 1893, it is directed that the inspection card required for quarantine purposes by this circular may be used also as the "ticket" mentioned in the text, blank spaces to be filled in by the ship's surgeon or agent being provided with this object.

In case there is a surgeon sailing with the vessel, that officer must sign and verify each list or manifest, and the verification by another surgeon will not be in compliance with the law.

All forms of lists or manifests and affidavits sent out by authority of this Department are suggestive merely, and will not relieve any person from the necessity of complying strictly with all the provisions of said Act of March 3, 1893.

Article 14. In case of the failure of said master or commanding officer of said vessel to deliver to the said inspector of immigration lists or manifests, verified as aforesaid, containing the information above required as to all immigrants on board, there shall be paid to the collector of customs at the port of arrival the sum of \$10 for each immigrant qualified to enter the United States concerning whom the above information is not contained in any list, as aforesaid, or said immigrant shall not be permitted so to enter the United States, but shall be returned like other excluded persons.

Article 15. The certificate required by section 8 to be filed by the Secretary of the Treasury shall be filed upon the first days of January and July of each year.

Article 16. These regulations shall take immediate effect, except as to the last paragraph of Article 7 and Articles 11 to 16, inclusive, and as to those articles they will take effect on the 3rd day of May, 1893.

J. G. CARLISLE,
Secretary.

PART II.

STATE LAWS RELATING TO GENERAL IMMIGRATION.*

ALABAMA. Code of 1886, Vol. II., Section 3,762.

Any immigrant who abandons or leaves the service of an employer without repaying all passage money and all other advances must, on conviction, be fined in a sum not more than double the amount of wages for the unexpired term of service and imprisoned not longer than three months, or sentenced to hard labour for the county for not more than three months, at the discretion of the jury.†

CALIFORNIA. Constitution, Article 19, Section 1.

By the Constitution of California "the legislature is to prescribe all necessary regulations for the protection of the State and the counties, cities, and towns thereof from the presence of aliens who are or may become vagrants, paupers, mendicants, criminals, or invalids afflicted with contagious or infectious diseases, and from aliens otherwise dangerous or detrimental to the well-being or peace of the State, and to impose conditions upon which such persons may reside in the State, and to provide the means and mode of their removal from the State upon failure or refusal to comply with such conditions." (*American Statute Law*, by F. J. Stimson, p. 5.)

IDAHO. Constitution, Article 13, Section 5.

No person not a citizen of the United States, or who has not declared his intention to become such, shall be employed upon or in connexion with any State or municipal works.‡

* With some exceptions (indicated where they occur) the details given in the text in relation to the State laws bearing upon general immigration are taken from "a compilation of the labour laws of the various States and Territories and the District of Columbia, prepared under the direction of Carroll D. Wright, Commissioner of Labour," 1892.

† This section is given by Mr. Carroll D. Wright; but in the *First Supplement to American Statute Law*, by F. J. Stimson, p. 72, it is said that "the provision of this section seems to be omitted in the new code." This *Supplement* is dated 1898, Mr. Wright's *Compilation*, 1892.

‡ To carry into effect this article of the Idaho Constitution, an Act was passed on March 14, 1891, forbidding the employment of aliens on State or municipal works (*Laws 1890-91*, p. 233); see *American Digest*, 1891, p. 65.

ILLINOIS. Act of 1839.

Section 1. It shall be unlawful for any board or commission, or any officer or other person acting for the State, or for any county, township, city, village, district, or other municipality in the State, or any contractor or sub-contractor, under any or either of said municipalities, to employ any person or persons, other than native-born or naturalized citizens or those who have in good faith declared their intentions to become citizens of the United States, when such employees are to be paid, in whole or in part, directly or indirectly, out of any funds raised by taxation.

Section 2. It shall be the duty of any person or persons employing labour or other services, to be paid for, in whole or in part, directly or indirectly, out of any funds raised by taxation, to file with the treasurer or disbursing officer of such funds a certificate showing to the best of his knowledge and belief that the persons so employed . . . are citizens of the United States, or have in good faith declared their intentions to become such citizens, or are of such age or sex that they cannot declare their intentions to become citizens, or cannot be formally declared to be citizens by an order of a court of record.

Section 5. Whenever any employer, contractor or sub-contractor, by written or oral information, or from any source has reason to believe that he has in his employ persons other than native or naturalized citizens, or those who have in good faith declared their intentions to become citizens, whose pay is to be drawn in whole or in part, directly or indirectly, from such public funds, he shall at once investigate the matter, and if he shall find said information to have been correct, he shall discharge such employee or employees, and a failure to do so shall render him liable to the municipality . . . for any of such funds paid to such alien . . .

Section 6. In all cases where an alien after filing his declaration of intention to become a citizen of the United States, shall, for the space of three months after he could lawfully do so, fail to take out his final papers and complete his citizenship, such failure shall be *prima facie* evidence that his declaration of intentions was not made in good faith.

INDIANA. Elliott's Supplement of 1889, Chapter 7.

Section 438. . . . It shall be unlawful for any person, company, partnership or corporation, in any manner whatsoever, to prepay transportation or in way assist or encourage the importation or migration of any alien or aliens, any foreigner or foreigners, into the State of Indiana under contract or agreement, parol or special, express or implied, made previous to the importation or migration of such alien or aliens, foreigner or foreigners, to perform labour or service of any kind in this State.

Section 439. . . . All contracts or agreements, express or implied, parol or special, which may hereafter be made by and between any person, company, partnership or corporation, and any foreigner or foreigners, alien or aliens, to perform labour or service, or having reference to the performance of labour or service, by any person in the State of Indiana previous to the migration or importation of the person or persons whose labour or service is contracted for, into the United States, shall be utterly void and of no effect.

Section 440. For every violation of any of the provisions of . . . this Act, the person, partnership, company or corporation violating the same by knowingly assisting, encouraging or soliciting migration or importation of any alien or aliens, or of any foreigner or foreigners into the State of Indiana to perform labour or service of any kind under contract or agreement, express or implied, parol or special, with such alien or aliens, foreigner or foreigners, previous to becoming residents or citizens of the United States, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanour, and upon conviction thereof shall be fined in any sum not less than one hundred dollars nor more than five thousand dollars.

Section 441. Nothing in this Act shall be so construed as to prevent any citizen or subject of any foreign country temporarily residing in the United States, either in a private or official capacity, from engaging under contract or otherwise, persons not residents or citizens of the United States, to act as private secretaries, servants, or domestics for such foreigner temporarily

residing in the United States, nor shall this Act be so construed as to prevent any person or persons, partnership or corporation, from engaging, under contract or agreement, skilled workmen in foreign countries to perform labour in the State of Indiana, in or upon any new industry not at present established in the State: *Provided*, That skilled labour for that purpose cannot otherwise be obtained; nor shall the provisions of this Act apply to professional actors, artists, lecturers, or singers, nor to persons employed strictly as personal or domestic servants: *Provided*, That nothing in this Act shall be construed as prohibiting any individual from assisting any member of his family, or relative, or personal friend to migrate from any foreign country to the State for the purpose of settlement here.

KENTUCKY. Statutes.*

A contract for labour or service made with an alien previous to his coming into the State of Kentucky is a binding contract for seven years, but no longer.

MASSACHUSETTS. Public Statutes of 1882, Chapter 18.

Section 12. Every corporation which brings into this commonwealth any person not having a settlement therein, or by whose means or at whose instigation any such person is so brought, for the purpose of performing labour for such corporation, shall give a bond to the Commonwealth, to be delivered to the State board (of health, lunacy and charity) in the sum of three hundred dollars, conditioned that neither such person, nor anyone legally dependent on him for support, shall within two years become a city, town, or State charge.

VIRGINIA. Code of 1887, Chapter 6.

Section 44. A contract for labour for a term of service, not exceeding two years, made in a foreign country, with a person who shall immigrate to this State, and duly attested by the United States Consul or commercial agent at the port where such immigrant shall embark, shall be respected and enforced to the same extent and in the same manner as if made within the State.

WYOMING. Constitution, Article 19.

Section 1. No person not a citizen of the United States or who has not declared his intention to become such, shall be employed upon or in connexion with any state, county, or municipal works or employment.

Section 2. The legislature shall by appropriate legislation see that the provisions of the foregoing section are enforced.

Revised Statutes of 1887. Title 10.

Section 1,075. No contract made for labour or services with any alien or foreigner previous to the time that such alien or foreigner may come into the Territory, shall be enforced within this Territory for any period after six months from the date of such contract.

Section 1,076. Any alien or foreigner who shall hereafter perform labour or services for any person or persons, company, or corporation within this Territory shall be entitled to recover from such person or persons, company or corporation, a reasonable compensation for such labour or services, notwithstanding such person or persons, company or corporation, may have paid any other party or parties for the same; and in actions for the price of such labour or services no defence shall be admitted to the effect that the defendant or defendants had contracted with other parties, who had, or pretended

* This is given in *Reports on the Status of Aliens and Foreign Companies in the United States*, Commercial, No. 17 (1887) (United States), [C.—5170] p. 16; see also *American Statute Law* by F. J. Stimson, p. 629.

to have, power or authority to hire out the labour or services of such party or parties, or to receive the pay or price for such labour or services.

Section 1,077. Any person, whether he or she, acts for himself or herself, or as agent, attorney, or employee for another or others, who shall, in pursuance of, or by virtue of, any contract made with any alien or foreigner, made before such alien or foreigner came into the Territory, receive or offer to receive any money, pay or remuneration for the labour or services of any alien or foreigner, excepting the person so performing such labour or services, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanour and, on conviction thereof, shall be fined in a sum not less than five hundred dollars, and not more than five thousand dollars, and imprisoned in the county jail for not less than three nor more than twelve months, for each and every offence.*

PART III.

FEDERAL LAWS AND REGULATIONS RELATING TO CHINESE IMMIGRATION.

AN ACT to execute certain treaty stipulations relating to Chinese.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That from and after the expiration of ninety days next after the passage of this Act, and until the expiration of ten years next after the passage of this Act, the coming of Chinese labourers to the United States be, and the same is hereby, suspended; and during such suspension it shall not be lawful for any Chinese labourer to come, or, having so come after the expiration of said ninety days, to remain within the United States.

Section 2. That the master of any vessel who shall knowingly bring within the United States on such vessel, and land or permit to be landed, any Chinese labourer, from any foreign port or place, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanour, and on conviction thereof shall be punished by a fine of not more than five hundred dollars for each and every such Chinese labourer so brought, and may be also imprisoned for a term not exceeding one year.

Section 3. That the two foregoing sections shall not apply to Chinese labourers who were in the United States on the seventeenth day of November, eighteen hundred and eighty, or who shall have come into the same before the expiration of ninety days next after the passage of this Act, and who shall produce to such master before going on board such vessel, and shall produce to the collector of the port in the United States at which such vessel shall arrive, the evidence herein-after in this Act required of his being one of the labourers in this section mentioned; nor shall the two foregoing sections apply to the case of any master whose vessel, being bound to a port not within the United States, shall come within the jurisdiction of the United States by reason of being in distress or in stress of weather, or touching at any port of the United States on its voyage to any foreign port or place: *Provided*, That all Chinese labourers brought on such vessel shall depart with the vessel on leaving port.

Section 4. That for the purpose of properly identifying Chinese labourers who were in the United States on the seventeenth day of November, eighteen hundred and eighty, or who shall have come into the same before the expiration of ninety days next after the passage of this Act, and in order to furnish them with the proper evidence of their right to go from and come to the United States of their free will and accord, as provided by the treaty between the United States and China dated November seventeenth, eighteen hundred and eighty, the collector of customs of the district from which any such Chinese labourer shall depart from the United States shall, in person or by

* In addition to the provisions mentioned in the text it may be noted that the Constitutions of Kentucky and Oregon "provided that the legislature shall pass laws prohibiting free negroes from coming to or living in the State, and making such action felony." *American Statute Law*, by F. J. Stimson, p. 5. Mr. Stimson remarks: "*Quære* how far this is constitutional under the United States Constitution."

deputy, go on board each vessel having on board any such Chinese labourer and cleared or about to sail from his district for a foreign port, and on such vessel make a list of all such Chinese labourers, which shall be entered in registry books to be kept for that purpose, in which shall be stated the name, age, occupation, last place of residence, physical marks or peculiarities, and all facts necessary for the identification of each of such Chinese labourers, which books shall be safely kept in the custom-house; and every such Chinese labourer so departing from the United States shall be entitled to, and shall receive, free of any charge or cost upon application therefor, from the collector or his deputy at the time such list is taken, a certificate, signed by the collector or his deputy and attested by his seal of office, in such form as the Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe, which certificate shall contain a statement of the name, age, occupation, last place of residence, personal description, and facts of identification of the Chinese labourer to whom the certificate is issued, corresponding with the said list and registry in all particulars. In case any Chinese labourer after having received such certificate shall leave such vessel before her departure he shall deliver his certificate to the master of the vessel, and if such Chinese labourer shall fail to return to such vessel before her departure from port the certificate shall be delivered by the master to the collector of customs for cancellation. The certificate herein provided for shall entitle the Chinese labourer to whom the same is issued to return to and re-enter the United States upon producing and delivering the same to the collector of customs of the district at which such Chinese labourer shall seek to re-enter; and upon delivery of such certificate by such Chinese labourer to the collector of customs at the time of re-entry in the United States, said collector shall cause the same to be filed in the custom-house and duly cancelled.

Section 5. That any Chinese labourer mentioned in section four of this Act being in the United States, and desiring to depart from the United States by land, shall have the right to demand and receive, free of charge or cost, a certificate of identification similar to that provided for in section four of this Act to be issued to such Chinese labourers as may desire to leave the United States by water; and it is hereby made the duty of the collector of customs of the district next adjoining the foreign country to which said Chinese labourer desires to go to issue such certificate, free of charge or cost, upon application by such Chinese labourer, and to enter the same upon registry books to be kept by him for the purpose, as provided for in section four of this Act.

Section 6. That in order to the faithful execution of articles one and two of the treaty in this Act before mentioned, every Chinese person other than a labourer who may be entitled by said treaty and this Act to come within the United States, and who shall be about to come to the United States, shall be identified as so entitled by the Chinese Government in each case, such identity to be evidenced by a certificate issued under the authority of said Government, which certificate shall be in the English language or (if not in the English language) accompanied by a translation into English, stating such right to come, and which certificate shall state the name, title, or official rank, if any, the age, height, and all physical peculiarities, former and present occupation or profession, and place of residence in China of the person to whom the certificate is issued and that such person is entitled conformably to the treaty in this Act mentioned to come within the United States. Such certificate shall be *prima facie* evidence of the fact set forth therein, and shall be produced to the collector of customs, or his deputy, of the port in the district in the United States at which the person named therein shall arrive.

Section 7. That any person who shall knowingly and falsely alter or substitute any name for the name written in such certificate or forge any such certificate, or knowingly utter any forged or fraudulent certificate, or falsely personate any person named in any such certificate, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanour; and upon conviction thereof shall be fined in a sum not exceeding one thousand dollars, and imprisoned in a penitentiary for a term of not more than five years.

Section 8. That the master of any vessel arriving in the United States from any foreign port or place shall, at the same time he delivers a manifest of the cargo, and if there be no cargo, then at the time of making a report of

the entry of the vessel pursuant to law, in addition to the other matter required to be reported, and before landing, or permitting to land, any Chinese passengers, deliver and report to the collector of customs of the district in which such vessels shall have arrived a separate list of all Chinese passengers taken on board his vessel at any foreign port or place, and all such passengers on board the vessel at that time. Such list shall show the names of such passengers (and if accredited officers of the Chinese Government travelling on the business of that Government, or their servants, with a note of such facts), and the names and other particulars, as shown by their respective certificates; and such lists shall be sworn to by the master in the manner required by law in relation to the manifest of the cargo. Any wilful refusal or neglect of any such master to comply with the provisions of this section shall incur the same penalties and forfeiture as are provided for a refusal or neglect to report and deliver a manifest of the cargo.

Section 9. That before any Chinese passengers are landed from any such vessel, the collector, or his deputy, shall proceed to examine such passengers, comparing the certificates with the list and with the passengers; and no passenger shall be allowed to land in the United States from such vessel in violation of law.

Section 10. That every vessel whose master shall knowingly violate any of the provisions of this Act shall be deemed forfeited to the United States, and shall be liable to seizure and condemnation in any district of the United States into which such vessel may enter or in which she may be found.

Section 11. That any person who shall knowingly bring into or cause to be brought into the United States by land, or who shall knowingly aid or abet the same, or aid or abet the landing in the United States from any vessel of any Chinese person not lawfully entitled to enter the United States, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanour, and shall, on conviction thereof, be fined in a sum not exceeding one thousand dollars, and imprisoned for a term not exceeding one year.

Section 12. That no Chinese person shall be permitted to enter the United States by land without producing to the proper officer of customs the certificate in this Act required of Chinese persons seeking to land from a vessel. And any Chinese person found unlawfully within the United States shall be caused to be removed therefrom to the country from whence he came, by direction of the President of the United States, and at the cost of the United States, after being brought before some justice, judge, or commissioner of a court of the United States and found to be one not lawfully entitled to be or remain in the United States.

Section 13. That this Act shall not apply to diplomatic and other officers of the Chinese Government travelling upon the business of that Government, whose credentials shall be taken as equivalent to the certificate in this Act mentioned, and shall exempt them and their body and household servants from the provisions of this Act as to other Chinese persons.

Section 14. That hereafter no State court or court of the United States shall admit Chinese to citizenship; and all laws in conflict with this Act are hereby repealed.

Section 15. That the words "Chinese labourers," wherever used in this Act, shall be construed to mean both skilled and unskilled labourers and Chinese employed in mining.

Approved, May 6, 1882 [22 Stat., 58].

AN ACT to amend an Act entitled "An Act to execute certain treaty stipulations relating to Chinese," approved May sixth, eighteen hundred and eighty-two.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That section one of the Act entitled "An Act to execute certain treaty stipulations relating to Chinese," approved May sixth, eighteen hundred and eighty-two, is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

"Whereas in the opinion of the Government of the United States the coming of Chinese labourers to this country endangers the good order of certain localities within the territory thereof; therefore,

"Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That from and after the passage of this Act, and until the expiration of ten years next after the passage of this Act, the coming of Chinese labourers to the United States be, and the same is hereby, suspended, and during such suspension it shall not be lawful for any Chinese labourer to come from any foreign port or place, or having so come to remain within the United States."

Section two of said Act is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

"Section 2. That the master of any vessel who shall knowingly bring within the United States on such vessel, and land, or attempt to land, or permit to be landed, any Chinese labourer, from any foreign port or place, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanour, and, on conviction thereof, shall be punished by a fine of not more than five hundred dollars for each and every such Chinese labourer so brought, and may also be imprisoned for a term not exceeding one year."

Section three of the said Act is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

"Section 3. That the two foregoing sections shall not apply to Chinese labourers who were in the United States on the seventeenth day of November, eighteen hundred and eighty, or who shall have come into the same before the expiration of ninety days next after the passage of the Act to which this Act is amendatory, nor shall said sections apply to Chinese labourers, who shall produce to such master before going on board such vessel, and shall produce to the collector of the port in the United States at which such vessel shall arrive, the evidence hereinafter in this Act required of his being one of the labourers in this section mentioned; nor shall the two foregoing sections apply to the case of any master whose vessel, being bound to a port not within the United States, shall come within the jurisdiction of the United States by reason of being in distress or in stress of weather, or touching at any port of the United States on its voyage to any foreign port or place: *Provided*, That all Chinese labourers brought on such vessel shall not be permitted to land except in case of absolute necessity, and must depart with the vessel on leaving port."

Section four of said Act is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

"Section 4. That for the purpose of properly identifying Chinese labourers who were in the United States on the seventeenth day of November, eighteen hundred and eighty, or who shall have come into the same before the expiration of ninety days next after the passage of the Act to which this Act is amendatory, and in order to furnish them with the proper evidence of their right to go from and come to the United States as provided by the said Act and the treaty between the United States and China dated November seventeenth, eighteen hundred and eighty, the collector of customs of the district from which any such Chinese labourer shall depart from the United States shall, in person or by deputy, go on board each vessel having on board any such Chinese labourer, and cleared or about to sail from his district for a foreign port, and on such vessel make a list of all such Chinese labourers, which shall be entered in registry books, to be kept for that purpose in which shall be stated the individual, family, and tribal name in full, the age, occupation, when and where followed, last place of residence, physical marks or peculiarities, and all facts necessary for the identification of each of such Chinese labourers, which books shall be safely kept in the custom-house; and every such Chinese labourer so departing from the United States shall be entitled to and shall receive, free of any charge or cost upon application therefor, from the collector or his deputy, in the name of said collector and attested by said collector's seal of office, at the time such list is taken, a certificate, signed by the collector or his deputy and attested by his seal of office, in such form as the Secretary of the Treasury shall prescribe, which certificate shall contain a statement of the individual, family, and tribal name in full, age, occupation, when and where followed, of the Chinese labourer to whom the certificate is issued, corresponding with the said list and registry in all particulars. In case any Chinese labourer, after having received such certificate, shall leave such vessel before her departure, he shall deliver his certificate to the master of the vessel; and if such Chinese labourer shall fail to return to such vessel before her departure from port, the certificate shall be delivered by the master to the

collector of customs for cancellation. The certificate herein provided for shall entitle the Chinese labourer to whom the same is issued to return to and re-enter the United States upon producing and delivering the same to the collector of customs of the district at which such Chinese labourer shall seek to re-enter, and said certificate shall be the only evidence permissible to establish his right of re-entry; and upon delivering of such certificate by such Chinese labourer to the collector of customs at the time of re-entry in the United States, said collector shall cause the same to be filed in the custom-house and duly cancelled."

Section six of said Act is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

"Section 6. That, in order to the faithful execution of the provisions of this Act, every Chinese person, other than a labourer, who may be entitled by said treaty or this Act to come within the United States, and who shall be about to come to the United States, shall obtain the permission of and be identified as so entitled by the Chinese Government, or of such other foreign Government of which at the time such Chinese person shall be a subject, in each case to be evidenced by a certificate issued by such Government, which certificate shall be in the English language, and shall show such permission, with the name of the permitted person in his or her proper signature, and which certificate shall state the individual, family, and tribal name in full, title or official rank, if any, the age, height, and all physical peculiarities, former and present occupation or profession, when and where and how long pursued, and place of residence of the person to whom the certificate is issued, and that such person is entitled by this Act to come within the United States. If the person so applying for a certificate shall be a merchant, said certificate shall, in addition to above requirements, state the nature, character, and estimated value of the business carried on by him prior to and at the time of his application as aforesaid: *Provided*, That nothing in this Act nor in said treaty shall be construed as embracing within the meaning of the word 'merchant' hucksters, peddlers, or those engaged in taking, drying, or otherwise preserving shell or other fish for home consumption or exportation. If the certificate be sought for the purpose of travel for curiosity, it shall also state whether the applicant intends to pass through or travel within the United States, together with his financial standing in the country from which such certificate is desired. The certificate provided for in this Act, and the identity of the person named therein shall, before such person goes on board any vessel to proceed to the United States, be viséd by the indorsement of the diplomatic representatives of the United States in the foreign country from which said certificate issues, or of the consular representative of the United States at the port or place from which the person named in the certificate is about to depart; and such diplomatic representative or consular representative whose indorsement is so required is hereby empowered, and it shall be his duty, before indorsing such certificate as aforesaid, to examine into the truth of the statements set forth in said certificate, and if he shall find upon examination that said or any of the statements therein contained are untrue it shall be his duty to refuse to indorse the same. Such certificate viséd as aforesaid shall be *prima facie* evidence of the facts set forth therein, and shall be produced to the collector of customs of the port in the district in the United States at which the person named therein shall arrive, and afterwards produced to the proper authorities of the United States whenever lawfully demanded, and shall be the sole evidence permissible on the part of the person so producing the same to establish a right of entry into the United States; but said certificate may be controverted and the facts therein stated disproved by the United States authorities."

Section eight of said Act is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

"Section 8. That the master of any vessel arriving in the United States from any foreign port or place shall, at the same time he delivers a manifest of the cargo, and if there be no cargo, then at the time of making a report of the entry of the vessel pursuant to law, in addition to the other matter required to be reported, and before landing, or permitting to land, any Chinese passengers, deliver and report to the collector of customs of the district in which such vessels shall have arrived a separate list of all Chinese passengers taken on board his vessel at any foreign port or place, and all such passengers on

board the vessel at that time. Such list shall show the names of such passengers (and if accredited officers of the Chinese or of any other foreign Government, travelling on the business of that Government, or their servants, with a note of such facts), and the names and other particulars as shown by their respective certificates; and such list shall be sworn to by the master in the manner required by law in relation to the manifest of the cargo. Any refusal or wilful neglect of any such master to comply with the provisions of this section shall incur the same penalties and forfeiture as are provided for a refusal or neglect to report and deliver a manifest of the cargo."

Section ten of said Act is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

"Section 10. That every vessel whose master shall knowingly violate any of the provisions of this Act shall be deemed forfeited to the United States, and shall be liable to seizure and condemnation in any district of the United States into which such vessel may enter or in which she may be found."

Section eleven of said Act is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

"Section 11. That any person who shall knowingly bring into or cause to be brought into the United States by land, or who shall aid or abet the same, or aid or abet the landing in the United States from any vessel, of any Chinese person not lawfully entitled to enter the United States, shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanour, and shall, on conviction thereof, be fined in a sum not exceeding one thousand dollars, and imprisoned for a term not exceeding one year."

Section twelve of said Act is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

"Section 12. That no Chinese person shall be permitted to enter the United States by land without producing to the proper officer of customs the certificate in this Act required of Chinese persons seeking to land from a vessel. And any Chinese person found unlawfully within the United States shall be caused to be removed therefrom to the country from whence he came, and at the cost of the United States, after being brought before some justice, judge, or commissioner of a court of the United States and found to be one not lawfully entitled to be or to remain in the United States; and in all such cases the person who brought or aided in bringing such person to the United States shall be liable to the Government of the United States for all necessary expenses incurred in such investigation and removal; and all peace officers of the several States and Territories of the United States are hereby invested with the same authority as a marshal or United States marshal in reference to carrying out the provisions of this Act, or the Act of which this is amendatory, as a marshal or deputy marshal of the United States, and shall be entitled to a like compensation, to be audited and paid by the same officers. And the United States shall pay all costs and charges for the maintenance and return of any Chinese person having the certificate prescribed by law as entitling such Chinese person to come into the United States who may not have been permitted to land from any vessel by reason of any of the provisions of this Act."

Section thirteen of said Act is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

"Section 13. That this Act shall not apply to diplomatic and other officers of the Chinese or other Governments travelling upon the business of that Government, whose credentials shall be taken as equivalent to the certificate in this Act mentioned, and shall exempt them and their body and household servants from the provisions of this Act as to other Chinese persons."

Section fifteen of said Act is hereby amended so as to read as follows:

"Section 15. That the provisions of this Act shall apply to all subjects of China and Chinese, whether subjects of China or any other foreign Power; and the words Chinese labourers, whenever used in this Act, shall be construed to mean both skilled and unskilled labourers and Chinese employed in mining."

Section 16. That any violation of any of the provisions of this Act, or of the Act of which this is amendatory, the punishment of which is not otherwise herein provided for, shall be deemed a misdemeanour, and shall be punishable by fine not exceeding one thousand dollars, or by imprisonment for not more than one year, or both such fine and imprisonment.

Section 17. That nothing contained in this Act shall be construed to affect any prosecution or other proceeding, criminal or civil, begun under the Act of which this is amendatory; but such prosecution or other proceeding, criminal or civil, shall proceed as if this Act had not been passed.

Approved, July 5, 1884 (23 Stat., 115).

AN ACT to prohibit the coming of Chinese labourers to the United States.*

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That from and after the date of the exchange of ratifications of the pending treaty between the United States of America and His Imperial Majesty the Emperor of China, signed on the twelfth day of March, anno Domini eighteen hundred and eighty-eight, it shall be unlawful for any Chinese person, whether a subject of China or of any other power, to enter the United States, except as herein-after provided.

Section 13. That any Chinese person, or person of Chinese descent, found unlawfully in the United States, or its Territories, may be arrested upon a warrant issued upon a complaint, under oath, filed by any party on behalf of the United States, by any justice, judge, or commissioner of any United States court, returnable before any justice, judge, or commissioner of a United States court, or before any United States court, and when convicted, upon a hearing, and found and adjudged to be one not lawfully entitled to be or remain in the United States, such person shall be removed from the United States to the country whence he came. But any such Chinese person convicted before a commissioner of a United States court may, within ten days from such conviction, appeal to the judge of the district court for the district. A certified copy of the judgment shall be the process upon which said removal shall be made, and it may be executed by the marshal of the district, or any officer having authority of a marshal under the provisions of this section. And in all such cases the person who brought or aided in bringing such person into the United States shall be liable to the Government of the United States for all necessary expenses incurred in such investigation and removal; and all peace officers of the several States and Territories of the United States are hereby invested with the same authority in reference to carrying out the provisions of this Act, as a marshal or deputy marshal of the United States, and shall be entitled to like compensation, to be audited and paid by the same officers.

Approved, September 13, 1888 (25 Stat., 476).

AN ACT a supplement to an Act entitled "An Act to execute certain treaty stipulations relating to Chinese," approved the sixth day of May, eighteen hundred and eighty-two.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That from and after the passage of this Act, it shall be unlawful for any Chinese labourer who shall at any time heretofore have been, or who may now or hereafter be, a resident within the United States, and who shall have departed, or shall depart, therefrom, and shall not have returned before the passage of this Act, to return to, or remain in, the United States.

Section 2. That no certificates of identity provided for in the fourth and fifth sections of the Act to which this is a supplement shall hereafter be issued; and every certificate heretofore issued in pursuance thereof, is hereby declared void and of no effect, and the Chinese labourer claiming admission by virtue thereof shall not be permitted to enter the United States.

Section 3. That all the duties prescribed, liabilities, penalties and forfeitures imposed, and the powers conferred by the second, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth, sections of the Act to which this is a supplement are hereby extended and made applicable to the provisions of this Act.

Section 4. That all such part or parts of the Act to which this is a supplement as are inconsistent herewith are hereby repealed.

Approved, October 1, 1888 (25 Stat., 504).

* It is usual to treat the whole of this Act as inoperative because the exchange of ratifications mentioned in the first section never took place; and this statute is omitted, no doubt upon this ground, from the laws set forth in the circular on exclusion of Chinese issued by the Treasury Department on May 7, 1892 (1892, Department No. 69, Division of Special Agents). But it would appear that section 13 of this Act came into operation (notwithstanding the non-ratification of the treaty in question); see *United States v. Gee Lee*, 50 Fed. Rep. 271, 967, 968. This section is accordingly given in the text.

An Act to prohibit the coming of Chinese persons into the United States.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That all laws now in force prohibiting and regulating the coming into this country of Chinese persons and persons of Chinese descent are hereby continued in force for a period of ten years from the passage of this Act.

Section 2. That any Chinese person or person of Chinese descent, when convicted and adjudged under any of said laws to be not lawfully entitled to be or remain in the United States, shall be removed from the United States to China, unless he or they shall make it appear to the justice, judge, or commissioner before whom he or they are tried that he or they are subjects or citizens of some other country, in which case he or they shall be removed from the United States to such country: *Provided*, That in any case where such other country of which such Chinese person shall claim to be a citizen or subject shall demand any tax as a condition of the removal of such person to that country, he or she shall be removed to China.

Section 3. That any Chinese person or person of Chinese descent arrested under the provisions of this Act or the Acts hereby extended shall be adjudged to be unlawfully within the United States unless such person shall establish, by affirmative proof, to the satisfaction of such justice, judge, or commissioner his lawful right to remain in the United States.

Section 4. That any such Chinese person or person of Chinese descent convicted and adjudged to be not lawfully entitled to be or remain in the United States shall be imprisoned at hard labour for a period of not exceeding one year and thereafter removed from the United States, as herein-before provided.

Section 5. That after the passage of this Act on an application to any judge or court of the United States in the first instance for a writ of *habeas corpus*, by a Chinese person seeking to land in the United States, to whom that privilege has been denied, no bail shall be allowed, and such application shall be heard and determined promptly without unnecessary delay.

Section 6. And it shall be the duty of all Chinese labourers within the limits of the United States, at the time of the passage of this Act, and who are entitled to remain in the United States, to apply to the collector of internal revenue of their respective districts, within one year after the passage of this Act, for a certificate of residence, and any Chinese labourer, within the limits of the United States, who shall neglect, fail, or refuse to comply with the provisions of this Act, or who, after one year from the passage hereof, shall be found within the jurisdiction of the United States without such certificate of residence, shall be deemed and adjudged to be unlawfully within the United States, and may be arrested, by any United States customs' official, collector of internal revenue or his deputies, United States marshal or his deputies, and taken before a United States judge, whose duty it shall be to order that he be deported from the United States as herein-before provided, unless he shall establish clearly to the satisfaction of said judge, that by reason of accident, sickness or other unavoidable cause, he has been unable to procure his certificate, and to the satisfaction of the court, and by at least one credible white witness, that he was a resident of the United States at the time of the passage of this Act; and if upon the hearing, it shall appear that he is so entitled to a certificate, it shall be granted upon his paying the cost. Should it appear that said Chinaman had procured a certificate which has been lost or destroyed, he shall be detained and judgment suspended a reasonable time to enable him to procure a duplicate from the officer granting it, and in such cases, the cost of said arrest and trial shall be in the discretion of the court. And any Chinese person other than a Chinese labourer, having a right to be and remain in the United States, desiring such certificate as evidence of such right may apply for and receive the same without charge.

Section 7. That immediately after the passage of this Act, the Secretary of the Treasury shall make such rules and regulations as may be necessary for the efficient execution of this Act, and shall prescribe the necessary forms and furnish the necessary blanks to enable collectors of internal revenue to issue the certificates required hereby, and make such provisions that certificates

may be procured in localities convenient to the applicants, such certificates shall be issued without charge to the applicant, and shall contain the name, age, local residence and occupation of the applicant, and such other description of the applicant as shall be prescribed by the Secretary of the Treasury, and a duplicate thereof shall be filed in the office of the collector of internal revenue for the district within which such Chinaman makes application.

Section 8. That any person who shall knowingly and falsely alter or substitute any name for the name written in such certificate or forge such certificate, or knowingly utter any forged or fraudulent certificate, or falsely personate any person named in such certificate, shall be guilty of a misdemeanour, and upon conviction thereof shall be fined in a sum not exceeding one thousand dollars or imprisoned in the penitentiary for a term of not more than five years.

Section 9. The Secretary of the Treasury may authorize the payment of such compensation in the nature of fees to the collectors of internal revenue, for services performed under the provisions of this Act in addition to salaries now allowed by law, as he shall deem necessary, not exceeding the sum of one dollar for each certificate issued.—Approved, May 5, 1892.*

REGULATIONS for the ISSUE of CERTIFICATES of RESIDENCE to CHINESE LABOURERS, and CHINESE PERSONS other than LABOURERS, under the provisions of the Act of May 5, 1892.

Treasury Department, Office of the Secretary,
Washington, D.C., July 7, 1892.

Section 7 of the Act of Congress approved May 5, 1892, entitled "An Act to prohibit the coming of Chinese persons into the United States," provides "that immediately after the passage of this Act the Secretary of the Treasury shall make such rules and regulations as may be necessary for the efficient execution of this Act, and shall prescribe the necessary forms and furnish the necessary blanks to enable the collectors of internal revenue to issue the certificates required hereby, and make such provision that certificates may be procured in localities convenient to the applicants," &c.

In accordance with the foregoing authority, the following rules and regulations are prescribed for the purposes therein indicated, to wit:

APPLICATIONS FOR CERTIFICATES OF RESIDENCE.

Collectors of internal revenue will receive applications on the following form, at their own offices, from such Chinese as are conveniently located thereto, and will cause their deputies to proceed to the towns or cities in their respective divisions where any considerable number of Chinese are residing, for the purpose of receiving applications.

No. ____.

Application of Chinese labourer (or Chinese person other than labourer) for certificate of residence under Act of May 5, 1892.

I, _____, a Chinese _____ hereby make application to the collector of internal revenue for the _____ district of _____ for a certificate of residence under the provisions of the Act of Congress approved May 5, 1892, and state that I arrived in the United States on the _____ day of _____, 18____, at the port of _____, per _____, and that I was lawfully within the limits of the United States residing at _____,

* With respect to the Joint Resolution of Congress authorizing the coming of Chinese persons into the United States for certain purposes connected with the World's Columbian Exposition at Chicago, see *ante*, p. 142.

on the 5th day of May, 1892. That my age was _____ years on my last birthday, and that my present local residence is at _____ and my occupation is _____.

I further state that a true photographic likeness* of myself is affixed to this application.

(Sign here) _____.

Subscribed and sworn to before me this _____ day of

_____, 189____, at _____, _____.

Deputy Collector, Internal Revenue,

District _____.

[Photograph to be affixed here.]

NOTE.—If the applicant can sign his name in English it is preferred that he should do so. If he cannot sign in English let him sign in Chinese characters, the deputy collector in that case writing the English equivalent underneath the signature. If the applicant cannot write his name at all, let him make his mark in the usual form.

No applications will be received later than May 5, 1893.

Collectors and deputies will give such notice through leading Chinese, or by notices posted in the Chinese quarter of the various localities, as will be sufficient to apprise all Chinese residing in their districts of their readiness to receive applications and the time and place where they may be made.

All applications received by deputies must be forwarded to the collector's office, from whose office all certificates of residence will be issued, and sent to the deputy for delivery.

PHOTOGRAPHS.

Every applicant will be required to furnish three unmounted photographic likenesses of himself or herself, one to be affixed to the application and two to be affixed to the certificate of residence, one to the original and one to the duplicate. These photographs will be securely affixed to the papers by strongly adhesive paste. Great care will be taken in receiving the photographs to see that they accurately represent the features of the applicant.

If the collector or his deputies have any doubt in regard to the correctness of the photograph presented, they will refuse to receive the application and require a correct one.

The photographs shall be sun pictures, such as are usually known as card photographs, of sufficient size and distinctness to plainly and accurately represent the entire face of the applicant, the head to be not less than 1½ inches from base of hair to base of chin. No tintype or other metal picture will be received.

AFFIDAVITS OF WITNESSES.

The affidavits of two credible witnesses of good character to the fact of residence and lawful status within the United States must be furnished with every application. These affidavits shall be, in substance, as follows:

Affidavits of Witnesses to Application of Chinese Labourer (or Chinese Person other than Labourer) for Certificate of Residence.

We, _____, residing at _____, _____, do solemnly swear that we are well acquainted with _____, a Chinese _____, whose application for a certificate of residence is set forth on a preceding

* "The regulations of the Treasury Department in relation to the registration of Chinese labourers have been modified, dispensing with the attaching of photographs to applications of Chinese labourers (or Chinese persons other than labourers) for certificate of residence under the Act of May 5th, 1892, and requiring the affidavit of only one credible witness of good character to the fact of the residence and lawful status [qy. status] of the applicant within the United States."—*Philadelphia Ledger*, April 10, 1893.

And as a further means of identification I have affixed hereto a photographic likeness of said _____.

Given under my hand and seal this _____ day of _____, 189____, at _____, State of _____.

[COLLECTOR'S SEAL.] _____ Collector of Internal Revenue, District of _____.

[Photograph to be affixed here.]

(Stub.)

Name.
Age.
Local residence.
Occupation.
Height.
Colour of eyes.
Complexion.
Physical marks or peculiarities for identification.

The original, duplicate, and stub will be printed on one page so that the original and duplicate can be cut off, leaving the stub in the book.

All books of certificates must be kept in the collector's office and all certificates must be issued from there.

All certificates must be accounted for, and if any certificate is destroyed before being issued an affidavit must be attached to the book in which it was contained showing the facts in regard to its destruction.

After signing the certificate, and before issue, the collector must affix his official seal thereto in such a manner that part of the seal impression will be made on the photograph, and, in addition thereto, he will write across the photograph in red ink (but not across the features), the number of the certificate and the name of the Chinese person.

ISSUE OF CERTIFICATES OF RESIDENCE TO CHINESE PERSONS OTHER THAN LABOURERS.

The same forms will be used in issuing certificates of residence to Chinese persons other than labourers as are used in issuing certificates to labourers, by inserting between the words "Chinese" and "labourers," wherever they should occur in said forms, the words "person other than," a blank space being provided in each form sufficient to admit of writing the four words, "person other than labourer."

ISSUE OF DUPLICATE ORIGINAL CERTIFICATES.

In all cases of loss or destruction of original certificates of residence where it can be established to the satisfaction of the collector of the district in which the certificate was issued that such loss or destruction was accidental, and without fault or negligence on the part of the applicant, a duplicate of the original may be issued under the same conditions that governed the original issue. Across the face of each of such duplicates so issued and the stub thereof the collector shall write, in red ink, the words, "Issued in lieu of original certificate No. _____, which, upon evidence submitted, appears to have been unavoidably "lost" [or destroyed, as the case may be], to which shall be attached the collector's official signature. And upon the issue of every such duplicate certificate the collector shall, by circular letter, report the fact to the office of the Commissioner of Internal Revenue and to each collector of internal revenue, embracing in such report the serial number of the certificate for which the duplicate was issued and the name and personal description of the person to whom issued, as appearing in the original application.

COLLECTOR'S RECORD OF CERTIFICATES ISSUED.

Collectors of internal revenue will keep in their offices an alphabetical record of all certificates of residence issued. A suitable book for this purpose will be prepared by the Treasury Department and furnished to collectors in due time.

DEFINITIONS.

The persons referred to in the Acts of Congress to which these regulations apply, and whose immigration into the United States is prohibited, are limited to Chinese labourers. No class of Chinese are prohibited from coming into the United States, or remaining here, except such as may properly and within the meaning of said statutes be known as "labourers." But persons other than labourers must present as a condition precedent to landing the certificate required by Section 6 of the Act approved July 5, 1884.

Collectors of internal revenue and their deputies are instructed that all classes of skilled and unskilled labourers, and persons employed in mining, as well as hucksters, peddlers, and persons engaged in taking and drying or otherwise preserving shells or fish for home consumption or exportation and laundrymen shall be classed as labourers. Persons who are employed in stores but who are not owners or part owners in the business shall be classed as labourers. A person to be exempted from the operations of this law as a merchant must be an owner or part owner of a *bonâ fide* mercantile establishment.

CHARLES FOSTER,
Secretary.

PART IV.

STATE LAWS RELATING TO CHINESE IMMIGRATION.*

CALIFORNIA. Deering's Codes and Statutes, 1885.

Vol. I.—Constitution, Article 19.

Section 2. No corporation now existing or hereafter formed under the laws of this State shall, after the adoption of this constitution, employ, directly or indirectly, in any capacity, any Chinese or Mongolian†

Section 3. No Chinese shall be employed on any State, county, municipal, or other public work, except in punishment for crime.

Section 4. The presence of foreigners ineligible to become citizens of the United States‡ is declared to be dangerous to the well-being of the State, and the legislature shall discourage their immigration by all the means within its power. Asiatic coolieism is a form of human slavery, and is for ever prohibited in this State, and all contracts for coolie labour shall be void. All companies or corporations, whether formed in the country or any foreign country, for the importation of such labour, shall be subject to such penalties as the legislature may prescribe. The legislature shall delegate all necessary power to the incorporated cities and towns of this State for the removal of Chinese without the limits of such cities, and towns, or for their location within prescribed portions of those limits, and it shall also provide the necessary

* Save where otherwise indicated, the details given in the text in relation to the State laws bearing on Chinese immigration are taken from the *Compilation* of Mr. Carroll D. Wright, already referred to.

† This section of the Californian constitution and sections 178 and 179 of the Penal Code, which were enacted to give it effect, were adjudged by the circuit court of the United States to be in conflict with the treaty of the United States with China and to be therefore void. See *In re Tiburcio Parrot*, 5 Pac. C. L. J., Supplement.

‡ A Chinaman cannot be naturalized as a citizen of the United States. See the decision quoted in Wharton, *Int. Law Digest*, § 197, and section 14 of the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882, *ante*, p. 162.

legislation to prohibit the introduction into this State of Chinese after the adoption of this constitution. This section shall be enforced by appropriate legislation.

Vol. I.—Political Code, p. 475.

Section 3,235 (added by chap. 153, Acts of 1887). No supplies of any kind or character, "for the benefit of the State or to be paid for by any moneys appropriated or to be appropriated by the State," manufactured or grown in this State, which are in whole or in part the product of Mongolian labour, shall be purchased by the officials for the State having the control of any public institution under the control of the State, or of any county, city and county, city, or town thereof.

Vol. IV.—Penal Code, p. 51.

Section 178. Any officer, director, manager, member, stockholder, clerk, agent, servant, attorney, employee, assignee, or contractor of any corporation now existing, or hereafter formed under the laws of this State, who shall employ, in any manner or capacity, upon any work or business of such corporation, any Chinese or Mongolian, is guilty of a misdemeanour, and is punishable by a fine of not less than one hundred nor more than one thousand dollars, or by imprisonment in the county jail of not less than fifty nor more than five hundred days, or by both such fine and imprisonment; provided, that no director of a corporation shall be deemed guilty under this section who refuses to assent to such employment, and has such dissent recorded in the minutes of the board of directors.

1. Every person who, having been convicted for violating the provisions of this section, commits any subsequent violation thereof after such conviction is punishable as follows:

2. For each subsequent conviction such person shall be fined not less than five hundred nor more than five thousand dollars, or by imprisonment not less than two hundred and fifty days nor more than two years, or by both such fine and imprisonment.*

Section 179. Any corporation now existing, or hereafter formed under the laws of this State, that shall employ, directly or indirectly, in any capacity, any Chinese or Mongolian, shall be guilty of a misdemeanour, and upon conviction thereof shall for the first offence be fined not less than five hundred nor more than five thousand dollars, and upon the second conviction shall, in addition to said penalty, forfeit its charter and franchise, and all its corporate rights and privileges, and it shall be the duty of the Attorney-General to take the necessary steps to enforce such forfeiture.*

By a Californian Statute passed on March 20, 1891 (St. 1891, c. 140, p. 185), general provisions are enacted to prevent Chinese from coming into the State, and for the registration and certification of those already in the State; see *American Digest*, 1891, p. 633.

NEVADA. General statutes of 1885.

Chap. 22. *Preamble*.—Whereas, all Chinese who come to this coast arrive here under a contract to labour for a term of years, and are bound by such contract, not only by the superstitions of their peculiar religions, but by leaving their blood relations, fathers, mothers, sisters, brothers, or cousins, as hostages in China for the fulfilment of their part of the contract; and, whereas, such slave labour and involuntary servitude is opposed to the genius of our institutions, opposed to the prevailing spirit of the age, as well as to humanity and Christianity, and degrades the dignity of labour, which is the foundation of republican institutions; and, whereas, section 17 of article one of the constitution of the State of Nevada reads as follows: "Neither slavery, nor involuntary servitude, unless for the punishment of crimes, shall ever be tolerated in this State;" Therefore,

* See note † on preceding page.

The people of the State of Nevada . . . do enact as follows :

Section 4,764. The immigration to this State of all slaves and other people bound by contract to involuntary servitude for a term of years, is hereby prohibited.

Section 4,765. It shall be unlawful for any company, person or persons, to collect the wages or compensation for the labour of the persons described in the first section of this Act.

Section 4,766. It shall be unlawful for any corporation, company, person or persons, to pay to any owner, or agent of the owner of any such persons mentioned in section 1 of this Act, any wages or compensation for the labour of such slaves, or persons so bound by said contract to involuntary servitude.

Section 4,767. Any violation of any of the provisions of this Act shall be deemed a misdemeanour, and shall be punished by a fine of not less than three hundred dollars, nor more than one thousand dollars, or by imprisonment in the county jail for a term of not less than three months or more than six months, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

Chapter 23, Section 4,947. From and after the passage of this Act, no Chinaman or Mongolian shall be employed, directly or indirectly, in any capacity, on any public works, or in or about any buildings or institutions, or grounds, under the control of this State.

Section 4,948. Hereafter no right of way or charter, or other privileges for the construction of any public works by any railroad or other corporation or association shall be granted to such corporation or association, except upon the express condition that no Mongolian or Chinese shall be employed on or about the construction of such work in any capacity.

Section 4,949. Any violation of the conditions of this Act shall work a forfeiture of all rights, privileges, and franchise granted to such corporation or association.

OREGON. Constitution, Article 1, Section 32.

. . . The Legislative Assembly shall have power to restrain and regulate the immigration to this State of persons not qualified to become citizens of the United States.*

Hill's Annotated Laws of 1887, Chapter 87.

Section 4,235. . . . It shall be unlawful to employ any Chinese labourers on any street or part of street of any city or incorporated town of this State, or any public works or public improvement of any character, except as a punishment for crime; and all contracts which any person or corporation may have for the improvement of any such street or part of street, or public works or improvements of any character, shall be null and void from and after the date of any employment of Chinese labourers thereon by the contractor. . . . †

* This is given in *Reports on the Status of Aliens and Foreign Companies in the United States*, Commercial, No. 17 (1887) (United States) [C.—5170], p. 29; see also *American Statute Law*, by F. J. Stimson, p. 14. A Chinaman cannot be naturalized as a citizen of the United States; see *ante*, p. 162, n.

† This section has been held void by the United States circuit court in *Baker v. Portland*, 5 Saw. 566. In *City of Portland v. Baker* the circuit court of the State for the fourth district held the section valid. An appeal was taken to the supreme court of the State, but the case was decided in that court upon other points. (*City of Portland v. Baker*, 8 Oregon, 356.)

APPENDIX E.

NOTES ON THE PRINCIPAL DECISIONS OF THE COURTS IN THE UNITED STATES
with respect to the CONSTRUCTION OF LAWS RESTRICTING IMMIGRATION.

The Act of March 3, 1875, prohibits the importation for purposes of prostitution of women from all countries, not from China, Japan, and the Oriental countries alone.—*U.S. v. Johnson*, 19 Blatchford, C. Ct. 257.

An actor is not a Chinese labourer, *Re Ho King*, 8 Sawyer, C. Ct., 438; s. c. 14 Fed. Rep. 724. But a seaman is, *Re Fook*, 65 How. (N.Y.) Pr. 404.

A Chinaman refused the right to land is entitled to a writ of *habeas corpus*; see *Re Chung Goo Pooi*, 25 Fed. Rep. 77.

In re Day, 27 Fed. Rep. 678-682; judgment.

Brown, J.—“Arthur Day and the seven other persons for whose benefit this writ of *habeas corpus* was procured, arrived at this port as passengers on the steamer Warwick, on the 24th of April 1886. The petition and return show that they are children from 12 to 15 years old, who had been supported by charity at a reform and industrial school, in Bristol, England; that they had been committed to that school, by the local magistrates, as truants; that most of them have one parent or both parents living in Bristol; that they were put on the Warwick and their passage money paid to this country; that certain arrangements had been made looking to the placing of two of the children with a Mr. Hopkins, a farmer, in Manitoba, and of the rest, with persons in Kansas; and that their tickets to Kansas and Manitoba had been provided and paid for. The Commissioners of Emigration acting in pursuance of the provisions of the Act of Congress approved August 3, 1882 (22 Stat. 214) under their employment by the Secretary of the Treasury, in reference to passengers arriving at this port, upon examination of these children upon their arrival, not being wholly satisfied as to the provisions designed for them, found that they were ‘unable to take care of themselves without becoming a public charge’ and reported accordingly to the collector of the port, and their landing was stopped.

“Upon this writ of *habeas corpus* it is sought to review the finding of the Commissioners of Emigration and to reverse their decision that the children ought not to be permitted to land. Some additional facts favourable to the children have been made known on this hearing, not presented to the Commissioners, including a written obligation for each of the children by a responsible resident here, furnishing indemnity against any charge that might be incurred on their account for a period of two years.

“1. It is the business of the Commissioners and not of this Court, to ascertain the facts, and to determine whether or not any particular passenger comes within the provisions of the statute, so as not to be entitled to land. Section 2 of the Act provides that the Commissioners ‘shall examine into the condition of passengers arriving in any ship or vessel; and for that purpose, they are authorized to go on board and through any such ship or vessel; and if, on such examination, there shall be found among such passengers any convict, lunatic, idiot, or any other person unable to take care of himself or herself without becoming a public charge, they shall report the same to the collector of such port, and such person shall not be permitted to land.’ The authority of Congress to pass such regulations has been repeatedly affirmed; and the validity of the Act of 1882 sustained by the Supreme Court in the case of *Edye v. Robertson*, 112, U. S. 580; s. c. 5 Sup. Ct. Rep. 247.

“The provisions above quoted manifestly impose upon the Commissioners the duty of determining the facts upon which the refusal of the right to land

depends. The general doctrine of the law in such cases is that where the determination of the facts is lodged in a particular office or tribunal, it is conclusive and cannot be reviewed except as authorized by law—*Foley v. Harrison*, 15 How. 448; *Dorsheimer v. U. S.*, 7 Wall, 166; *Goodyear v. Providence Rubber Co.*, 2 Cliff, 351, 375; affirmed 9 Wall, 788, 798; *Martin v. Mott*, 12 Wheat. 19; *Clinkenbeard v. U. S.*, 21 Wall, 65, 70; *The Philadelphia, etc. v. Stimpson*, 14 Pet. 448, 458; see *U. S. v. Ling*, 18 Fed. Rep. 15–20, and cases there cited; *U. S. v. McDowell*, 21 Fed. Rep. 563.

“The statute of 1882 makes no provision for any review of the decision of the Commissioners upon the evidence before them. No such review can therefore be had upon a writ of *habeas corpus*. That subject was elaborately considered by Blatchford, J., in the case of *Stupp*, 12 Blatchf. 501, 519, who had been held by a United States Commissioner for extradition under the treaty with Belgium. The rule deduced from an examination of the authorities, and of the statutes in reference to the powers of a federal court under a writ of *habeas corpus*, is that ‘the court issuing the writ must inquire and ‘adjudge whether the Commissioner acquired jurisdiction of the matter, by conforming to the requirements of the treaty and the statute; whether he exceeded his jurisdiction; and whether he had any legal or competent evidence of the facts before him on which to exercise a judgment as to the criminality of the accused. But such court is not to inquire whether the legal evidence of facts before the Commissioner was sufficient to warrant his conclusion. . . . The proper inquiry is limited to ascertaining whether the Commissioner had jurisdiction and did not exceed his jurisdiction, and had before him legal and competent evidence of facts whereon to pass judgment as to the facts of criminality, and did not arbitrarily commit the accused without any legal evidence.’ This rule has since been repeatedly applied, and must govern the present case. See *In re Fowler*, 18 Blatchf. 430, 443; *s. c.* 4 Fed. Rep. 303, and cases there cited; *In re Wadge*, 15 Fed. Rep. 864; *In re Byron*, 18 Fed. Rep. 722.

“The petition and the return show that the Commissioners were acting within their jurisdiction. There was competent evidence before the Commissioners for making up a decision, though not all the evidence that has since been made known. The evident youth of the children; their own answers to inquiries; the absence of any person that had legal authority or control over them or was under any legal responsibility for their support, were all important facts. Upon these facts it was for the Commissioners alone to decide whether there were suitable guaranties against the likelihood that the children might become a public charge. That the Commissioners seek to combine humanity with a faithful administration of their public duties is known to the Court, and is beyond question.

“By the expression ‘unable to take care of themselves without becoming a public charge,’ the law does not intend an inability having reference to the passenger’s personal efforts alone. Such a construction would exclude every child from our shores, since no child, by his personal efforts alone, can take care of himself. All the means of care or support that are provided for the passenger, and are available for his benefit, must be taken into account. The law intends those only that are likely to ‘become a public charge’ because they can neither take care of themselves or are under the charge or protection of any other person, who by natural relation or assumed responsibility furnishes reasonable assurance that they will not become a charge upon the public.

“2. Under the provisions of the Act of 1882 the Commissioners so long as they retain jurisdiction over the passengers, and at any time before the return of the passengers to whom landing is refused, may reconsider their decision. Under section 4 of the Act they are charged with the execution up to the actual time of the return of the passengers, and their jurisdiction of the matter continues until the order for return has been executed. In cases like the present therefore, where the refusal to permit the landing of passengers is based entirely upon the absence of sufficient guaranty for the proper care of young persons, it may often happen that further knowledge of the facts, or the subsequent furnishing of sufficient sponsors, or of additional guaranties, would remove all reasonable objections. The report to the collector does not oust the Commissioners of jurisdiction. That report is not for the purpose of a further hearing before a different tribunal. The passengers, by section 4,

still remain subject to the disposition of the Commissioners ; and there is no reason why any additional facts bearing on the case that may become known at any time before the passengers are returned, should not be considered. The summary way in which such cases must be determined in the first instance makes such reconsideration necessary. The case here is much stronger than that of the appraisers of merchandize, whom the Supreme Court in the case of *Bartlett v. Kane*, 6 How. 263, held to be authorized after their report to the collector to make a re-examination and to modify their report, even though an appeal had been already taken from their decision. See also *Iasigi v. Collector*, 1 Wall, 375, 383.

" 3. The additional evidence and the pecuniary guaranties in behalf of the children, produced before me, must be submitted to the Commissioners and not passed upon by this court in the first instance. The court could not undertake to determine their sufficiency without substituting its own judgment upon the facts in the place of the judgment of the Commissioners, whose duty it is by law to determine the question and who have never had presented to them the additional matter referred to. As the Commissioners are acting clearly within their jurisdiction and upon competent evidence, this court cannot review their determination upon *habeas corpus*."

The Act of Congress of August 3, 1882, does not authorize the detention of an immigrant for the purpose of being returned, unless, after examination, he is found by the commissioners to be a "convict, lunatic, idiot, or person unable to take care of himself without becoming a public charge." There is no authority to forbid a final landing, except upon a finding by the commissioners of some one of those four facts, and a report thereof to the collector. Payment of the passage money by a foreign government is only evidence of inability, not necessarily conclusive; and upon a traverse to the return upon *habeas corpus*, it being proved that the commissioners had not found or reported either of the above statutory facts, and voted that the person "be not allowed to land," held insufficient.—*In re O'Sullivan*, 31 Fed. Rep. 447.

Under the Act of Congress of February 26, 1885, and the amendment thereof of February 23, 1887, relating to the immigration of aliens under a contract to labour in the United States, the claim that only the persons soliciting or encouraging the immigration are affected by the Acts cannot be sustained.—*In re Cummings*, 32 Fed. Rep. 75.

An immigrant arriving in this country, under a contract to labour on a dairy farm, the product of which, or a part thereof, forms an article of merchandize that competes with others in a similar business, and whose passage here has been paid by the agent of the employer, is not within the exception under the Act of Congress of 1885, sec. 5, which provides that the prohibition therein contained shall not apply to persons employed strictly as personal or domestic servants, &c.—*Id.*

The decision of the collector upon the status of an immigrant, whose right to land in the United States is challenged on the ground that he is under a contract to labour, is conclusive, and not open to review in the courts on *habeas corpus*, if there was competent evidence before the collector on which to exercise his judgment; and if *habeas corpus* proceedings are resorted to, and facts not previously placed before the collector are therein disclosed, the whole case may afterwards be again presented to the collector.—*Id.*

The decision of the collector of the port that a Chinese labourer is not entitled to land does not conclude the Courts; (and such labourer will, notwithstanding such decision, have his remedy by *habeas corpus*).—*United States v. Jung Ah Lung*, 124 U.S. 621, 628, 629.

In re Bracmadfar, 37 Fed. Rep. 774.

On the 21st of February, 1889, 21 Armenian immigrants arrived at the port of New York by the Netherlands steamer *Leerdam*. On the following day the secretary of the commissioners sent a letter to the collector stating that he was directed by the commissioners to report these immigrants "liable to become a public charge." The collector thereupon directed that the immigrants be not allowed to land, but be returned by the *Leerdam*. On the 23rd a writ of *habeas corpus* was issued, returnable forthwith, upon a petition setting forth that the report had been made without an examination of these immigrants by any of the commissioners and without authority. The writ was addressed to the collector and to the commissioners of emigration. The return of the collector set forth a report from the commissioners stating the persons were "liable to become a public charge" and they were accordingly held for return and landing refused. The return of the Commissioner Stephenson on whom the writ was also served stated that the report had been made without authority from the commissioners, and without examination of the immigrants by any of the commissioners. A traverse was filed to the return of the collector substantially to the same effect.

Brown, J. "Upon this testimony it is plain that the intention of the statute had not been complied with at the time the report was made to the collector, and that the report was made by the secretary without authority. The question whether immigrants should be allowed to land, or be sent back is one that cannot be determined except under the responsibility which the statute imposes. It must be either by the board of commissioners or by some one of them, or by some person whom the board of commissioners has authorized to pass finally upon the question. . . . The commissioners as appears from the evidence, have never devolved upon any subordinate the right to determine this question, or whether an adverse report shall be made to the collector. The report on this case must therefore be treated as a nullity; and as a sufficient examination appears to have been made by one of the commissioners to show that the persons ought not to be detained, and no further examination appearing to be needed or desired they should be discharged and allowed to land."

In re Palagano et al. 38 Fed. Rep. 590.

The relators were immigrants who arrived at the port of New York on the 13th of February, 1889, on the *Utopia* from Naples, Italy. The commissioners after examination reported to the collector that they were likely to become a charge to the public. The collector after the receipt of the Commissioners' report heard other evidence as to the relators' condition, and determined that they were not likely to become a public charge. The relators sued out a writ of *habeas corpus* directed to the collector and the commissioners of emigration.

Lacombe, J. ". . . I am satisfied that there is no power in the collector of the port to reverse the action of the commissioners in determining the status of these persons, and think there is sufficient authority in sub-division 2 of the Treasury Order of Sept. 1, 1885, to warrant the emigrant commissioners in keeping these persons in a suitable place until some arrangement can be made with the steamship company to conveniently return them to the port whence they came. If there are peculiar circumstances as suggested on the argument, which would tend to modify the former finding of the commissioners of emigration such facts should be laid before them. They do not become *functus officio* by a single decision, but may review such decision whenever justice requires such action. Writ dismissed."

In re Murnane et al. 39 Fed. Rep. 99.

Lacombe, J. ". . . The second section of the Act of August 3, 1882, requires the determination as to the condition of immigrants to be had by the board of commissioners. For the purpose of enabling and assisting them to make such examination they are authorized either individually or through persons whom they may appoint, to go on board any ship or vessel bringing immigrants to this port, but this permission is not to be construed as autho-

ricing them to delegate to any person other than themselves the important functions—*quasi-judicial* in their character—which are by that act confided to them.”

In re Dietze, 40 Fed. Rep. 324.

The petitioner, an immigrant from Switzerland, arrived at Castle Garden, October 18, 1889. On examination by the proper officers, he stated and signed an affidavit in substance that he was engaged by contract to work for a silk manufacturer at Paterson, N. J., which being reported to the collector, he was directed to be sent back in accordance with the provisions of Act of February 23, 1887 (24 Stat. 414 c. 220).

Brown, J., delivering opinion—

“If the prisoner made false statements to the examining officers, he alone is to blame for the condition in which he finds himself now. It is not possible for me to release him on *habeas corpus*. It may be a suitable case for an application for a further hearing before the collector. I think it is so. But it would be for the collector to hear any such application in the first instance and determine it, not for this court; because this court is not the tribunal to make an original examination into the facts, but merely to see that the proceedings by the collector or other officers were fairly conducted and legally sufficient. I cannot say that they have been in any respect irregular or unfair; and they were based upon evidence that was the best that could be obtained, and apparently conclusive.” Evidence being the affidavit which he swore to and signed, and oral statements to the officers.

A woman who is engaged as a milliner is not a “professional artist” within the exception of the Act of Congress prohibiting the immigration of aliens under contract to perform labour, 23 Stat. 332; 22 Stat. 414.—*United States v. Thompson*, 41 Fed. Rep. 28.

A declaration in debt for the penalty imposed by Act U. S., February 26, 1885, forbidding the importation of foreigners under contract of labour, which fails to allege that the foreign labourer did actually immigrate to this country, and that the defendant when he assisted him to migrate knew that he was under contract, is fatally defective; following *United States v. Craig*, 28 Fed. Rep. 795.—*United States v. Borneman*, 41 Fed. Rep. 751.

The owners of a Danish ship claimed that head-money exacted for immigrants was illegally exacted and should be refunded. *Held*, that the exaction fell within Act U. S., August 3, 1882, c. 376 (22 Stat. 214), and that the court could not give weight to an argument that the “favoured nation” clause of the treaty with Denmark affected the case.—*Thingvalla Line v. United States*, 24 Ct. Cl. 255.

By the treaty with China of November 17, 1880 (22 Stat. 13, Art. 2), it is provided that “Chinese subjects, whether proceeding to the United States “as teachers, students, merchants, or from curiosity, together with their body “and household servants, shall be allowed to go and come of their own free “will and accord, and shall be accorded all the rights, privileges, immunities, “and exemptions which are accorded to the citizens and subjects of the most “favoured nation.” *Held*, that the wife and children of a Chinese merchant who is entitled to come into the country under this treaty are entitled to come with him, without the certificate which Act Cong. July 5, 1884 (23 Stat., 115), requires of every Chinese person other than a labourer.—*In re Chung Toy Ho*, 42 Fed. Rep. 398.

Where immigrants have been prevented from entering the country on the ground that they have come contrary to the provisions of the contract labour law, the finding as to the facts by the superintendent of immigration, appointed by the Secretary of the Treasury under Act Cong. February 23, 1887, when confirmed by the collector, acting pursuant to the regulations of the Secretary of the Treasury, is a finding of a tribunal duly constituted by law, and is not subject to review by the circuit court.—*In re Vito Rullo*, 43 Fed. Rep. 62.

Under the Act of Congress prohibiting the importation of aliens under contract to perform labour, which directs the Secretary of the Treasury not to permit such aliens to land, the fact, that the refusal of a permit to land is to confine the immigrant to the ship on which he came while she remains in port, does not authorize him to be released under *habeas corpus* when it clearly appears that he is within the purview of the Act.—*In re Florio*, 43 Fed. Rep. 114.

The Act of Congress prohibiting the importation of aliens under contract to perform labour is a constitutional exercise of the power to regulate commerce with foreign nations; following *United States v. Craig*, 28 Fed. Rep. 795.—*Ib.*

The ordinance enacted by the city of San Francisco, known as the "Bingham Ordinance," which requires all Chinese inhabitants to remove from the portion of the city theretofore occupied by them outside the city and county of San Francisco, or to another designated part of the city and county, is void as being in direct conflict with the constitution, treaties, and statutes of the United States, particularly in the sense that it is discriminating and unequal in its operation, and an arbitrary confiscation of property without due process of law.—*In re Lee Sing*, 43 Fed. Rep. 359; *In re Sing Too Quan*, *ib.*

An immigrant who has been convicted in the country from which he came of an assault with a deadly weapon, and has served the term of imprisonment imposed, is a convict, within the meaning of the Act regulating immigration.—*In re Aliano*, 43 Fed. Rep. 517; *In re Varana*, *ib.*

The "Chinese Restriction Act of 1882," as amended in 1884 (23 Stat. 115), provides that every vessel whose master shall knowingly violate any of the provisions of this Act shall be deemed forfeited to the United States, and shall be liable to seizure and condemnation. *Held*, that a vessel stolen from its owner, and used, while out of his control, without his knowledge or consent, in bringing Chinese labourers into the United States in violation of law does not become liable to seizure and forfeiture. To work a forfeiture of a vessel, the master must knowingly violate the statute. A person in control of a stolen vessel is not master of the vessel in the sense in which the term is applied to an officer in the statute.—*United States v. The Geo. E. Wilton*, 43 Fed. Rep. 606.

Defendants contracted with a resident of France to come to this country and work for them in the manufacture of "French silk stockings," which were shown to be articles materially different from ordinary silk stockings. It was shown that there had been manufactured here stockings whereof the feet were the same as those of the "French silk stockings," but the legs were different, and made by different machines. *Held*, that the manufacture of the complete "French silk stockings" was a new industry, within the exemption of 23 Stat. 332, c. 164, imposing a penalty on the importation of contract labour.—*United States v. McCallum*, 44 Fed. Rep. 745.

Machines for the manufacture of "French silk stockings" were already in use in this country for knitting the feet, and there was evidence that a skillful workman might learn to run them in a few weeks. It was shown for defendants that their machines stood idle until they imported the Frenchman in question, and that they had advertised for men to run them, but had failed to find any that were competent. *Held*, that the evidence did not disclose such efforts on defendants' part as to show a necessity to resort to foreign workmen, and they are liable for the penalty.—*Ib.*

Act Cong. February 26, 1885, prescribing a penalty of \$1,000 for importing foreigners under contract to perform labour, and providing that the penalty may be sued for and recovered "as debts of like amount are now recovered in the circuit courts," does not give the circuit courts exclusive jurisdiction of such suits. The district courts have concurrent jurisdiction under Rev. St. U. S. sec. 563, which gives them jurisdiction of "all suits for penalties and forfeitures incurred under any law of the United States."—*United States v. Whitcomb Metallic Bedstead Co.*, 45 Fed. Rep. 89. Such jurisdiction is not taken from the district courts by Act Cong. Aug. 13, 1888, providing that the circuit courts shall have original cognizance of "all suits of a civil nature," where the amount involved exceeds \$2,000; since a suit to recover the penalty under the Act of February 26, 1885, is of a penal and quasi-criminal nature.—*Ib.*

The regulation of the Secretary of the Treasury declares that the superintendent of immigration at the port of New York shall examine into the condition of passengers arriving at that port, and report to the collector whether any person is within the prohibition of Act Cong. February 26, 1885. Act Cong. February 23, 1887, amending the Act of 1885, provides that if, on such examination by the superintendent, any person shall be found within the prohibition of the Act, and the same is reported to the collector, such person shall not be permitted to land. *Held*, that such power of determination is vested in the superintendent of immigration, and not in the collector.—*In re Bucciarello*, 45 Fed. Rep. 463.

Act Cong. May 6, 1882, section 6 (22 Stat. 58, c. 126), provides that every Chinese person, other than a labourer, who may be entitled to come within the United States, shall produce a prescribed certificate of his identity and of his right to enter; and Act July 5, 1884, provides that this certificate "shall be the sole evidence permissible on the part of the person so producing the same to establish a right of entry into the United States." Act October 1, 1888, prohibits any Chinese labourer who had been, or was then, or might hereafter be, a resident within the United States, and who had departed or might depart therefrom, to return to or to remain in the United States. *Held*, that since the passage of the latter Act, no Chinese person, formerly resident in the United States, but temporarily absent therefrom, is entitled to return without the prescribed certificate.—*Wan Shing v. United States*, 11 S. Ct. 729, 140 U. S. 424.

A Chinese person 16 years of age claimed the right to enter the United States because he was born here, and hence a citizen. He and his father testified that he was born on a certain street, and went to China with his mother when he was 10 years old, but he remembered no circumstance of his early life, and knew nothing of the English language. The father, who worked on a sewing-machine, produced a so-called "store-book," showing the purchase of a ticket for the boy and his mother; but he gave no particulars of his life in San Francisco, or of his being known among his neighbours as having any children. The boy remembered nothing but the names of three men, who, he said, accompanied him to China, but he testified that his mother had frequently repeated these to him. *Held*, that the evidence was not sufficient to establish his citizenship; Brewer, J., dissenting.—*Quock Ting v. United States*, 11 S. Ct. 733, 140 U. S. 417; *Id.* 11 S. Ct. 851, 140 U. S. 417.

Nishimura Ekiu v. United States, 142 U. S. 658-664; judgment.

Mr. Justice Gray delivered the opinion of the Court:—

“As this case involves the constitutionality of a law of the United States, it is within the appellate jurisdiction of this Court, notwithstanding the appeal was taken since the act establishing Circuit Courts of Appeals took effect. Act of March 3, 1891, c. 517, sec. 5; 26 Stat. 827, 828, 1115.

“It is an accepted maxim of international law, that every sovereign nation has the power, as inherent in sovereignty, and essential to self-preservation, to forbid the entrance of foreigners within its dominions, or to admit them only in such cases and upon such conditions as it may see fit to prescribe. Vattel, lib. 2, secs. 94, 100; 1 Phillimore (3rd ed.) c. 10, sec. 220. In the United States this power is vested in the national Government, to which the Constitution has committed the entire control of international relations, in peace as well as in war. It belongs to the political department of the Government, and may be exercised either through treaties made by the President and Senate, or through statutes enacted by Congress, upon whom the Constitution has conferred power to regulate commerce with foreign nations, including the entrance of ships, the importation of goods, and the bringing of persons into the ports of the United States; to establish a uniform rule of naturalization; to declare war, and to provide and maintain armies and navies; and to make all laws which may be necessary and proper for carrying into effect these powers and all other powers vested by the Constitution in the Government of the United States or in any department or officer thereof. Constitution, art. 1, sec. 8; *Head-Money Cases*, 112 U. S. 580; *Chae Chan Ping v. United States*, 130 U. S. 581, 604-609.

“The supervision of the admission of aliens into the United States may be entrusted by Congress either to the Department of State, having the general management of foreign relations, or to the Department of the Treasury, charged with the enforcement of the laws regulating foreign commerce; and Congress has often passed Acts forbidding the immigration of particular classes of foreigners, and has committed the execution of these Acts to the Secretary of the Treasury to collectors of customs and to inspectors acting under their authority. See, for instance, Acts of March 3, 1875, c. 141; 18 Stat. 477; August 3, 1882, c. 376; 22 Stat. 214; February 23, 1887, c. 220; 24 Stat. 414; October 19, 1888, c. 1,210; 25 Stat. 566; as well as the various Acts for the exclusion of the Chinese.

“An alien immigrant prevented from landing by any such officer claiming authority to do so under an Act of Congress and thereby restrained of his liberty, is doubtless entitled to a writ of *habeas corpus* to ascertain whether the restraint is lawful. *Chew Heong v. United States*, 112 U. S. 536; *United States v. Jung Ah Lung*, 124 U. S. 621; *Wan Shing v. United States*, 140 U. S. 424; *Lau Ow Bew, Petitioner*, 141 U. S. 583. And Congress may, if it sees fit, as in the statutes in question in *United States v. Jung Ah Lung*, just cited, authorize the courts to investigate and ascertain the facts on which the right to land depends. But, on the other hand, the final determination of those facts may be entrusted by Congress to executive officers; and in such a case, as in all others, in which a statute gives a discretionary power to an officer, to be exercised by him upon his own opinion of certain facts, he is made the sole and exclusive judge of the existence of those facts, and no other tribunal, unless expressly authorized by law to do so, is at liberty to re-examine or controvert the sufficiency of the evidence on which he acted. *Martin v. Mott*, 12 Wheat. 19, 31; *Philadelphia and Trenton Railroad v. Stimpson*, 14 Pet. 448, 458; *Benson v. McMahon*, 127 U. S. 457; *In re Oteiza*, 136 U. S. 330. It is not within the province of the judiciary to order that foreigners who have never been naturalized, nor acquired any domicile or residence within the United States, nor even been admitted into the country pursuant to law, shall be permitted to enter in opposition to the constitutional and lawful measures of the legislative and executive branches of the national Government. As to such persons, the decisions of executive or administrative officers, acting within powers expressly conferred by Congress, are due process of law. *Murray v. Hoboken Co.*, 18 How. 272; *Hilton v. Merritt*, 110 U. S. 97.

“The Immigration Act of August 3, 1882, c. 376, which was held to be constitutional in the *Head-Money Cases*, above cited, imposed a duty of 50 cents for each alien passenger coming by vessel into any port of the United States,

to be paid to the collector of customs, and by him into the Treasury, to constitute an immigrant fund; by section 2 the secretary of the Treasury was charged with the duty of executing the provisions of the Act, and with the supervision of the business of immigration to the United States, and, for these purposes was empowered to make contracts with any State commission, board, or officers, and it was made their duty to go on board vessels and examine the condition of immigrants, 'and if on such examination there shall be found among such passengers any convict, lunatic, idiot, or any person unable to take care of himself or herself without becoming a public charge, they shall report the same in writing to the collector of such port, and such persons shall not be permitted to land;' and by section 3 the Secretary of the Treasury was authorized to establish rules and regulations, and to issue instructions, to carry out this and other immigration laws of the United States, 22 Stat. 214.

"The doings of Thornley, the State Commissioner of Immigration, in examining and detaining the petitioner, and in reporting to the collector, appear to have been under that Act, and would be justified by the second section thereof, unless that section should be taken to have been impliedly repealed by the last paragraph of section 8 of the Act of March 3, 1891, c. 551, by which all duties imposed and powers conferred by that section upon State commissions, boards, or officers, acting under contract with the Secretary of the Treasury, 'shall be performed and exercised, as occasion may arise, by the inspection officers of the United States,' 26 Stat. 1085.

"But it is unnecessary to express a definite opinion on the authority of Thornley to inspect and detain the petitioner.

"Putting her in the mission house, as a more suitable place than a steamship, pending the decision of the question of her right to land, and keeping her there, by agreement between her attorney and the attorney for the United States, until final judgment upon the writ of *habeas corpus* left her in the same position, so far as regarded her right to land in the United States, as if she had never been removed from the steamship.

"Before the hearing upon the writ of *habeas corpus*, Hatch was appointed by the Secretary of the Treasury inspector of immigration at the Port of San Francisco, and, after making the inspection and examination required by the Act of 1891, refused to allow the petitioner to land, and made a report to the collector of customs, stating facts which tended to show, and which the inspector decided did show that she was a 'person likely to become a public charge' and so within one of the classes of aliens 'excluded from admission into the United States' by the first section of that Act. And Hatch intervened in the proceedings on the writ of *habeas corpus*, setting up his decision in bar of the writ.

"A writ of *habeas corpus* is not like an action to recover damages for an unlawful arrest or commitment, but its object is to ascertain whether the prisoner can lawfully be detained in custody; and if sufficient ground for his detention by the Government is shown, he is not to be discharged for defects in the original arrest or commitment. *Ex parte Bollman and Swartwout*, 4 Cranch, 74, 114, 125; *Coleman v. Tennessee*, 97 U. S., 509, 519; *United States v. McBratney*, 104 U. S., 621, 624; *Kelley v. Thomas*, 15 Gray, 192; *The King v. Marks*, 3 East, 157; *Shuttleworth's Case*, 9 Q. B., 651.

"The case must therefore turn on the validity and effect of the action of Hatch as inspector of immigration.

"Section 7 of the Act of 1891 establishes the office of superintendent of immigration, and enacts that he 'shall be an officer in the Treasury Department, under the control and supervision of the Secretary of the Treasury.' By section 8 'the proper inspection officers' are required to go on board any vessel bringing alien immigrants and to inspect and examine them, and may for this purpose remove and detain them on shore, without such removal being considered a landing; and 'shall have power to administer oaths, and to take and consider testimony touching the right of any such aliens to enter the United States, all of which shall be entered of record;' 'all decisions made by the inspection officers or their assistants touching the right of any alien to land, when adverse to such right, shall be final, unless appeal be taken to the superintendent of immigration, whose action shall be subject to review by the Secretary of the Treasury;' and the Secretary of the Treasury may

prescribe rules for inspection along the borders of Canada, British Columbia, and Mexico, 'provided that not exceeding one inspector shall be appointed for each customs district.'

"It was argued that the appointment of Hatch was illegal because it was made by the Secretary of the Treasury and should have been made by the superintendent of immigration. But the Constitution does not allow Congress to vest the appointment of inferior officers elsewhere than 'in the President 'alone, in the courts of law or in the heads of departments;'' the Act of 1891 manifestly contemplates and intends that the inspectors of immigration shall be appointed by the Secretary of the Treasury; and appointments of such officers by the superintendent of immigration could be upheld only by presuming them to be made with the concurrence or approval of the Secretary of the Treasury, his official head. Constitution, Art. 2, section 2; *United States v. Hartwell*, 6 Wall. 385; *Stanton v. Wilkeson*, 8 Ben. 357; *Price v. Abbott*, 17 Fed. Rep. 506.

"It was also argued that Hatch's proceedings did not conform to section 8 of the Act of 1891, because it did not appear that he took testimony on oath, and because there was no record of any testimony or of his decision. But the statute does not require inspectors to take any testimony at all, and allows them to decide on their own inspection and examination the question of the right of any alien immigrant to land. The provision relied on merely empowers inspectors to administer oaths and to take and consider testimony, and requires only testimony so taken to be entered of record.

"The decision of the inspector of immigration being in conformity with the Act of 1891, there can be no doubt that it was final and conclusive against the petitioner's right to land in the United States. The words of section 8 are clear to that effect, and were manifestly intended to prevent the question of an alien immigrant's right to land, when once decided adversely by an inspector, acting within the jurisdiction conferred upon him, from being impeached or reviewed, in the courts or otherwise, save only by appeal to the inspector's official superiors, and in accordance with the provisions of the Act. Section 13, by which the circuit and district courts of the United States are 'invested with full and concurrent jurisdiction of all causes, civil 'and criminal, arising under any of the provisions of this Act,' evidently refers to causes of judicial cognizance, already provided for, whether civil actions in the nature of debt for penalties under sections 3 and 4, or indictments for misdemeanours under sections 6, 8, and 10. Its intention was to vest concurrent jurisdiction of such causes in the circuit and district courts; and it is impossible to construe it as giving the courts jurisdiction to determine matters which the Act has expressly committed to the final determination of executive officers.

"The result is, that the Act of 1891 is constitutional and valid; the inspector of immigration was duly appointed; his decision against the petitioner's right to land in the United States was within the authority conferred upon him by that Act; no appeal having been taken to the superintendent of immigration, that decision was final and conclusive; the petitioner is not unlawfully restrained of her liberty; and the Order of the Circuit Court is affirmed."

Mr. Justice Brewer dissented.

In re Feinknopf, 47 Fed. Rep. 447, 448, and 452; excerpt from judgment.

Benedict, J.—"This case comes before the court upon the return made by James O'Beirne, as acting commissioner of immigration and inspector of immigration, to a writ of *habeas corpus* issued upon the petition of Adolph Feinknopf, an alien immigrant, who has arrived by water at the port of New York, and has been ordered by the said inspector of immigration to be returned to the port whence he came. The return shows that the petitioner, upon arrival, was inspected by the inspector, and, a special inquiry having been demanded by the petitioner, such special inquiry was had by the said inspector, and thereupon it was determined and decided by the said inspector that the petitioner was a person likely to become a public charge, and therefore the inspector directed that the petitioner be detained, and sent back to

the place whence he came. In connexion with the return is the testimony taken upon the special inquiry held by the inspection officer. This evidence, which is set forth at length in the return, consists of the testimony of several sworn witnesses produced by the petitioner, whose testimony, if believed, shows that the petitioner is 40 years old; that he is a native of Austria; that he is a cabinet maker by trade, and has exercised that trade for 25 years; that he has no family; that he has baggage with him, worth \$20, and 50 cents in cash; that he is a man who can find employment in his trade, and is willing to exercise the same. The affidavit of the immigrant before the inspection officer on the preliminary inquiry stated the same facts, and, in addition, that the immigrant has not been an inmate of an almshouse, and has not received public aid or support, and has not been convicted of crime. No testimony was offered upon the special inquiry to contradict this testimony, and upon the argument here it was conceded on behalf of the inspector that there was not before him testimony from any witness tending to contradict the testimony produced by the immigrant. Of course this testimony, if believed, would not warrant the conclusion that the petitioner was a person likely to become a public charge; but it is said that the testimony produced by the immigrant was disbelieved by the inspector. Assuming such to be the fact, and conceding the power of the inspection officer to disbelieve testimony presented to him, the case is still devoid of any evidence whatever of any fact upon which to base a determination that the petitioner is likely to become a public charge. The question to be decided, therefore, is whether an order for the return of an alien immigrant as a person likely to become a public charge, made by an inspection officer, without any evidence whatever tending to show such to be the fact, is a valid order, made in compliance with law, or invalid, because not made in compliance with law. . . . The detention of the petitioner is contrary to law, because it is not every alien immigrant arriving by water that can be returned by an inspection officer, but only an alien immigrant determined in the method prescribed by the statute to belong to one of the excluded classes. And when, as in this case it is shown to the court upon the return to a writ of *habeas corpus* that the order for the return of the immigrant was made without such determination as the law requires, the conclusion necessarily follows that the officer in making the order exceeded his jurisdiction, and in such case the duty is cast upon the court to grant the discharge prayed for. The importance of the question in this case will, I trust, induce the district attorney to take an appeal from this decision; and, to enable him to do so with effect, entry of the order for discharge will upon his request be delayed a reasonable time."

United States v. Edgar, 48 Fed. Rep. 91, 93, 94.

(Circuit Court of Appeals, Eighth Circuit, October Term, 1891.)

A labourer in England wrote to a manufacturer in the United States stating that he had heard the latter wanted men to work in a certain branch of the business, and that himself and a comrade, who were experienced therein, desired to come to this country, and asking that passes be sent them. The manufacturer replied, enclosing tickets from Liverpool to St. Louis, and stating that he could give the applicants steady work. Nothing was said on either side as to time or compensation. The labourers came over on the tickets, but were returned by the commissioner of immigration at Philadelphia. *Held*, that the letters did not constitute a contract "made previous to said importation and migration," within the meaning of Act Cong. February, 26, 1885, imposing a penalty for assisting or encouraging the immigration of labourers under contract, since the act of coming to this country was necessary to make the arrangement a binding agreement in any respect. 45 Fed. Rep. 44, affirmed.

Hallett, J.—"It is averred in the complaint that defendant secured the importation of two men from Barton Hill, Bristol, England, who were 'then under contract and agreement with the defendant to perform service and labour for said defendant in the United States, which contract was made previous to said importation and migration' by means of correspondence through the mails. The letters which passed between the parties are set out

in the complaint, and they show a proposal on the part of the men to come to St. Louis and to enter into defendant's service on condition that transportation should be furnished them, and acceptance by defendant. It is averred, also, that defendant paid the passage of the men from Liverpool to St. Louis, and they came as far as Philadelphia in pursuance to the agreement with him. When the men arrived at Philadelphia, the facts having come to the knowledge of the officers of the government at that place, they were returned to England, pursuant to the provisions of an Amendatory Act approved February 23, 1887 (24 Stat. 414). Upon the letters which passed between the parties, and the payment of passage money by defendant, and the act of the men in coming to Philadelphia, it is difficult to make a complete contract to perform labour, because the elements of time and compensation are entirely omitted.

"But there is force in the suggestion of counsel for the Government that, in construing a measure of public policy in a case where there may be reason to believe that the act complained of is in violation of the spirit if not the letter of the law, we ought not to be critical about the terms of the contract for labour mentioned in the statute; and we are not disposed to declare what shall be a sufficient contract under the law. The difficulty in supporting the complaint is that there does not appear to have been any contract or agreement whatever between defendant and the Englishmen, 'made previous to the importation or migration of such alien or aliens, foreigner or foreigners.' The letter written by one of the Englishmen, and defendant's answer, did not make a contract or agreement of any kind until something further should be done. The act of the Englishmen in getting the tickets at Liverpool, and coming to Philadelphia, was necessary to complete the contract or agreement, such as it was. In other words, when the defendant prepaid the Englishmen's passage, and thus assisted and encouraged them to come to the United States, there was no contract for labour which had been previously made by them; and so the case is not within the statute. The point has been ruled the same way in other circuits. *United States v. Craig*, 28 Fed. Rep. 795; *United States v. Borneman*, 41 Fed. Rep. 751. The judgment of the circuit court is affirmed.

In *In re Didfrino et al.* 48 Fed. Rep. pp. 168, 169, the competency of the Court (the Circuit Court of New York, Southern Division) to review the decision of the Commissioners of Immigration in cases where there is conflicting testimony was assumed by the judge (Lacombe, J.).

A railroad company which knowingly employs at its office in New York [State], near the Canadian border, a person who resides in Canada, and comes daily to his work in the United States, is not engaged in assisting or encouraging the "importation or migration" of an alien, within the meaning of the alien contract labour law, Act. Cong. February 26, 1885, Sec. 3.—*United States v. Michigan Cent. R. Co.* (Cir. Ct.), 48 Fed. Rep. 365.

Any person alleging himself to be a citizen of the United States and desiring to return to this country from a foreign land, and that he is prevented from doing so without due process of law, and who on that ground applies to any United States court for a writ of *habeas corpus*, is entitled to have a hearing and a judicial determination of the facts so alleged, and no act of congress can be understood or construed as a bar to such hearing and judicial determination.—*Gee Fook Sing v. U. S.*, 49 Fed. Rep. 146.

The Act of Congress of September 13, 1888, entitled "An Act to prohibit the coming of Chinese labourers to the United States," having been passed subject to the ratification of a treaty then pending between the United States and the Emperor of China, which was never ratified, is not in force, except section 13 thereof, providing for the arrest and deportation of any Chinese person found unlawfully in the United States; that particular provision not

being within the purview of the Act, as declared in section 1, declaring, "It shall be unlawful for any Chinese person, whether a subject of China or any other Power, to enter the United States except as herein-after provided." 48 Fed. Rep. 825 limited.—*United States v. Gee Lee* (Cir. Ct. App.), 50 Fed. Rep. 271, 967.

Section 6 of Act Cong. May 6, 1882, as amended by Act July 5, 1884 (the Chinese Exclusion Act) requiring the presentation of a visé certificate from the Chinese Government to entitle a Chinese person to enter the United States, and declaring it the sole evidence of the right to enter, does not apply to a Chinese merchant domiciled in the United States, who, having left the country for temporary purposes, *animo revertendi*, seeks to re-enter it on his return to his business and home. *Lau Ow Bew v. United States*, 12 S. Ct. 517, followed.—*Ib.*

Laws N. Y. 1882, c. 145, providing for the raising by the Commissioners of Emigration of a fund for the expenses of the inspection and care of alien passengers, by contract with carriers of emigrants by vessel to the city of New York, is not enforceable, as the subject is solely within the jurisdiction of the United States Congress; and the Commissioners are not liable to the city of New York for the care and maintenance by the city of immigrants arriving at that port, where it is not shown that there is any existing fund out of which payment therefore could be made by the Commissioners.—*City of New York v. Commissioners of Emigration*, 13 N. Y. s. 751, 59 Hun. 624.

Church of the Holy Trinity v. United States.

Error to the Circuit Court of the United States for the Southern District of New York. No. 143. Argued and submitted January 7, 1892. Decided February 29, 1892, 143 U. S. 457, 463-5.

The Act of February 26, 1885, "to prohibit the importation and migration of foreigners and aliens under contract or agreement to perform labour in the United States, its Territories and the District of Columbia," 23 Stat. 332, c. 164, does not apply to a contract between an alien, residing out of the United States, and a religious society incorporated under the laws of a State, whereby he engages to remove to the United States and to enter into the service of the society as its rector or minister.

Mr. Justice Brewer delivered the opinion of the court, from which the following is an excerpt:—

" . . . Again, another guide to the meaning of a statute is found in the evil which it is designed to remedy; and for this the court properly looks at contemporaneous events, the situation as it existed, and as it was pressed upon the attention of the legislative body. *United States v. Union Pacific Railroad*, 91 U. S. 72, 79. The situation which called for this statute was briefly but fully stated by Mr. Justice Brown, when, as district judge, he decided the case of *United States v. Craig*, 28 Fed. Rep. 795, 798:—'The motives and history of the Act are matters of common knowledge. It had become the practice for large capitalists in this country to contract with their agents abroad for the shipment of great numbers of an ignorant and servile class of foreign labourers, under contracts, by which the employer agreed, upon the one hand, to repay their passage, while, upon the other hand, the labourers agreed to work after their arrival for a certain time at a low rate of wages. The effect of this was to break down the labour market, and to reduce other labourers engaged in like occupations to the level of the assisted immigrant. The evil finally became so flagrant that an appeal was made to Congress for relief by the passage of the Act in question, the design of which was to raise the standard of foreign immigrants, and to discountenance the migration of those who had not sufficient means in their own hands, or those of their friends, to pay their passage.'

"It appears, also, from the petitions, and in the testimony presented before the committees of Congress, that it was this cheap unskilled labour which was making the trouble, and the influx of which Congress sought to prevent. It was never suggested that we had in this country a surplus of brain toilers, and, least of all, that the market for the services of Christian ministers was depressed by foreign competition. Those were matters to which the attention of Congress, or of the people, was not directed. So far, then, as the evil which was sought to be remedied interprets the statute, it also guides to an exclusion of this contract from the penalties of the act.

"A singular circumstance throwing light upon the intent of Congress, is found in this extract from the report of the Senate Committee on Education and Labour, recommending the passage of the bill:—'The general facts and considerations which induce the committee to recommend the passage of this bill are set forth in the report of the Committee of the House. The committee report the bill back without amendment, although there are certain features thereof which might well be changed or modified, in the hope that the bill may not fail of passage during the present session. Especially would the committee have otherwise recommended amendments, substituting for the expression "labour and service," whenever it occurs in the body of the bill, the words "manual labour" or "manual service," as sufficiently broad to accomplish the purposes of the bill, and that such amendments would remove objections which a sharp and perhaps unfriendly criticism may urge to the proposed legislation. The committee, however, believing that the bill in its present form will be construed as including only those whose labour or service is manual in character, and being very desirous that the bill become a law before the adjournment, have reported the bill without change.' 6059 *Congressional Record*, 48th Congress. And referring back to the report of the Committee of the House, there appears this language:—'It seeks to restrain and prohibit the immigration or importation of labourers who would have never seen our shores but for the inducements and allurements of men whose only object is to obtain labour at the lowest possible rate, regardless of the social and material well-being of our own citizens and regardless of the evil consequences which result to American labourers from such immigration. This class of immigrants care nothing about our institutions, and in many instances never even heard of them; they are men whose passage is paid by the importers; they come here under contract to labour for a certain number of years; they are ignorant of our social condition, and that they may remain so they are isolated and prevented from coming into contact with Americans. They are generally from the lowest social stratum, and live upon the coarsest food and in hovels of a character before unknown to American workmen. They, as a rule, do not become citizens, and are certainly not a desirable acquisition to the body politic. The inevitable tendency of their presence among us is to degrade American labour, and to reduce it to the level of the imported pauper labour.' Page 5359, *Congressional Record*, 48th Congress.

"We find, therefore, that the title of the Act, the evil which was intended to be remedied, the circumstances surrounding the appeal to Congress, the reports of the committee of each house, all concur in affirming that the intent of Congress was simply to stay the influx of this cheap, unskilled labour."

The power of the Federal superintendent of immigration to return passengers is confined to "alien immigrants," and the questions whether persons ordered to be returned are of that description is jurisdictional, and may be determined by the courts on *habeas corpus*.—*In re Panzara et al.*, (District Court, E.D., New York, June 1, 1892), 51 Fed. Rep. 275.

One who is a resident of the United States, though of foreign birth, and not naturalized, and who is returning from a visit to the country of his birth, is not an alien immigrant within the meaning of the laws regulating immigration.—*Ib.*

Under due authority from the Secretary of the Treasury, granted either by general regulations or by special instructions in individual cases, pursuant to

the Act of October 19, 1888, the superintendent or inspector of immigration may, at any time within one year after his landing, take into custody, and return to the country from which he came, an alien emigrant arriving in violation of law, even though he may have been previously passed and allowed to land.—*In re Liferi et al.* (District Court, S.D., New York, July 29, 1892), 52 Fed. Rep. 293 (advance sheets).

United States v. Great Falls & C. Ry. Co.

(Circuit Court. D. Montana. November 21, 1892.)

Report in full, from 53 Fed. Rep. 77, 78 (advance sheets).

IMMIGRATION: CONTRACT-LABOUR LAW.

In an action at law by the United States to recover the penalty for a violation of the Contract-Labour Law (Act February 26, 1885), a complaint alleging that defendant offered to one of its employees in Canada to continue his employment if he would come to the United States, and that in consideration of such promise, and in pursuance of such agreement, he did come to the United States, and work for the defendant, is sufficient to show the acceptance of the offer in Canada, under the Montana rule that pleadings shall be liberally construed, with a view to substantial justice. Comp. St. Mont. div. 1, § 100.

At law. Action by the United States against the Great Falls and Canada Railway Company to recover the penalty of \$1,000 for the importation of a labourer under contract.

On demurrer to the complaint. Overruled. James M. McDonald, Assistant United States Attorney. George W. Taylor for defendant.

Knowles, District Judge.—“This is an action brought by the United States to recover of defendant \$1,000 for a violation of the provisions of section 1 of the Act of Congress of February 26, 1885, entitled ‘An Act to prohibit the importation and migration of foreigners and aliens under contract or agreement to perform labour in the United States, its Territories and the District of Columbia.’ The provisions of that section provide—

‘That it shall be unlawful for any corporation, * * * in any manner whatsoever, to prepay the transportation * * * of any alien or aliens, any foreigner or foreigners, into the United States, its Territories, or the District of Columbia, under contract or agreement, parol or special, express or implied, made previous to the importation or migration of such alien or aliens, foreigner or foreigners, to perform labour or services of any kind in the United States, its Territories, or the District of Columbia.’

“The complaint in this case charges that defendant entered into an express parol contract with one John Lamont, an alien, by which defendant agreed that, in consideration that the said John Lamont would immigrate into the United States, to wit, the district of Montana, and perform services and labour for it, the said defendant, it would continue him as an employee at wages satisfactory to the said John Lamont. This contract, it is alleged, was made on November 5, 1891, in the Dominion of Canada, a dependency of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. The complaint further sets forth that thereupon, upon the date aforesaid, the said John Lamont, in consideration of the said promise, and in pursuance of the said agreement, did immigrate and come into the United States, and into the State of Montana, and, in pursuance of said contract, worked as a labourer upon the defendant’s road; that the said defendant prepaid the transportation of the said John Lamont, and did otherwise assist, encourage, and solicit his migration, knowing that he, the said John Lamont, being an alien, as aforesaid, had entered into this illegal contract with said defendant. Defendant demurred to this complaint, on the ground that the same did not state facts sufficient to constitute a cause of action.

“The principal point presented against the complaint is that there is in fact no contract for labour alleged inasmuch as Lamont made no contract to work for defendant. The contract was made by a proposal to Lamont by defendant that if he would come to the United States, as alleged in the complaint, and

perform services for defendant, it would give him work at such wages as would be satisfactory to him. It is alleged that in consideration of said promise, and in pursuance of said agreement, the said Lamont did migrate and come into the United States, and in pursuance of said contract worked as a labourer upon the line of the defendant's road.

"The contract here set forth appears to have been an offer on the part of defendant to Lamont to continue him in its employ if he would emigrate to the United States, and work for it. The wages would be satisfactory to Lamont. Did Lamont accept this offer? No doubt, it would have been better to have alleged directly that he did. But, instead of that, the pleader has seen fit to allege that he did emigrate to the United States, and did work for defendant, and that this was done in pursuance of said agreement. It must be that part of the agreement was entered into by defendant. This is an action at law, and the rules for the construction of the pleadings are those prescribed by the Statutes of Montana. In these it is provided that the pleadings in the case should be liberally construed, with a view to substantial justice between the parties. Comp. St. Mont. div. 1, § 100. I think that the allegations of the performance of what was embraced in the proposition sufficiently show the acceptance. The only point of trouble is, where can it be said that the acceptance was made? I think when Lamont started on his migration to the United States. He came here then under a contract to labour for defendant. The contract was made in Canada, and defendant prepaid his transportation. The complaint states facts sufficient to constitute a cause of action, and the demurrer is overruled."*

* In addition to the above cases from the recognized law reports may be noted the following decision given in the *Boston News*, April 18, 1893:—"A person must take a physical part in the actual transportation of aliens imported under contract to work in this country before he is criminally liable under section 6, chapter 551, of the Act of Congress of 1891.

"Justice Nelson so ruled in the case of Mr. Cadwallader M. Raymond, the Charlestown bicycle manufacturer, who was on trial for a violation of that section. He imported into this country Messrs. Roland G. Cohen and Ernest Linegar, two subjects of Great Britain, living at Birmingham, England. The court, at the conclusion of the evidence for the Government, ordered the jury to return a verdict of not guilty. The evidence tended to show that he had engaged them while he himself was in England, and paid their fare to this country.

"The court, when the evidence was concluded, stated that he thought the statute was plainly intended to apply to the class of persons who physically took part in the transportation of the aliens, and ordered a verdict of not guilty. The defendant was discharged. The aliens were allowed to go on their own recognizance."

REPORT BY MR. BURNETT.

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EUROPEAN IMMIGRATION INTO THE UNITED STATES, ITS NATURE AND EFFECTS.

REPORT BY MR. BURNETT.

To the CONTROLLER-GENERAL of the COMMERCIAL, LABOUR, and STATISTICAL DEPARTMENTS, BOARD OF TRADE.

SIR,

IN conformity with directions received from the Board of Trade an investigation has been made into certain phases of the subject of alien immigration into the United States.

SCOPE AND METHOD OF INQUIRY.

In reporting on the results of such inquiry it is desirable in the first place to set forth the exact tenour of the instructions defining and limiting the scope of the matters to be examined, in order that the character and extent of the ground to be covered may be at once understood. For the purposes of this report it is not necessary to quote the whole text of the joint letter of instruction, but merely that portion of it which specifies the second division of the subject. The instruction is as follows:—To inquire “into the nature and effects of that portion of the immigration which is of the character of the recent immigration of “destitute foreigners from the eastern parts of Europe into “England.”

To closely observe the strict letter of this instruction might have the effect not only of very much narrowing the range of the questions to be examined, but might also tend to obscure some of the issues involved. Immigration is, in the United States, a subject of such vast importance and is so great a chapter in the history of the country that it is extremely difficult to take any single one of the diverse elements of which it is made up and treat it by itself without reference to the other elements. No report, therefore, can be complete or altogether intelligible which does not take account in the first place, of the general characteristics of such immigration. That portion of the immigration into the United States which is of the character of that coming from

the eastern parts of Europe into England forms by no means the largest proportion of the whole. It has also only begun to assume considerable dimensions in comparatively recent years, and its nature and effects have, therefore, been largely influenced by the conditions previously existing, and created by other and preponderant classes of immigrants. Therefore, before dealing specially with the nature and effects of the immigration of Russian Jews into the United States, it is proposed to give some details as to American immigration generally.

It is desirable, however, in the first place, to say a few words as to how the inquiry has been conducted. The time available was limited, and, naturally, the area over which the investigation extended was circumscribed. New York being the city of all others in which the pressure of immigration is chiefly felt, occupied a good share of time and attention. In addition the cities of Brooklyn, Philadelphia, Washington Harrisburg, Pittsburg, and the coke region adjacent, Columbus, Chicago, Detroit, Buffalo, Albany, Boston, Fall River, Newark, and Jersey City were visited. The Jewish Colonies in New Jersey were also specially visited and inspected. In each of these places interviews were held with local authorities having knowledge of subjects directly or indirectly bearing upon the social and economic effects of immigration, with trade union officials, and representatives of organisations of employers, and generally, with all persons known as likely to be able to contribute special information on the subject. At Washington members of the Senate and other public men were seen, and United States officials in the Treasury and other public departments consulted. In every case information was given with the utmost readiness, and all public documents on the subject were supplied freely. To enumerate all who assisted in various ways would occupy too much space, and to make selections would be invidious. A general acknowledgment of indebtedness is therefore all that can safely be made.

THE IMMIGRATION GENERALLY.

Practically the population of the United States has been built up by immigration, as must be the case in every new country, and but for the profusion of the supplies of immigrant labour from Europe the development of the United States would have been a very slow process indeed. Up to a certain point the chief aim of United States legislation has been to encourage immigration. Even now it is felt that in respect to immigrants of a special and select class, there is space and opportunity for them in the States. Of late years, however, there has been growing up an uneasy feeling that the recent tendency of immigration has been to introduce large masses of people whose presence, instead of being an advantage, is more likely to prove a source of danger to the community. The favourite figure of speech used in this

connexion is, that the United States are now receiving elements of population which cannot be assimilated. The earlier immigrants consisted chiefly of honest industrious people going to the States with the intention of bettering their position and of becoming citizens there. They were in sympathy generally with the political, social, and religious institutions of the country, and although not, in a majority of cases, speaking the language of the earlier settlers, which had, become the national tongue, they were mostly prepared to acquire it as soon as possible. There was thus seen in America a mixture of peoples of different nationalities forming a singularly homogeneous and united community, whose patriotism was not for the countries from which they had come but for that which was now their home. Chiefly by such as these and their descendants have the Western States been peopled; and their industry and frugality, their thrift, and other public and private virtues have done much to make the United States the great nation which they now constitute.

Even so late as 1864 a bill was passed for the encouragement of immigration, and provided special machinery for this purpose, which remained in operation for four years. Further legislation in the same spirit was proposed in 1872 without success, but right up to 1882 the national sentiment was strongly in favour of absolutely free immigration. Since that period, however, a gradually increasing sentiment has been developing in favour of the adoption of some methods of regulation or restriction. In order to provide material for a clear appreciation of this gradual change in feeling on so important a subject, it is necessary to show the way in which the population of the United States has been added to year by year by constant accessions of new arrivals.

EXTENT OF IMMIGRATION.

Voluminous statistics have been compiled by the Treasury Department Bureau of Statistics, which provide the fullest information on this point. It is fortunately not necessary for the purposes of this report to go back into the ancient history of the subject, and therefore the fact that official records as to the tide of immigration previous to 1820 do not exist is not a matter of much concern. Nor, up to 1856, was any separate account kept of those who came as immigrants, and those who were merely passengers and temporary sojourners in the States. From 1856 official statistics, while distinguishing between mere passengers and immigrants, took no account of separate nationalities. Since that year the information collected has been much more complete, and it is possible to gain from a few brief summaries a knowledge of the extent to which other nations have contributed to the population of the United States. Also to what

branches of industry such immigrants belong, and in what States of the Union they have chiefly settled in the first instance. Such information is desirable if a clear notion is to be obtained of the conditions at present existing, and therefore the following statistical summaries are here given, fuller details, if necessary, being reserved for an appendix. For general purposes it is sufficient to show totals by decades, and this is done in the following summary compiled from the Report of the Treasury Bureau of Statistics:—

SHOWING ARRIVALS BY DECADES FROM 1820 TO 1890.

Decade ending with	Class.	Aggregate Arrivals.	Annual Average.
1830 - -	Aliens - - - - -	143,439	14,343
1840 - -	Do. - - - - -	599,125	59,912
1850 - -	Do. - - - - -	1,713,251	171,325
1860 - -	Aliens to 1855 inclusive; immigrants 1856 to 1860.	2,593,214	259,321
1870 - -	Immigrants - - - - -	2,314,824	231,482
1880 - -	Do. - - - - -	2,812,191	281,219
1890 - -	Do. - - - - -	5,246,613	524,661

The number of alien passengers arrived in the United States from 1820 to 1855 inclusive was 4,212,624, and the number of immigrants arrived from 1856 to 1890 inclusive was 11,188,556. It has been estimated that prior to 1856 about 98 per cent. of the total alien arrivals were of immigrants. Deducting 2 per cent. for sojourners from the alien passengers arrived in the United States between 1820 and 1855, and, adding the estimated number of immigrants who arrived prior to 1820, we have a total of immigrants arrived in the United States from the close of the revolutionary war to June 30, 1890, of about 15,567,000. These are the figures of the Treasury Bureau of Statistics, but the report of the Superintendent of Immigration for 1892 states this total at 16,662,916, a considerable difference not easily accounted for.

The above statement shows with tolerable clearness the gradual growth of immigration during the first few decades, while the last decade in particular shows an immense increase upon the growth of any corresponding period. The largest figures reached in any single year were those of 1882 when no less than 788,992 immigrants arrived in the United States. There is observable a slight falling off in the period 1860 to 1870, which is probably due to the Civil War, but with that exception the development has been continuous.

IMMIGRATION BY NATIONALITIES AND SEXES.

In order that the different racial elements, of which these totals have been made up, may be clearly seen, it is desirable to quote a statement from the Treasury statistics showing:—

ARRIVALS, by NATIONALITIES and by DECADES, of ALIEN PASSENGERS from October 1, 1820, to December 31, 1867, and of IMMIGRANTS from January 1, 1868, to June 30, 1890.

Countries whence arrived.	1821 to 1830.	1831 to 1840.	1841 to 1850.	1851 to Dec. 31, 1860.	Jan. 1, 1861, to June 30, 1870.	Fiscal years 1871 to 1880.*	Fiscal years 1881 to 1890.	Total.
Austria-Hungary . . .	—	—	—	—	7,800	72,909	353,719	434,488
Belgium	27	22	5,074	4,738	6,734	7,221	20,177	43,903
Denmark	100	1,063	530	3,740	17,094	31,771	88,132	142,517
France	8,497	45,575	77,262	76,358	35,984	72,206	50,464	366,346
Germany	6,761	152,454	434,626	951,667	787,468	718,182	1,452,970	4,504,128
Great Britain and Ireland :								
England*	22,167	73,143	263,332	385,643	568,128	460,470	657,488	2,430,380
Scotland	2,912	2,667	3,712	38,331	38,768	87,564	140,869	323,823
Ireland	50,724	207,381	780,719	914,119	435,778	436,371	655,482	3,481,074
Total Great Britain and Ireland	75,803	283,191	1,047,763	1,338,093	1,042,674	984,914	1,462,839	6,235,277
Italy	408	2,233	1,870	9,231	11,728	55,759	307,309	388,558
Netherlands	1,078	1,412	8,251	10,789	9,102	16,541	53,701	100,874
Norway and Sweden	91	1,201	13,903	20,931	109,298	£11,245	568,362	925,031
Russia and Poland	91	646	656	1,621	4,536	52,254	265,088	324,892
Spain and Portugal	2,622	2,954	2,759	10,353	8,493	9,893	6,535	43,609
Switzerland	3,226	4,821	4,644	25,011	23,286	28,293	81,988	171,269
All other countries in Europe	43	96	155	116	210	656	10,318	11,594
Total Europe	98,816	405,688	1,507,502	2,452,657	2,064,407	2,261,904	4,721,602	13,692,576
China	2	8	35	41,397	64,301	123,201	61,711	290,655
All other countries of Asia	8	40	47	61	308	622	6,669	7,755
Total Asia	10	48	82	41,458	64,609	123,823	68,380	298,410
Africa	16	52	55	210	312	229	437	1,311

* Includes Wales and Great Britain not specified.

Countries whence arrived.	1821 to 1830.	1831 to 1840.	1841 to 1850.	1851 to Dec. 31, 1860.	Jan. 1, 1861, to June 30, 1870.	Fiscal years 1871 to 1880.	Fiscal years 1881 to 1890.	Total.
British North American Provinces -	2,277	13,624	41,723	59,309	153,871	383,269	392,802	1,046,875
Mexico -	4,817	6,599	3,271	3,078	2,191	5,362	1,913	27,231
Central America -	105	44	368	449	96	210	462	1,734
South America -	531	856	3,579	1,224	1,396	928	2,304	10,818
West Indies -	3,834	12,301	13,528	10,660	9,043	13,957	29,042	92,365
Total America -	11,564	33,424	62,469	74,720	166,598	403,726	426,523	1,179,023
Islands of the Atlantic -	352	103	337	3,090	3,446	10,056	15,798	33,182
Islands of the Pacific -	2	9	29	158	221	10,913	12,574	23,906
All other countries and islands -	32,679	69,801	52,777	25,921	15,232	1,540	1,299	199,249
Aggregate -	143,439	599,125	1,713,251	2,598,214	2,314,824	2,812,191	5,246,613	15,427,657

This table includes passengers who died on the voyage to the United States between 1856 and 1865, who could not be distinguished as to nationalities.

The general effect in the case of each nationality is more clearly indicated by the following table from the same authority showing:—

PER-CENTAGES of the ARRIVALS of ALIENS and IMMIGRANTS of each NATIONALITY by DECADES.

Countries whence arrived.	1821 to 1830.	1831 to 1840.	1841 to 1850.	1851 to Dec. 31, 1860.	Jan. 1, 1861, to June 30, 1870.	Fiscal years 1871 to 1880.	Fiscal years 1881 to 1890.	Total.
Austria-Hungary -	—	—	—	—	·34	2·60	6·74	2·80
Belgium -	·02	·01	·30	·18	·29	·26	·38	·28
Denmark -	·12	·18	·03	·14	·74	1·13	1·68	·92
France -	5·92	7·61	4·51	2·94	1·55	2·57	·96	2·38
Germany -	4·72	25·45	25·37	36·63	34·02	25·54	27·70	29·20
Great Britain and Ireland:								
England* -	15·46	12·21	15·36	14·81	24·54	16·38	12·53	15·76
Scotland -	2·03	·45	·22	1·51	1·68	3·11	2·86	2·10
Ireland -	35·36	34·61	45·57	35·18	18·82	15·54	12·40	22·56
Total Great Britain and Ireland -	52·85	47·27	61·15	51·50	45·04	35·03	27·88	40·42

* Includes Wales and Great Britain not specified.

Countries whence arrived.	1821 to 1830.	1831 to 1840.	1841 to 1850.	1851 to Dec. 31, 1860.	Jan. 1, 1861, to June 30, 1870.	Fiscal years 1871 to 1880.	Fiscal years 1881 to 1890.	Total.
Italy - - - -	'28	'37	'11	'35	'51	1'98	5'86	2'52
Netherlands - -	'73	'23	'48	'43	'39	'59	1'02	'05
Norway and Sweden -	'00	'20	'81	'81	4'72	7'51	10'84	6'00
Russia and Poland -	'06	'11	'04	'06	'20	1'86	5'05	2'11
Spain and Portugal -	1'83	'40	'16	'40	'37	'35	'12	'28
Switzerland - - -	2'25	'80	'27	'06	1'00	1'00	1'56	1'11
All other countries in Europe - - - -	'03	'02	'01	'01	'01	'02	'20	'08
Total Europe - -	68'89	82'74	93'24	94'40	89'18	80'44	80'99	88'75
China - - - - -	—	—	—	1'59	2'78	4'38	1'18	1'88
All other countries in Asia	'01	'01	'01	—	'01	'01	'13	'05
Total Asia - - -	'01	'01	'01	1'59	2'79	4'39	1'31	1'93
Africa - - - - -	'01	'01	—	'01	'01	'01	'01	'01
British North American Provinces - - -	1'50	2'28	2'44	2'28	6'64	13'63	7'49	6'79
Mexico - - - - -	3'36	1'10	'19	'12	'09	'20	'04	'18
Central and South America	'44	'15	'23	'06	'06	'04	'05	'08
West Indies - - -	2'67	2'05	'79	'41	'41	'49	'55	'59
Total America - -	8'06	5'58	3'65	2'87	7'20	14'36	8'13	7'64
Islands of the Atlantic -	'25	'01	'02	'12	'15	'36	'30	'22
Islands of the Pacific -	—	—	—	'01	'01	'39	'24	'15
All other countries and islands - - - -	22'78	11'65	3'08	1'00	'06	'05	'02	1'30
Aggregate - - - -	100'00	100'00	100'00	100'00	100'00	100'00	100'00	100'00

Of this enormous influx it is at once seen that by far the greater proportion has been from Europe. This tendency continues to increase for, while in the first decade 68.89 per cent. were Europeans, in the decade ending 1890 Europeans formed 88 per cent. of the whole. Another noticeable point brought out by these tables is, that of all other nations, Great Britain and Ireland taken together have been the largest contributors to the population of the United States. It is true that of late years Germany has supplied a growing number of her people to the States, but it is certain that during the first fifty years of the period under notice, Great Britain and Ireland were providing more than one-half of an immigration the desirability of which was never questioned. If to the proportion of Euro-

pean immigration be added that from British North American provinces, also almost exclusively European in origin, the proportion remaining for non-European nations is so small that it may be almost entirely disregarded for the purposes of this report. Nor are these proportions materially affected by the immigration of the two years 1891-2 which have elapsed since the close of the decadal period. Right up to 1870 it is seen that English-speaking people supply a majority of immigrants. In 1850 the Germans commenced to come in vast numbers; a little later the Scandinavian races assisted to swell the flood, then in gradually increasing force those of Italy, Russia, and Austria-Hungary. Most of the other European nations have either fallen off, or not materially increased their numbers. So far as the English-speaking races were concerned, coming as they did in the largest numbers, there was little difficulty of assimilation. They spoke the language of the country to begin with, and most of their habits and instincts were in harmony with those of the people among whom they came. In these respects the Germans and Scandinavians were but little behind as settlers. It may indeed be said by many that in some particulars they were superior, and the difficulty as to language was of little consequence, owing to the readiness with which the speech of the country was acquired. Only in a few cases has there been shown any strong desire on the part of the Germans to persist in maintaining their own language to the exclusion of any other, and it is possible that in a few western towns little English may be heard. The great thing is that these races mixed among each other and readily became as American almost as those born in the country. Of those coming from eastern and southern Europe the same cannot be said. The Hungarians, the Russians, and even the Italians, have maintained habits and modes of life so different from those of the other races that assimilation, at all events in the first generation, has proved impossible, and there are stated to be now growing up in the United States settlements of aliens, neither able nor desiring, to speak the language of the country, unwilling to conform to its laws, and utterly at variance in many ways with the genius and character of the American people. There are undoubtedly undesirable elements among the immigrants of all the nationalities, but there can be little doubt that but for those just referred to, little would be heard of any immigration difficulty in the United States.

PROPORTION OF FOREIGN BORN IN POPULATION.

The distribution of population by sex and general nativity in the United States as a whole is thus shown in the census returns for 1890:—

Aggregate population	-	-	-	62,622,250
Males	-	-	-	32,367,880
Females	-	-	-	30,554,370
Native born	-	-	-	53,372,703
Foreign born	-	-	-	9,249,547

The comparative increase of the total population and of the foreign-born element over a period of 40 years is seen from the following statement published in the Census returns:—

Years.	Total Population.	Persons of Foreign Birth.	Per cent. of Foreign Born of Total Population.
1850 - - - - -	23,191,376	2,244,602	9·68
1890 - - - - -	31,443,321	4,138,697	13·16
1870 - - - - -	38,558,371	5,567,229	14·44
1880 - - - - -	50,155,783	6,679,943	13·32
1890 - - - - -	62,622,250	9,249,547	14·77

A census bulletin issued in January of the present year supplies a table showing—

INCREASE of FOREIGN-BORN POPULATION in the UNITED STATES by PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES of BIRTH, 1850-1890.

Country of Birth.	Increase from 1850 to 1890.		Increase from 1870 to 1890.		Increase from 1860 to 1870.		Increase from 1850 to 1860.	
	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.	No.	Per cent.
Total - - - - -	2,560,604	38·47	1,112,714	19·99	1,423,532	34·52	1,804,095	84·38
Canada and Newfoundland	263,781	36·78	223,693	45·33	243,494	97·41	102,259	69·23
Mexico - - - - -	9,454	13·82	25,964	61·19	14,969	54·60	14,149	106·25
South America - - -	440	9·64	1,001	28·08	302	9·26	1,720	111·47
Cuba and West Indies	6,855	41·80	4,531	41·75	4,217	57·35	1,581	27·39
Ireland - - - - -	16,938	0·91	*1,256	*0·07	244,523	15·18	640,585	67·54
England - - - - -	244,932	36·88	109,114	19·66	121,552	28·04	154,819	55·56
Scotland - - - - -	72,095	42·37	29,301	20·81	32,317	29·78	37,963	53·82
Wales - - - - -	16,777	20·14	8,760	11·77	28,770	62·67	15,895	53·22
Germany - - - - -	818,152	41·60	276,209	16·34	414,458	32·48	692,301	118·69
Austria - - - - -	84,608	218·83	8,155	26·73	5,447	21·73	24,115	2,549·15
Holland - - - - -	23,738	40·86	11,238	24·12	18,521	65·49	18,433	187·18
Belgium - - - - -	7,104	45·73	2,982	23·76	3,481	38·37	7,759	590·94
Switzerland - - - -	15,448	17·43	13,468	17·92	21,826	40·93	39,969	299·21
Norway - - - - -	140,936	77·55	67,483	59·07	70,251	159·68	31,317	247·02
Sweden - - - - -	283,704	145·99	97,005	99·66	78,707	422·59	15,066	423·32
Denmark - - - - -	68,847	106·47	34,089	113·23	20,145	202·22	8,124	442·00
Russia - - - - -	146,922	411·29	31,078	669·21	1,484	46·96	1,746	123·48
Hungary - - - - -	50,909	441·69	7,789	208·43	3,737	—	—	—
Bohemia - - - - -	32,745	38·36	45,072	111·87	40,289	—	—	—
Poland - - - - -	98,883	203·64	34,121	226·36	7,138	97·81	7,298	—
France - - - - -	6,203	5·80	*9,431	*8·10	6,532	5·95	55,801	103·20
Italy - - - - -	138,350	312·80	27,073	157·80	6,639	63·12	6,873	188·56
Spain - - - - -	1,064	20·78	1,357	36·05	*480	*11·31	1,131	36·33
Portugal - - - - -	7,858	96·56	3,596	79·17	426	10·35	2,842	223·08
China - - - - -	2,220	2·13	41,426	65·71	27,477	77·26	34,807	4,591·95
Other foreign countries	11,141	25·76	18,537	75·03	12,310	99·30	*31,463	*71·74

* Decrease.

During the decade from 1880 to 1890 the largest per-centages of increase are for persons born in Hungary, or 441·69 per cent. ; in Russia, 411·29 per cent. ; in Italy, 312·80 per cent. ; in Austria, 218·83 per cent., and in Poland, 203·64 per cent. In 1880, persons born in the countries just mentioned did not number 50,000 in any case, while in 1890 they have increased, with the exception of Hungary, to considerably more than 100,000 in each instance ; in the case of Russia and Italy to very nearly 200,000 and in the case of Poland to very nearly 150,000. In 1880, persons born in Hungary numbered 11,526, and they have increased to 62,435 in 1890.

For the same decade there has also been an increase of over 100 per cent. for persons born in Denmark and in Sweden ; for persons born in Norway and in Portugal there has been an increase of more than 75 per cent. ; for persons born in Canada and Newfoundland, 36·78 per cent. ; for those born in England, 36·88 per cent. ; for those born in Scotland, 42·37 per cent. ; for those born in Germany, 41·60 per cent., while for those born in Ireland there has been an increase of but 0·91 per cent.

PROPORTION OF MALES AND FEMALES.

Further statistics show that, so far as the nations of western and northern Europe are concerned, the immigration is largely by families. There is thus almost an equality in the per-centage of males and females among those they send. In 1892, 51 per cent. of the entire Irish immigration was male and 49 female, but, in the cases of Italy and Hungary the per-centages of females were only 20·6 and 26·2 respectively. It is assumed that when immigration is by families those who come mean to stay, and become citizens of the Republic, whereas in the case of men coming alone, they may only come for a time. In the case of immigrants from Russia, owing to the special circumstances of the great immigration, of recent years the figures are more favourable than in the two latter cases, being 34·2. It is, however, fairer to take figures which cover a series of years, and exact proportions for 22 years are shown in the following statement showing:—

Year	Male	Female	Total
1870	11,526	11,526	23,052
1880	11,526	11,526	23,052
1890	62,435	62,435	124,870
1871	11,526	11,526	23,052
1872	11,526	11,526	23,052
1873	11,526	11,526	23,052
1874	11,526	11,526	23,052
1875	11,526	11,526	23,052
1876	11,526	11,526	23,052
1877	11,526	11,526	23,052
1878	11,526	11,526	23,052
1879	11,526	11,526	23,052
1881	11,526	11,526	23,052
1882	11,526	11,526	23,052
1883	11,526	11,526	23,052
1884	11,526	11,526	23,052
1885	11,526	11,526	23,052
1886	11,526	11,526	23,052
1887	11,526	11,526	23,052
1888	11,526	11,526	23,052
1889	11,526	11,526	23,052
1891	62,435	62,435	124,870
1892	62,435	62,435	124,870

NUMBERS and NATIONALITIES of IMMIGRANTS arrived in the United States during the 22 years ending June 30, 1890, distinguishing between Males and Females.

Countries.	Males.		Females.		Total.
	Number.	Per cent. of Total.	Number.	Per cent. of Total.	
Europe :					
Austria-Hungary - - -	280,534	64·8	152,068	35·2	432,602
Denmark, Norway, and Sweden -	605,297	61·8	370,596	38·2	974,193
Franco - - - - -	84,069	63·9	47,499	36·1	131,558
Germany - - - - -	1,407,895	58·2	1,012,524	41·8	2,420,419
Great Britain and Ireland :					
England - - - - -	786,922	61·2	498,888	38·8	1,285,810
Scotland - - - - -	158,319	61·4	99,386	38·6	257,705
Ireland - - - - -	612,653	51·5	577,482	48·5	1,190,135
Italy - - - - -	288,910	78·6	78,538	21·4	367,448
Netherlands and Belgium - - -	63,443	61·7	39,321	38·3	102,764
Russia and Poland - - - - -	207,420	65·0	111,580	35·0	319,000
Spain and Portugal - - - - -	13,434	72·6	5,121	27·4	18,555
Switzerland - - - - -	75,238	64·3	41,768	35·7	117,006
Other Europe - - - - -	7,481	75·0	2,547	25·0	10,028
Total Europe - - - - -	4,589,625	60·2	3,037,008	39·8	7,627,233
North and South America - - -	540,180	60·3	356,488	39·7	896,668
Asia - - - - -	213,880	96·8	7,007	3·2	220,977
Africa - - - - -	558	72·5	211	27·5	769
Islands of the Atlantic - - - - -	17,600	65·9	9,129	34·1	26,729
Islands of the Pacific - - - - -	17,929	76·3	5,595	23·7	23,524
All other islands and ports - - -	1,764	61·0	1,111	39·0	2,875
Total - - - - -	5,381,536	61·2	3,417,238	38·8	8,798,775

IMMIGRATION BY OCCUPATIONS.

The occupations of the immigrants entering the United States is also a point of much importance, as in the advanced stage of progress now reached there, and with a labour market already somewhat crowded in some departments, the influx of kinds of labour not really required by the circumstances of the country may cause considerable inconvenience in many cases. An American estimate places the value to the country of an immigrant 21 years of age, possessing a common school education, and a skilled trade, at 1,500 dollars. His economic value to the State

is said to be regulated by his social value. If he builds into the social fabric readily, and becomes Americanised, economic and thrifty, the estimate is a moderate one. Otherwise he sinks in the scale of value, until his presence is rather a tax upon, than an advantage to, the community. A rough idea of the character of the immigration looked at from this point of view may be obtained from the following statement showing

CLASSES of OCCUPATIONS arriving in this country, 1881 to 1890, inclusive.

Classes of Occupations.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Professional	25,257	1,749	27,006
Skilled	514,552	25,859	540,411
Miscellaneous	1,833,335	245,810	2,079,135
Not stated	73,327	42,880	116,157
Without occupation	759,450	1,724,454	2,483,904
Total	3,205,911	2,040,702	5,246,613

In this table "miscellaneous occupations" form 39.63 per cent. of the total and include labourers, farmers' servants and "merchants," who are mostly pedlars.

During 1892, of the 579,663 immigrants arriving 62,371 were skilled artizans, 2,508 were blacksmiths; 2,506 were bakers; 2,723 were butchers; 99 were architects; 5,201 were carpenters; 2,653 were cigar makers; 9,274 were tailors; 4,766 were shoemakers; 2,079 were painters; 751 were musicians, and 3,709 were masons. It thus appears that not more than 9 per cent. of the whole number of immigrants belong to the ranks of skilled labour. This branch of the subject is so important in its bearing, that fuller statistical tables dealing with immigration by occupations are provided in an appendix to this report. The classification in the tables which covers a period from 1875 to 1890 into trades is very broad and general, but what appears from a cursory survey of them is that America has drawn for her supply of clergymen chiefly upon Great Britain and Ireland, while for her musicians the countries chiefly laid under contribution have been Germany and Italy. Great Britain and Ireland have been chiefly instrumental in providing physicians and surgeons for the United States. Teachers have been drawn from Germany, in largest proportion, with Great Britain and Ireland next. Descending from the professions to the skilled trades, it is found that Germany has furnished bakers almost in the proportion of two to one over Great Britain, next on the list. In the other great food trade, butchering, Germany is far ahead of any other nationality. Notwithstanding a fairly regular supply of from

400 to 500 British blacksmiths every year, Germany during the years 1881 to 1885 sent in numbers so large, as to claim also a majority in this branch of trade, though British North America is also strongly represented. Great Britain easily heads the list with engineers and machinists, with Germany second. For premier position as to carpenters and joiners, Great Britain and Ireland run a close race with Germany, who in this line of industry sent great supplies of immigrants in the years 1880 to 1884. Stonemasons have been supplied chiefly by Great Britain and Ireland, with Germany next, and Italy in later years improving her contributions of these mechanics. In the department of "mechanics not specified," Great Britain is far ahead. Clerks also are chiefly British. In the clothing trades, shoemakers have been chiefly of German origin. The same holds good in respect of tailors, Great Britain and Ireland also standing well, with Russia and Poland increasing their numbers largely during recent years. Dressmakers are mostly British and British American, with Germany next, and France and Switzerland standing proportionately much better than in other divisions. The miners of Great Britain and Ireland count more heavily in the total of this branch of trade than any other nationality, with Austria, Hungary, and Italy increasing their supplies during the last seven years of the period under review. Germany, Great Britain, and Ireland, have been the principal sources of supply for gardeners, but Germany is far ahead of any other nationalities as respects farmers. Great Britain and Ireland come next in importance in this great branch of industry, British North America standing well. Scandinavian countries also supply many farmers, while Italy, and Russia and Poland have considerably increased their number during the latter part of the period. Mariners have been contributed chiefly by Great Britain and Ireland, British North America, and Norway and Sweden. The tobacco industry has been reinforced mainly from Germany and Cuba. Great Britain has sent most weavers, Germany being second on the list. "Merchant dealers" have come in largest numbers from Germany and Great Britain; while, since 1880 Russia and Poland has been steadily augmenting its supply of peddlars to this category. For servants, Ireland distances any other country, England and Germany being next. The vast army of general labourers necessary to such a country as the United States has been mainly contributed from Germany, Ireland, and England, and for the last seven years of the time Russia, Italy, and Austria-Hungary, have also been sending vast numbers to swell the great army of the unskilled. Unfortunately the portion of the census returns of 1890 dealing with the distribution of population by occupations and nationalities has not yet been published, and it is difficult to find sources of information relative to the proportions of native and foreign labour in different industries later than the census of 1880. At that time nearly one-third of the persons engaged in manufacturing,

mechanical and mining industries, were of foreign birth. In the textile trades the proportion was nearer to one half than to one-third, and to-day there is no reason to think the proportion has at all decreased. A few of the largest centres of the cotton trade are, in fact, almost like British settlements, such towns as Fall River and New Bedford, strangely resembling Lancashire communities, the only mixture being of Irish and French Canadians. Foreign iron and steel workers formed, in 1880, 36 per cent. of the trade, while among engineers and firemen 27 per cent were of foreign birth. In the leather trades 45 per cent. were foreign. Not less than 56 per cent. of the bakers were foreign, and 44 per cent. of the cigar makers. In the building trades 35 per cent. of the masons, 27 per cent. of the plasterers, and 23 per cent. of the carpenters and joiners were foreign born. In the western states especially, the proportions were much larger. That these drafts of skilled artisans were of immense service in developing the resources of the United States is beyond dispute. It is equally certain that their employment would also necessitate the employment of proportionately large numbers of men in other industries and of unskilled labour in hundreds of ways. It has already been shown, however, that while a very slight proportion of the immigration into the United States has consisted of skilled labour, at least three-fourths of it has been unskilled, which, of late years, settling down in the large towns where it has at first landed, has proved a source of embarrassment rather than an advantage to the community.

THE SUPPLY OF LABOUR.

It cannot yet be said that the United States has received as full a supply of labour as is necessary for all her wants. The complete development of so immense a territory is yet far off, and out in the far West there is doubtless room for large numbers of men, while even in the Southern States there is a gradually expanding field for industry. However this may be, things have reached a point at which consideration is required, and thinkers and politicians are arriving at the conclusion, that a rest should be taken from the process of indiscriminate swallowing up of all comers, to allow time for the needful work of assimilation which is not now going on with such celerity as before. A dozen years ago the United States had a labour market wide enough for all who came with arms to work, but now an unemployed question is growing up there, as in older countries, and with its growth men are beginning to ask on every hand, if nothing can be done to so regulate the supply of foreign labour that it may be sent directly to the place at which it is wanted, or, whether failing that, the influx of foreign labour should not in some way be limited, suspended, or otherwise restricted. It is unnecessary to argue here what the value of the immigrant may be to a community. The amount of capital he

may bring with him, the potentiality of work for the benefit of the nation which may be locked up in his chest of tools, or in his thews and sinews, or in the capabilities of his children, are doubtless all elements which the economist might claim to have taken into account in such a discussion. These elements of value might be supplemented by his power as a consumer as well as a producer, but all such considerations are wide of the mark if, in the community to which he goes, there is no room for him except by the displacement of someone else. In the United States this process of displacing the older settler by a newer immigrant, willing to dispose of his services at a lower price, has hitherto been carried on with tolerable ease, as the man supplanted has simply had to move on to another field, and often to a higher plane of labour and remuneration. But big as America is this is a process which cannot be perpetually going on, and which becomes more and more difficult as population increases. The overflow pipe out westward does not now work so freely, and in the great industrial centres of the eastern states there are at times armies of unemployed as numerous as in the nations of the Old World.

Thus, reporting on Industrial depressions in 1886, Mr. Carroll D. Wright, United States Commissioner of Labour, said, that upon the investigations of his agents and other sources of information he had based an estimate that during the year ending July 1, 1885, $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the workers of the United States were unemployed. This per-centage he, however, considered too large if applied to all the industries of the country, and he limited it to those engaged in agriculture, trade and transportation, mechanical and mining industries and manufactures. "There were," he says, "engaged in those four great branches, as shown by the Census of 1880, 13,317,861 persons. Applying the per-centage arrived at ($7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.), we obtain a total of 998,839 as constituting the best estimate of the possibly unemployed in the United States during the year ending July 1, 1885 (meaning by the unemployed those, who, under prosperous times, would be fully employed, and who during the time mentioned were seeking employment), that it has been possible for the Bureau to make." It is probably true that this total (in round numbers 1,000,000), as representing the unemployed at any one time in the United States, is fairly representative, even if the labourers thrown out of work by the cessation of railroad building be included. "This estimate exhibits the extreme possibility of non-employment at the worst point of the depression, but it should be remembered that even in so-called prosperous times there are from two to two and a half per cent. of the forces considered out of employment. Prosperity often shifts employment from one class to another."

During the same year a much more systematic inquiry by the same gentleman was conducted in the State of Massachusetts, a

district in which general industries are largely carried on. It was found that during the year ending May 1st, 1885, there had been a total of 241,589 unemployed persons. The proportions of employed and non-employed were respectively 70.41 and 29.59. Of the unemployed 19,578, or 8.10 per cent., were unemployed for one month only; 47,775, or 19.78 per cent., were unemployed two months; 41,877, or 17.33 per cent., three months; 47,424, or 19.63 per cent., four months; 16,247, or 6.73 per cent., five months; 42,813, or 17.72 per cent., six months; while 25,875, or 10.71 per cent., were unemployed for more than six months during the year. The average of unemployment for the 241,589 persons out of work was 4.11 months, which may be considered as the equivalent to 82,744 persons unemployed for an entire year. These facts, it may be said, refer to a period of intense trade depression, but it is to be noted that the Chief Commissioner of Labour asserts that even in prosperous times there is a margin of from 2 to 2½ per cent. of workers unemployed. No statistics of this kind have recently been collected in the United States, and the trade unions not dealing in the same way with their unemployed members as the older British unions, are unable to furnish much information as to actual numbers. At the present time there can be little doubt that the labour market generally in the United States is not in a very healthy condition, and though matters may not be so bad as in 1885, there are many thousands out of work. The weekly journal of the Knights of Labour, of February 2nd last, says that in the town of St. Louis there were 10,000 men out of work and over 2,000 families had applied for charitable relief. During April a meeting of 1,500 unemployed men was held in San Francisco to demand work from the city authorities, and one speaker declared that 25 per cent. of the skilled labour of the city was unemployed. The general secretary of the Cigar Makers' Union states that his society has during the last four years paid unemployed benefit and that during that time, although trade has been fairly good, 2½ per cent. of the members have been unemployed.

STATE OF OPINION ON THE SUBJECT.

It is thus clear that there is an unemployed question in the United States quite as serious in times of depression if not, indeed, more so than with us. Necessarily, therefore, in many trades, the pressure of a keen competition has been felt, and among working men a strong body of opinion on the subject of immigration has been gradually growing up. As yet it cannot be said that this has become a burning labour question. Those who have taken up the more advanced position in respect to it have been rather political economists like General Walker and Mr. Richmond Mayo Smith, while a few politicians such as Senator Chandler and Mr. Ford have tried to bring about restrictive legislation. Among the working classes themselves, however,

no one has formulated a programme for a genuine anti-immigration movement and the utterances of labour leaders have up till now been vague and indefinite. There are a few who are prepared to advocate restriction; regulation by educational or other tests: while a few would even go so far as to entirely suspend immigration for a more or less limited period. Nothing, however, will give a better idea of the general feeling of the labour organisations of the United States on the subject than the resolutions passed from time to time at the official gatherings of such bodies.

At the meeting of the sixteenth regular session of the general assembly of the Knights of Labour held at St. Louis in November last claiming to represent from 250,000 to 300,000 members a resolution from the Committee on Legislation was adopted, which was as follows:—

“That immigration be restricted by the passage of laws compelling all immigrants coming to this country for the purpose of employment to show the necessary means for one year’s support before being permitted to enter.”

The views of other labour unions, and labour leaders, may be quoted more fully hereafter; but, in the meantime, it is of immediate interest to inquire more closely as to some of the causes which have induced so large a body of workers, the bulk of whom are probably immigrants themselves, or the sons of immigrants, to pass a resolution so restrictive. It must not for a moment be supposed that there is on the part of American workers generally any wild, unreasoning desire to stop others entering the country, solely because the effect upon wages may be disastrous. They even recognise that, while thousands of men may be unemployed in the United States, it is not always easy, upon humanitarian grounds, to deny the right of other men to choose their own place of abode wherever may seem good to them. And, as will appear later on, many of those who have themselves come as immigrants to the country say, “How can we refuse to others the exercise of a right which we have ourselves enjoyed?” Under these circumstances it becomes necessary to ask why the Knights of Labour have taken up a position so pronounced. This society is a union of workers belonging to an immense variety of trades. Thus all branches of industry suffering from general or special grievances, find in the chief authority of the organisation their principal means of expression and redress.

DISTINCTIVE RACIAL CHARACTERISTICS.

As has already been stated, it is only within comparatively recent years that much cause of complaint has arisen among workmen as to excessive immigration. Even now the complaint is only general among a limited number of industries, and in respect only to certain elements of the immigration. Therefore, with the statistical information already provided, and any other

which may be adduced as the inquiry proceeds, it may be possible to arrive at some definite opinion on the subject. There are two modes of procedure which may be here adopted. The inquiry may be pursued by trades, or it may be followed out by nationalities. Having regard to the special object of this report, the latter method will, perhaps, be the most convenient.

BRITISH AND IRISH IMMIGRATION.

The nationalities of all others which have done most to people the United States are Great Britain and Ireland jointly. It has already been seen that up to the decade ending 1870, more than one-half of the average immigration was of British and Irish people. Much of this immigration was doubtless unskilled, but it was the kind of labour which a new country required, and it at once fell into line with the already settled labour of the country, if, indeed, it did not advance the standard of skill already existing there. Its great advantage was that the immigrants spoke the language of the country, and assimilated themselves readily to the laws and customs of the nation, to which they were really akin. Nor even up till to-day has there been any serious objection raised to the British and Irish immigration in so far as it has been voluntary and unassisted. Murmurs are occasionally heard about the large proportion of unskilled labour coming from Ireland, but it generally finds employment in places, and in methods, in which it does not seriously compete with native labour. From Ireland, also, goes an equal stream of female labour which finds ready employment in domestic service. Among the skilled trades there is little complaint whatever, about British and Irish labour so long as it comes to the States to settle, and become naturalised. The chief objection to it is when it comes under contract, or when it consists of those who only come for a season, and again return home like "birds of passage," going west in the spring and back to Europe in the fall. This is a kind of seasonal immigration about which American workmen make bitter complaint. Before the Select Committee of the House of Representatives which sat in 1888, Mr. E. Stephenson, for many years Commissioner of Emigration for the State of New York, testified that from his own observation he knew of large numbers of workmen who came across in the spring, worked in the United States during the summer months, and returned to Europe in the autumn. These were skilled workmen, mostly belonging to various branches of the building trade, or coming as glass blowers, silk weavers, locomotive engineers, &c. In his opinion, this went on to a large extent. The same witness also complained that pauper immigrants were assisted to the States by the British Government, or by Boards of Guardians.

The American Union of Stonecutters gave evidence as to the importation of British labour into their trade. Such labour was often brought under contract, and much of it was of the character which did not settle permanently in the country, but

passed to and fro. It was also alleged, that in this trade arrangements were made to have a surplus of labour with a view to keep down wages. Cases were also quoted in which men, having been brought over under contract, were afterwards discharged, and told that as labour contracts with persons abroad were illegal, they could not be enforced. There were also references to cases in which, on the other hand, operatives had broken their contracts on the same ground. It is not, however, alleged against these British immigrants that, beyond generally affecting the labour market, by causing a surplus of supply, they depreciate the value of labour by working for less than the standard rates of wages. It is mostly admitted that the British and Irish artisans who come to America, make the best and strongest trade unionists, and, in many instances, do more to maintain trade privileges than native Americans. In some of the skilled trades it is even claimed by British artisans who have settled in the States, that in wages they take the lead. Skilled mechanical engineers, indeed, assert that, in most cases, the British and German workmen are at the top of the wages scale, and the native American at the bottom. This, at first sight, would seem an exaggerated opinion as to the character of British labour in American skilled trades, and could hardly be quoted here, but for the fact that it is borne out by the recent United States Report on the Cost of Production. Dr. E. R. L. Gould, who was largely concerned in the carrying out of the work of the Report, writing specially on this subject, says:—

“ The figures for the United States do not refer to Americans alone, since, as every one knows, a large proportion of the labourers are immigrants from the Old World. It is quite fair, I think, to call the standard of life practised in the United States the American, since the native-born workman created it, and fixed the price of his labour at a point where he could live up to it. But we must not for a moment suppose that he alone now-a-days maintains it. In this he is equalled, and sometimes surpassed, by the best class of immigrants who find work in mining and metallurgy, viz., the British and Germans. Other nationalities have not as yet come up to the mark.” He gives what he asserts to be proof of this in the following table:—

GENERAL TABLE OF FAMILY BUDGETS FOR THE COAL, IRON, AND STEEL INDUSTRIES, CLASSIFIED BY NATIONALITIES.

Nationalities.	Families.		Dwellings.		Family Income of Family.		Annual Family Expenditure.												Surplus.																		
	Total Number.	Average Number of Persons in Family.	Owing their Homes.		Giving information concerning size of Dwelling.		Families entirely maintained by Husband.		Yearly Income of Family.			Rent.		Food.		Clothing.		Books and Newspapers.		Alcoholic Drinks.		Tobacco.		Total Expenditure.	Amount.	Proportion.											
			Average Number of Rooms per Family.	Average Number of Family.	Number.	Proportion.	Total Earnings of Family.	Earnings of Husband.	Proportion of Earnings of Husband to Total Earnings.	Amount.	Proportion.	Amount.	Proportion.	Amount.	Proportion.	Amount.	Proportion.	Amount.	Proportion.	Amount.	Proportion.	Amount.	Proportion.														
Americans	1,291	4.8	236	959	3.9	834	63.7	353	68	520	43	89.2	\$ c.	71	43	13.7	220	57	42.2	108	27	20.3	78	8	50.7	14	96	2.9	83.8	12	12	2.3	522	29	61	39	10.5
British in Gt. Britain.	525	5.1	11	435	4.0	270	51.4	522	08	423	79	81.2	\$ c.	47	61	9.9	246	43	51.33	80	20	16.7	92.0	5	63.2	24	43	5.09	65.3	12	30	2.6	480	07	42	01	8.1
British in United States.	796	5.4	178	569	4.6	546	68.6	62	01	556	74	80.4	\$ c.	79	37	12.7	283	30	45.15	131	92	21.0	32.3	6	53.3	22	80	3.6	84.0	10	35	1.7	627	53	64	08	9.3
French in France	22	5.0	—	3	4.0	6	27.3	432	18	307	75	71.2	\$ c.	29	65	7.8	199	06	52.4	71	03	18.7	31.8	1	100.	49	77	13.06	90.9	4	82	1.3	380	16	52	02	12.0
French in United States.	24	4.8	5	19	3.7	16	66.6	563	82	463	77	82.3	\$ c.	63	89	12.9	232	02	46.7	94	73	19.1	70.8	4	66.7	29	82	6.0	91.9	8	23	1.7	496	93	66	89	11.7
Germans in Ger- many.	66	6.3	13	52	2.8	27	40.9	345	03	233	51	73.5	\$ c.	29	00	8.0	171	64	49.9	62	32	18.1	31.8	2	98.9	11	30	3.3	89.3	4	15	1.2	314	11	92	0.3	0.3
Germans in United States.	276	5.0	106	158	4.0	202	73.2	635	30	569	57	89.7	\$ c.	83	31	15.4	246	02	45.5	114	32	21.1	35.5	5	60.1	23	24	4.3	84.8	9	24	1.7	542	52	92	78	14.6
Belgians in Bel- gium.	118	5.7	7	82	3.6	44	37.3	359	26	241	06	62.0	\$ c.	32	46	8.8	175	05	47.6	85	13	29.1	30.4	2	70.3	24	49	6.1	83.9	5	75	1.6	369	23	19	98	5.1
Other nationalities in United States.	83	5.2	15	60	3.6	41	40.4	513	79	451	71	87.9	\$ c.	65	18	14.8	204	03	46.5	83	48	19.0	55.4	4	74.7	33	76	7.7	89.2	6	37	1.5	430	31	74	48	14.5
Average in Europe	770	5.3	31	608	3.7	374	48.0	470	96	308	30	78.2	\$ c.	41	76	9.5	222	32	50.8	80	35	18.4	78.1	4	69.7	23	17	5.3	72.5	9	47	2.2	437	83	33	12	7.0
Average in United States.	2,490	5.0	540	1,782	4.1	1,281	62.3	622	14	534	53	86.0	\$ c.	74	58	13.7	243	65	43.8	113	97	29.5	71.7	6	53.4	19	60	3.2	84.3	10	98	1.9	555	81	66	33	10.6

* The English, Scotch, Welsh, and Irish are here included. NOTE.—“Other Expenses,” though not set forth in a special column, are included in the total.

“There are facts,” he goes on, “herein presented which furnish a severe blow to Chauvinism. The average workman in the allied industries of American birth earns less than the Briton or the German, though he is ahead of other nationalities. In the relative size of his contribution to the family support he only gives place to the German, whose habits have in this respect undergone a marked change since his transplanting in the New World. The proportion of cases in which the husband actually supported the family are fewer, the total earnings of the family are less, the house accommodation is slightly inferior, a smaller *per capita* expenditure appears for food and clothing for the native American than for the Americanised Briton and German. In other words in all important respects, except the consumption of alcoholic drinks, these latter seem to be living on a higher level. As regards the other nationalities, the American conserves his leadership, though the expatriated Frenchman is not far behind.”

This is striking independent testimony to the value of British immigration, generally, into the United States, and might be confirmed at great length if space permitted, by the evidence of the officials of many American trade unions. The special fitness of British labour for the United States lies first in the kinship of the people, and next, in its diffusion over every trade in the whole field of industry. There is no particular trade which it can be said to have made wholly its own, but in nearly every case, it is found forming a solid portion of each. If British immigrant labour in the United States may be said to have any special localisation, it is to be found in the mining, iron, and textile trades. In the mining trade, despite the enormous influx of Italian and Hungarian labour in recent years, there are still to be found localities in which the vast majority of the workers are of British origin. In the textile trades especially, there is in some districts a strong British element, modified only to a slight degree, by an admixture of French Canadians, who are in some sense of British origin, coming as they do from a British Colony. Thus, in Massachusetts and other of the New England States, the British and Irish are very strongly represented. Fall River, so far as its cotton spinners are concerned, is almost an English town, in which the operatives are chiefly Lancashire and Irish people, with a number of French Canadians. The same is true of New Bedford, and other places, although perhaps to a lesser extent of other centres of the trade. In most of the cases cited before the Commission on the importation of contract labour, it was found that it was chiefly from England that positions requiring special industrial skill and aptitude were filled. It is, indeed, this very fact that has made some of the American trade unions object to British labour, although, in most of the instances examined by the Commission, it was found that the wage rates contracted for, were as high, or higher than those prevailing in the country.

The chief grounds of objection, therefore, which have been made to British and Irish immigration are:—First, that it is sometimes criminal, unskilled, illiterate, pauper in character, and assisted to come, or wholly sent at the expense of the public authorities or charitable agencies, whose desire is to remove undesirable portions of the home population. Second, that many British immigrants do not come to stay as citizens in the country, but merely pass to and fro as their convenience may suit, thus unsettling the labour market and taking American money away to be spent in other markets, than those in which it was earned. Third, that it often comes in under contract which is undesirable, as no immigration can be really healthy which does not come voluntarily, unsolicited, and of its own free initiative.

The most serious objection is, of course, the first, and it is undoubtedly the fact that in the statistics of illiteracy, prisoners, and paupers in the United States, Ireland does not occupy a very high position, as will be seen from tables of statistics quoted further on.

As to the second objection it is also to some extent true, but it is not easy to see in what way it works much mischief to American labour. The trades said to be chiefly affected by workmen crossing backward and forward between the two continents are but few in number. They are out-door or seasonal trades, in which full work can only be carried on during spring, summer, and early autumn. The "birds of passage" cross over in the spring, work until the weather begins to break up, and, having saved enough money to live on through the winter at home, where the cost of living is lower, return again. The objection to this class of British immigration, is that on first arrival men are anxious to get into employment at once, and are therefore ready to take any rate of wages which may be offered, the alleged tendency being to reduce wages all round.

Some of the trade unions are so impressed with the bad effect of this element in the labour market, that they endeavour to penalise it by making the entrance fees into the unions so heavy for this wandering class of mechanic that he may be induced to stay in America when he is there. It appears, however, that in most cases, this policy defeats its object, and the travellers manage to work on at their trades while remaining altogether outside the unions as non-society men. On the other hand, there are a few trade unions in the United States, and the number tends to increase, which are international in character. Arrangements exist by which cards of membership are interchangeable between European and American trade societies, and in these cases there is a strong feeling against any interference with this right to what may be termed a universal labour market. It may also be said that this kind of British labour, so much objected to, comes to the United States when trade is good and labour in demand, and therefore does not to any great extent injuriously affect the labour market. Then,

having reaped the harvest, it goes away just at a time when the American labour market does not require it. This would seem rather to reduce competition in the labour market at its worst period by reducing the quantity of surplus labour available, and might, in some cases, be considered an advantage rather than an evil. The American unions, however, consider that the system tends as a whole to weaken the power of their organisations, and consequently to reduce wages. In Philadelphia, especially, a strong feeling exists on this point, and personal inquiry at a meeting of the Amalgamated Building Trades Council of that city brought out a few of the facts forming the chief ground of complaint. Most carpenters and joiners who go over in that way are from England, and are union men to begin with. About them there is no trouble. Nor is there difficulty in other cases where men have already been members of organised trades, for men who have belonged to the English unions at once make sure about getting the standard rates of wages. Some employers refuse to employ men after they have been two years in the country, and the general tendency is for employers to take advantage of newly-arrived labour. Painting and plastering are trades much affected by "birds of passage" who come for six months every year. The English painters are generally unionists who stand out for the best money, but the others go into non-society shops and work for less than the standard rates. Cases are quoted of shops in which as many as 50 painters are employed who are regular "birds of passage." As to plumbers, they are well organised, and though English plumbers may, on first arrival, work for 8 or 9 dollars a week, which is only half wages; they will, as soon as they get into the American style of work, obtain their full 3 dollars for a day of nine hours. Philadelphia is said by trade unionists to be the worst city in the States for cheap labour. Workmen from Great Britain or Ireland are spoken of as "aliens," and the fact that they are descended from a common stock, does not, in the opinion of the American workman, give them any special advantage over immigrants of other nationalities, unless they are prepared to settle down in the country for good and share the common lot.

The third objection to some kinds of British immigration is that in some cases it comes under contract. This may be true, but only to a limited extent. The intention of the law against the importation of labour under contract was, undoubtedly to prevent the engagement abroad of men intended by employers in America, to replace their workpeople on strike, or to establish a surplus of labour in the market which would enable them to beat down wages, or otherwise deteriorate the conditions of labour. The actual incident which is said to have started the agitation for a law against contract labour, is said to have been an importation of Chinese labour into Beaver Falls in Pennsylvania in 1873, to take the place of men engaged in the cutlery works there. The men employed were getting wages of from \$3.50 to

\$5 per day, but they are said to have been replaced by Chinese at \$18 a month, and an hour was added to the day's work. The manifest intention of the law was, therefore, to stop the importation of large bodies of men for the special and distinct purpose of reducing the price of labour. That it has been successful in this respect there can be no doubt, and little is now heard of anything like wholesale introductions of alien labour for such purposes. The chief classes of violation of this law now complained of, are those in which only a single man, or a small number of men come into the country under a contract to fill some special position in which particular knowledge or skill are required. Of these but a small number were brought to the knowledge of the Ford Committee in 1888, and even those were of such a character as to make it doubtful whether the Act is not now applied to a class of cases which it was never intended to touch. About the direct written contract, or even the direct spoken contract, where it can be proved to exist, there can be little doubt on the score of illegality, though there may be some on the score of expediency. If an employer wants an artisan from England to take a leading position, in which special experience or skill is required, he may in no way hire such a man, or let him know that he is in want of him on certain terms. As the law stands, and as it is now applied to such cases, a man, or indeed any number of men, may go into the United States not knowing whether there is work for them or not, but a man knowing that there is a good situation open for him at more than the customary wages of the trade, and that there is no question of strike, or other trade dispute, may not enter the country. As it is only in a few cases of this kind that English labour has been shown to enter under contract, there cannot be much ground of complaint on this point.

CANADIAN IMMIGRATION.

The influx of different kinds of labour from Canada may also be accounted as British in its origin, and has now attained considerable dimensions. It is alleged that nearly the whole of the lumber trade of the Great North West is now worked by Canadian labour, which comes across the frontier for the season and then returns to Canada. It is also complained that Canadians are now taking almost entire possession of the best positions in the American Mercantile Marine, and they are even said to find their way in large gangs to work as stevedores during the cotton shipping season in the Southern States, in each case to the detriment of native labour. More, however, is made of the case of the French-Canadians, who in large numbers have flocked into the New England States, where they are stated to have displaced other labour in the textile trades by working at lower rates of wages. It was also urged against them, that by their lower standard of living they were not only able to undersell the

native labour, but also to save money so quickly, that in a few years they could return to Canada with sufficient to buy a farm, upon which the whole family could settle down and live in comparative comfort. It was truly said ten or a dozen years ago that these people had no desire to learn the language, or become citizens of the United States, and that they took no interest whatever in its concerns. Mr. Carroll D. Wright, then Chief of the Massachusetts Labour Bureau, spoke of them as the Chinese of the Eastern States. He said: "They care nothing for our institutions, civil, political, or educational. They do not come to make a home with us, to dwell with us as citizens, and so become a part of us, but their purpose is merely to sojourn a few years as aliens, touching us only at a single point, that of work, and when they have gathered out of us what will satisfy their ends, to get them away to whence they came and bestow it there. They are a horde of industrial invaders, not a stream of stable settlers. Voting, with all it implies, they care nothing about. Rarely does one of them become naturalised. They will not send their children to school if they can help it, but endeavour to crowd them into the mills at the earliest possible age. To do this they deceive about the age of their children with brazen effrontery. . . . These people have one good trait, they are indefatigable workers and docile. All they ask is to be set to work, and they care little who rules them or how they are ruled. To earn all they can by no matter how many hours of toil, to live in the most beggarly way, so that out of their earnings they may spend as little for living as possible, and to carry out of the country what they can thus save; this is the aim of the Canadian French in our factory districts. Incidentally, they must have some amusements, and so far as the males are concerned, drinking, and smoking, and lounging constitute the sum of these."

Naturally these sweeping accusations excited a storm of indignation among the French-Canadian portion of the community, and in the following year, 1882, a special sitting of the Bureau had to be held to give to the representatives of these immigrants the opportunity of defence. The agents of the Bureau responsible for the reports upon which such charges were based, were obliged to admit that their statements, although not unfounded, were too sweeping. Whatever truth there may have been in these denunciations of the French Canadian immigrants at that time, it is quite certain that conditions have changed entirely since then on most of the points of complaint. Probably Mr. Carroll D. Wright would admit, that since that time the French-Canadians would almost seem to have set themselves resolutely to work to amend the faults of which he then complained.

The State of Massachusetts alone, with a population of 2,238,943 had in 1890 a foreign-born population of 657,137, and

of these not less than 565,925 were of British, Irish, and British Colonial origin, the number for Canada and Newfoundland being 207,601. In the town of Fall River, with a total population of 74,398, about one half were of foreign birth, and of these 26,222 were British, Irish, or Colonial, 15,154 being Canadian. Whatever these colonials may have been in 1881 they are considered good citizens now. Senator Robert Howard, of Fall River, who is of English birth, and is secretary of the Mule Spinners' Association of Fall River, says that nearly the whole of the operatives in the cotton mills there are English, Irish, or French-Canadian. The last-mentioned now settle down in the country for good, and are making good citizens, while in all trade matters associating themselves with the English and Irish operatives in the union. Mr. Howard admits that the labour market is crowded, and that there are more spinners than there are jobs for. Mr. Sam Ross, a member of the State House of Representatives, of English birth, and secretary of the New Bedford Mule Spinners' Association, and also of the Amalgamated Association, is also of this opinion. It is, however, admitted that in the other New England States, where the British element is not so relatively numerous, organisation in the trade is weaker, wages lower, and hours of labour longer.

It is also made ground of complaint against Canadian labour, that in certain frontier towns people from Canada cross over daily, and work their day's work in the United States while residing in Canada. This is said to be especially the case in Detroit, which is only separated from the Canadian town of Windsor by the Detroit River. That some hundreds of Canadians do pass over into Detroit daily by the ferry and do their work there, there is no doubt. It is, however, quite certain that from the United States side a considerable number also cross to their daily toil on the Canadian side, and though it is quite possible that an exact balance may not be struck in this way, there seems little cause for complaint about a voluntary immigration which seems to assume the form of an exchange of labour. Some of the trade unions, however, assert that the Canadians take situations at less than American rates, and in that way injuriously affect the rate of wages. It may also be said on the other side of the account that there is generally a considerable migration of American citizens into Canada, and the Canadian census of 1881 revealed the fact that the proportion of persons of United States birth settled in Canada generally, was 18 per 1,000, while in the province of Ontario the proportion was 23 per 1,000. In 1892, 421 United States citizens settled in Manitoba under the homestead system, and there can be no doubt that many Americans cross regularly into Canadian territory. So far, therefore, as Canadian immigration is concerned, there is here a *per contra* account, which it is not at all desirable to close, if only on the ground of leaving to the American citizen the free right of domicile on whichever side of the boundary line he may choose.

GERMAN IMMIGRATION.

The character of the German immigration into the United States stands quite as high, and, indeed, in some respects higher, than that from British sources. The general complaints made against it are much the same in their nature as in the case of British immigration. The chief is, that, on first arrival, the German, not speaking the language of the country, and, possibly, not so well informed on trade matters as the Englishman, falls more easily a victim to those on the look-out for cheap labour, and that, therefore, he tends to reduce prevailing wage rates. The Germans are, however, considered sober, reliable, and industrious workers, who, when once they get to know what the correct conditions of labour are, are resolute to obtain them. From what has already been said as to the diffusion of immigrants over the various industries of the country, and from the tables in the appendix throwing light upon this point, it will be gathered that the Germans spread themselves over all trades. As workers they readily assimilate themselves to American conditions, and become members of the trade organisations which exist. As citizens they soon learn the language of the country, and take an intelligent interest in its local and national politics. They come to stay, and throw in their lot whole-heartedly with the country of their adoption. No one ventures for a moment to suggest that they in any way tend to depreciate the American standards of life, or of social and political morality, and thus there is never any question of restriction in their case, except among those who would restrict without discrimination as to elements of fitness. Some evidence was indeed tendered before the Ford Committee, which seemed to show that in some cases associations in Germany were trying to provide asylums in America for members of their criminal classes. The same statement was made about certain British organisations. The idea of giving to criminals, who have finished their terms of imprisonment, an opportunity of beginning a better life in a new world is truly benevolent, but the people in the new world to which they are sent, may reasonably object to their country being made the scene of experiments in this work of moral reform.

SCANDINAVIAN IMMIGRATION.

Next in importance in point of numbers comes the Scandinavian immigration, in which is here included immigration from Denmark, Norway, and Sweden. This in 1892 amounted to 68,302, a proportion of nearly 11½ per cent. of the entire European immigration of the year. This is another class of immigration to which few people in the United States, save extreme restrictionists, would be disposed to offer any objection. It is generally admitted that, physically, morally, and socially, no better class of immigrants enter the United States. In some

respects these are perhaps the most desirable of all. With most others one of the great troubles is that of unequal distribution. There is a general tendency to settle down in the great centres where population is already congested, and the labour market full to overflowing. But with the Scandinavians this is not so. Used to an active country life at home, they do not care to settle down in the streets of the big towns, but strike out for the West, and are to be found chiefly in such States as Wisconsin, Illinois, Iowa, Minnesota, and Dakota. They supply just the kind of labour that is wanted out there, and have done much to develop the States in which they have chiefly settled. They are largely farmers, and, having a natural desire to acquire land, they at once take steps for naturalization, becoming keen politicians, and anxious to discharge the duties of citizenship to the fullest extent. They readily acquire the language, and quickly assimilate with the native population. In the towns, those who are artizans are capable, steady workmen, and readily join with their fellow workmen, of whatever nationality, in looking after the special interests of their trades.

OTHER IMMIGRATION FROM WESTERN EUROPE.

Of the other nations of Western Europe little need be said. France and Switzerland have never made large contributions to the population of the United States, and the number of immigrants from those countries tends rather to decrease in the former case, and to increase very slightly in the latter. Nor do Belgium or the Netherlands send a large proportion, while Spain and Portugal also send so small a number, and have so slight an influence on American labour, or social life, that they may be disregarded for the purposes of this report.

IMMIGRATION FROM SOUTHERN AND EASTERN EUROPE.

With the nations of Southern and Eastern Europe, however, the case is altogether different. In recent years there has been a growing tendency to increase in the number of immigrants from such countries, and they come under conditions which have caused Americans to ask for the first time whether it is wise that the gates of the nation should thus be left open to all comers.

IMMIGRATION FROM AUSTRIA-HUNGARY.

As will have been seen from the statistics already quoted, the number of immigrants coming each year from Austria-Hungary, exclusive of Poland, into the United States has been steadily increasing. In 1883 the total immigration from this source, was 27,625, of which 31.9 were females. In 1892 the total was 80,136, of which 29.84 were females. It would thus appear

that while the general tendency of this element is to grow larger, it also tends to be an immigration much more of one sex than another, which, as has already been stated, is not a healthy sign, because it points rather to an influx of men who have not come to stay in the country for good, than to an immigration of families who mean to settle.

The history of the commencement of this immigration is instructive. It has chiefly affected the coal and coke regions, and, to a certain extent, the unskilled labour of the iron-producing districts also. It is therefore chiefly to the coal and coke industries that this part of the investigation will be confined. Eighteen years ago the mines of Pennsylvania were worked almost entirely by labour of American, British, Irish, and German origin. The coal trade of the region, so far as the operatives were concerned, was in an absolutely unorganised condition. Wages, it is true, were high, but an oppressive truck system was in full swing, under which only a residuum of money earned, found its way into the pockets of the miners. Payment was made sometimes once a month, sometimes once a quarter. Wages might run to \$25 a week, but much of it went in the excessive prices charged for everything, from the smallest household necessities to house rent. Then came reductions of wages, and a great strike broke out. The employers sent agents to Europe, and these brought back with them hundreds of men from Hungary, Poland, Bohemia, and Slavonia. This, so to speak, turned on a stream of immigration from a new quarter, and since then, the nations of Southern and Eastern Europe have been gradually augmenting their supplies of a form of labour which is almost entirely unskilled.

At home, toiling for wages so low, that a decent standard of living was impossible, these men came into a country in which all was strange and unfamiliar, and in which rates of wages, not half in amount of those paid to native labour, seemed absolute wealth in comparison with what they had received at home, while they were content with food of the cheapest and poorest description. Sensational reports have from time to time appeared as to the conditions under which these people toiled, and lived in the Pennsylvania coal and coke regions, and possibly some of those descriptions may have been somewhat highly coloured. In 1884 the Pennsylvanian Bureau of Industrial Statistics specially investigated and reported on, the conditions then existing.

The report says:—

“Since 1878, they have been coming in large numbers, and less than 35 per cent. can read when they come, and they never learn, their sole ambition being the accumulation of from \$200 to \$1,000 to take back to Hungary. The average Hungarian at home, when he can find work will earn about six guildens a month. A gulden is equal to 40 cents in American money, and it requires but 72 guildens for a Hungarian to live a whole year in Hungary better than he does in America, that is, \$28.80. In this country, whether they have been brought over by contract (a few of them have, the majority having immigrated on their

own account) or not, they soon find employment on public works, at the mines, in iron and steel works, on railroads, &c., and are willing to work for sums much lower than the minimum paid to our own labourers. Few of them become miners, most working at outside and inside labouring, and picking slate. A full-grown man will work for a boy's wages. At the coke ovens they will contract to draw and fork coke for less than other labourers, and will put all hands, including their women and children, to work, so as to complete the work soon. Living as they do, like animals, ten, twenty, and thirty in a hovel, with one woman to cook for each gang, they accomplish their purpose of saving money rapidly. They seem to have no preference for the kind of work, and are to be found in the iron and coke districts, and at the anthracite and bituminous mines. Few live in the cities. Not fleeing from military duty, the average of their ages when they come here is 30 years; some as young at 25 years, and few older than 35. At home they live better than they do here, one family to a house. They bring nothing of value with them, their intention being not to remain. Their diet is the poorest salt meat, potatoes, and a poor kind of bread, which they bake themselves. Liquor is their delight, but they will only indulge in the cheapest beer and whisky, the latter being more often substituted by common alcohol diluted with water. They spend nothing of their earnings for anything except board and rum; generally, they go back in the same clothes they came. A week's earnings of five or six dollars supplies their living for a month, and if at any time it should cost them a little more, they change boarding houses under the belief that they are being cheated. Like the Poles, their perceptive faculties are quick, and they will learn to do common work quickly, but they do not improve their conditions like the Poles and seldom accumulate property. In a population of two thousand Hungarians, in one section, in the anthracite coal region, but one was a citizen. To save money, they will live like pigs, to the sacrifice of health and comfort and to the great discomfort and danger of the communities in which they reside, from pestilence-breeding causes. It is truly astonishing that, in a civilized country, people are permitted to live like the Hungarians live in the mining regions of Pennsylvania. They have been known to gather the offal about slaughter-houses to make soup with. One dollar a week is about the highest sum the most liberal Hungarian allows himself to live on. Their habitations are sheds, situated generally in the poorest quarters of the towns. They have wooden beds, or bunks, with straw to lie on, and the floors reek in filth. In the cold weather they keep warm by huddling close together, and the atmosphere of their huts or hovels is stifling.

"Their savings range from 200 to 1,000 guildens, \$80 to \$400, and their earnings are from \$2.50 to \$8 per week. It takes them from one to three years to save all they want; but in this respect they differ, some being satisfied with less than others. During the past three years, about 50 have left the anthracite coal regions with one thousand guildens each. They do not keep their savings about their persons or hovels, but as fast as it accumulates they send it to their friends in Hungary by foreign money-order, purchased of local agents, or by bank draft, or bill of exchange. It is estimated that, in the past three years, \$600,000 have been sent from the Schuylkill coal region to Poland and Hungary."

Witnesses before the Committee of the House of Representatives on "The Importation of Foreign Labour in 1888," give a much worse description of the conditions existing among the

foreigners of these regions than this. Mr. Powderly thus described the results of personal investigation :—

“ I found, in 1882, in the town of Flossberg, at what was known as the Eckart mine—I saw—a number who were admitted to an inclosure around the mouth of a mine, a high board fence, possibly a foot or so taller than the walls of this room, the boards standing upright, and that fence inclosed the mine. Inside was a long building. You will find it in this article. I don't remember the exact language (*sic*). I have it in figures. But in that building—it makes no difference what the length was—I found five rows of bunks, the first one about 18 ins. from the floor. It was 2 ft. 6 in. wide, I think, and 6 ft. 6 in. in length, about 6 in. deep, filled with straw and covered over with what was originally a black and blue piece of ticking, and when I saw it it was all black and fully alive to the situation. Both straw and ticking seemed to be alive. They fairly crawled. I saw one man that came in, and he leaned on a crutch. His leg had been broken and he was getting well. The man had no attendant, and his leg, the smell of it, was so offensive as to keep people away from his neighbourhood. He went to his bed and rolled in just as he was, bandages, filth, clothing, and all, and I saw the other men coming in from the mine and sit down to a board table about as wide as this, made of hemlock boards, and somewhat longer, without washing the face or hands, and partook of a meal of salt pork and water. The pork was bought at wholesale and kept until it was eaten, no matter what its condition was ; and that class of people came to take the place of American miners, who ask for an advance in wages or against a reduction of wages, struck, and those men were brought to take their places, and they succeeded in breaking the backbone of the strike and in obliging the men to work at the reduced rates, while they worked for less in some instances than one half of what the others did. * * * * *

Q. State whether it is a fact that many of these immigrants that are induced and encouraged to come here are men whom no amount of civilization will Americanize?—A. I have yet failed to see anything that would cause me to think that they would make good American citizens ; their lives are too low to make it. They retain their own manners and customs until they die, or may go back to their own lands. Nine or ten of them will live in a house with one woman. She performs all the duties necessary in that household for the men. I have seen that, where one woman did the housework for the eight and served all the purposes. Not the wife or mistress either, but she served all purposes. I don't know what you would call it ; you know what I mean.

Q. A wife in common for the whole crowd?—A. Yes, sir.

Q. Did the cooking and acted as wife to all of them?—A. I asked a woman of that character why she led such a life, and she said she had no alternative. She could speak English fairly well, and she said if she married one of these men they would starve to death, and between the eight she managed to get enough to live on, and with the eight there was no danger of her raising a family, and as a consequence she would not be troubled with that.”

Personal communication with the chief officials of the United Mine-workers' Union of America embracing 30,000 members brought out some facts of interest. In their opinion the mining

trade is too full of men already. The number of non-English-speaking aliens in the mines is increasing, and within recent years wages have come down 33 per cent. So much is the labour market overstocked that the men do not get in more than 200 days work during the year, and wages generally do not average more than \$365 in the year. Up to within two years ago the union had 10,000 members in the coke region of Pennsylvania, but now they have not one, the C. Frick Coal and Coke Company having crushed them out. In Central Pennsylvania of 20,000 miners 33 per cent. are non-English speaking. In Illinois and Ohio the miners are now much mixed as to nationality, and there are amongst them Poles, Swedes, Germans, Italians, and Hungarians. In the coke regions they are chiefly Poles and Hungarians with a large element of even cheaper Italian labour now coming in. As to the ability of these aliens as workers, there is little to be said. They soon become quite as skillful as the other European miners, and are soon able to do quite as good a day's work. Even where not as competent, they will attain to the same level of production by working longer hours. No regular hours are fixed, and they can and do work as much as 12 to 14 hours a day. They can live much more cheaply than men of other nationalities, and are consequently in a position to take less wages. The miners have little hope of bettering their position by strikes, as hordes of foreigners can now so easily be found to take their places. Though physically competent as workmen, their ignorance of the language, and of practical mining, renders them a source of danger in the mines, and numerous accidents have occurred which were attributed to the ignorance or recklessness of these foreigners. On the other hand may be quoted the opinion of Mr. J. Costello, President of the Pittsburg district of the same trade union. There are, he states, 20,000 miners in his district, within a radius of 25 miles from Pittsburg. One third of this number is Hungarian and Italian in nationality. Some of them join the Union and, generally, they obtain the same wages as union men. They are jealous and suspicious. In mass meetings they generally vote solid against the English-speaking section, and, when they strike, are unruly and violent in the extreme. As to the fall in wages which has taken place in recent years he does not think it altogether due to the presence of so much foreign labour, but had been largely brought about by the discovery of natural gas which had immensely diminished the demand for coal in the district. He says the coal bosses take advantage of the hostile feelings existing between English, and non-English speaking sections, and play off one against another for their own purposes. Owing to these causes the mining trade is now in so low a condition that men get out of it into other occupations as occasion offers. In his opinion under existing conditions the foreign element in the mines is likely to increase and to gradually squeeze out the English-speaking races. The union was organised

for trade purposes only. There is no regular rate of periodical contribution, and funds are raised by voluntary assessment as emergency requires. The miners themselves are largely responsible for the wholesale introduction into their trade of cheap European labour. It used to be the custom for miners to employ their own unskilled labour, and, with a view to make as much out of it as possible, they employed non-English speaking foreigners at low wages. It was in this way that Hungarian and Polish labour was first introduced, and the way prepared for a general importation by the employers. There can be no question as to the danger of employing in mines, labour which is not only unskilled in the work to be done, but ignorant also of the language generally spoken, and in which notices and warnings are issued. Thus before the Committee of 1888 on the Importation of Foreign Labour it was stated in evidence that in one of the Pennsylvanian mines 19 Hungarians were killed through inability to read the word "Danger" on a notice board in one of the workings of the mine. Nor is this to be wondered at in a district into which these men have to be sent, ticketed, like baggage, with the name of their destination, and where they become mere numbers rather than names, with their numbers worn on their waistband as their only indication of individuality. Even while the investigation on which this report is based, was being made, two serious accidents occurred, which further illustrate the special liability to danger arising during work in which so much labour of this kind is employed. Both of these accidents may be fairly said to have originated from this cause. In one a Hungarian miner whose lamp was burning attempted to replenish it with oil. The lamp exploded and the oil was ignited. The newspaper report says:—"The Hungarian uttered a shriek of terror and then stood perfectly quiet, the life seeming to have been scared almost out of him." In the result the workings of the mine were fired, and ten men lost their lives in consequence, while 1,000 men were laid idle. In the other case nine Italian labourers were killed through the incautious handling of a large cantilever. Yet, just at the time of the first-named accident, a bill had been defeated in the Legislature which had for its object the prohibition of the employment of ignorant or unskilled miners, a prohibition which exists in England. Nor has the importation of these men prevented strikes. Indeed, one of the bitterest, and certainly most violent, strikes which ever took place in the coke regions, has occurred in 1891 since the introduction of the Hungarian element. The Report of the Pennsylvania Labour Bureau for 1891 gives a full history of this strike from which the following passages are taken:—

"The most disastrous strike of the year was that of the coke workers in the Connellsville region.

"The 'Connellsville Region' is the name given to a strip of country about 40 miles long by three miles wide and which runs north-east and south-west across Westmorland and a part of Fayette counties, and at

the time the strike commenced it contained about 16,000 coke ovens, of which there were 9,885 in actual operation manufacturing coke for the use of the iron furnaces in all parts of the state. The wage agreement between the employers and employes ended on February 9, and for some time previous to this date there had been rumours in circulation that the coke workers were about to demand a higher rate of wages, also that their working day should be reduced to eight hours; and it was also rumoured that the operators were to insist on a reduction on the present rate of wages of 10 per cent., which, if not submitted to by the workmen a lock-out was threatened. This was the condition of affairs on February 9, and no agreement having been arrived at on that day, the men threw down their tools and went out on strike, and the coke ovens and the mines from which they were supplied with coal, were shut down. There were two firms, however, in the region who employed a large number of men, that of Reid Brothers, at Dunbar, Fayette county, and Wm. J. Rainey, who was a non-union operator. The men who were employed by these firms professed to be satisfied, but threats were freely made by the strikers that, if they did not also go out, force would be used to compel them to do so. The number of men who were actually engaged or involved in the strike at its commencement was 16,000, which included coke workers, miners, and iron furnace hands, and for several days thereafter everything was quiet and peaceable in the region."

"Matters, it appears, went on peaceably enough for a short time; but on the 23rd February, a large body of strikers, consisting of Italians, Huns, Slavs, with some English-speaking races, at least 4,000 strong, invaded Dawson, Fayette County, armed with clubs and revolvers and forced the workmen of Messrs. Rainey and Co to leave their work and join them. Another crowd, about 1,500 strong, mostly Huns and Germans, went to Fort Hill and drove out other employes of the same firm, who were still at work at that place. The strike gradually extended while a large force of special officers, deputy sheriffs, and Pinkerton's detectives, had to be employed for the preservation of property.

"On March 29 a detective, who had concealed himself in a house occupied by a Hungarian leader, overheard a plot being formulated by some Hungarian strikers to raid the Morewood Coke Works and to murder Robert Ramsay, one of the officials of the Company. On being notified of the plot, Ramsay removed his family to a place of safety. Shortly after midnight, fully 1,200 men made an attack upon the works. The attacking party consisted of four divisions or separate bodies of strikers, each headed by a band of music and starting from Alice, Standard, Bridgeport, and Bessemer respectively, which were mining villages near Morewood. The mob completely terrorised the forces which were intended to protect the works, and commenced to destroy the company's property. The coke-oven doors were battered down and the coke destroyed which was in process of manufacture. Tools were thrown into the ovens and destroyed, while wheelbarrows were piled up and burned, and the railroad rendered useless. Iron wheelbarrows were filled with the burning coke for the purpose of firing the mine shaft and store-houses, but these were saved from the general destruction by the advice of the more moderate of the strikers. On the 31st March, to the strains of bands of music, a large body of men advanced to attack Morewood in two divisions. Capt. Loar, one of the deputy sheriffs commanded the mob to disperse, giving the order in the Hungarian language, as he knew that the majority of those composing the mob was of that nationality. The sheriff's officers fired upon the crowd, several

volleys being delivered, whereupon the mob broke up and fled. The story of the rioters and their friends was that they had no intention of making an attack upon the Company's works, and that the firing upon them by the officers was unwarranted. Capt. Loar said he had not given the order to fire, and it was never ascertained who did give the order. Seven men were killed in this riot. Numerous evictions from the Company's houses afterwards took place and the strike came gradually to a termination, though during the closing days many scenes of violence were enacted in spite of the presence of a large military force. The strike could not be said to have really terminated till May 24th.

"It is estimated that there were 2,000 evictions in the region during the strike and that there was at least \$4,000,000 lost in wages during that time and an expense to the state of \$35,000 for the pay and subsistence of the troops.

"The operators themselves are not blameless in this matter. Desire for cheap labour seems to have influenced them in employing men utterly unacquainted with our laws or customs, unfitted in many respects to be associates of the better class of citizens, and who in time acquired a knowledge that led them to be breeders of discontent and trouble. Excited and infuriated, unable to reason or be reasoned with, the only course seemingly left to them was the destruction of property. This affair clearly shows that there are considerations besides cheapness of labour in employing men—the peace of society, the safety of human life and property, which cannot be overlooked."

To the unfortunate result of this strike is probably due the collapse of the Mine Workers' Union in this part of Pennsylvania. It shows how utterly uncontrollable such excitable elements are when they once break loose against authority.

It is right, however, that anything which may be said on the other side should be put forward, and this cannot be done better than by shortly recording the facts as to the present condition of the men in these districts as ascertained by a personal visit for the purposes of this report.

During winter and early spring it is not easy to imagine a more desolate-looking region than the whole country near the town of Connellsville. It is, however, the most marvellous coke producing region of the world. In England there is nothing to compare with it for extent, and to this is largely due the great prominence which the neighbouring district of Pittsburgh and its surrounding towns some 50 miles away have attained as a centre of iron and steel production. The coal lies near the surface, and may in some cases be said to be quarried rather than mined, while in other instances, the coal is won by drifts driven into the sides of the hills, from whence it is run on gangways right to the crushing mills, or to the ovens, as may be required. Nearly the whole of the labourers required for these purposes are Hungarians, Poles, and Italians, who live either in adjacent villages, or in scattered houses, which, in almost every case, are the property of the employers. This state of comparative isolation renders it difficult for these people either to learn the language, or to become Americanised, even if

they had the desire. That they live under wretched and most insanitary conditions is certain. They may not be crowded into sheds, and packed away in bunks as they used to be in the earlier stages of their employment, but they are still living under conditions which would not be permitted in European countries where similar industries are carried on. The people themselves are not entirely to blame for the state of the houses they live in, which are the property of the masters. These habitations, mostly built of wood, are small in size, and though those of the larger employers may be in a tolerably decent state, those of the lesser coke masters are mere wooden shanties of the flimsiest description.

Father Semigiel, pastor of the Polish Church at the little village of Everson, near the centre of the coke region, who has been stationed there six years, states that the men in the coke regions are of mixed nationalities. They are Hungarians, Slavs, Poles, and Italians. Their object in coming there is to earn and save a little money, and return again to Europe after a few years. They come as a rule without families, and those of them who are married take houses, and provide for lodgers. Thus a married man will have as many as 10 or 12 lodgers in a little wooden house not sufficient for the healthy lodging of half that number of people.

As to the behaviour of the people generally, it is much better than it was a few years ago. They are a saving people, and their standard of living is very low, though higher than it used to be when they first came there. They can subsist on very little. Morally they are a good people, but drink is their besetting sin, and when intoxicated, they frequently commit acts of violence, stabbing with knives being common under such conditions. Three years ago the police courts had plenty of work to do among them, but now they are seldom in trouble with the authorities. They are mostly young men and earn from \$1½ to \$2½ a day.

In respect to the Poles they stand on a somewhat different footing. They are nearly all men who have come to stay, and have their families, with them. In this district there are 500 Polish families rapidly becoming Americanised. They naturalise and take an intelligent interest in the political and other public life of the country. They have their own public schools, and a handsome stone church intended for the pastor is nearly finished. In politics they are largely Democrats, and have a club and six benefit societies. Even the Huns and Slavs are beginning to organise themselves socially and religiously. To a considerable extent the statements of the worthy priest are confirmed by other residents in the locality, a tradesman in Scottdale asserting that the days when the Hungarians were content to eat the veriest offal have gone, and that now he likes a good piece of meat

just as well as the natives. The overcrowded dwellings are the chief evil now existing. They are filthy in the extreme, and swarm with vermin.

Speaking to Mr. Schloss, and stating the case from an employer's point of view, Mr. Joseph Harris, President of the Lehigh Coal and Navigation Company, Philadelphia, says that the Company employs in its mines from 4,000 to 5,000 men, of which not more than one half are of foreign birth. There are many Hungarians among them. When the Hungarians first come they live in boarding-houses, but afterwards they want houses to live in by themselves, and soon adopt the American standard of comfort. The great mass of Hungarians are not "birds of passage," but settle in the country. He has known them to go back to their own country, but only for the purpose of coming again with their wives and families. He does not think the effect of their coming has been to reduce wages or to overcrowd the labour market. He, however, thinks it quite possible that though wages had not been reduced by their coming, they might have been prevented from rising.

The classes of crime to which these mixed races of the coal and coke region are chiefly addicted are, as has been remarked, those in which violence to the person is a chief feature. The question of relative criminality generally may be left for later treatment. It is, however, of interest to quote from the newspapers a few paragraphs, published while this inquiry was going on in the States, which illustrate this point. The first is a case in which Huns were the victims. Near Hazleton a party of Huns were attacked by three men, who shot, stabbed, and robbed the Huns, one being considered fatally injured. The assailants were said to be Italians. Another records a free fight among Slav labourers at the mines, in which several were stabbed, one fatally. At Plymouth, Pennsylvania, a bloody riot took place in which the combatants were Huns and Polanders under the influence of drink. Revolvers, stones, and clubs were freely used, until the police interfered. One man was killed outright. At Harleigh, in the same State, a regular pitched battle with knives and revolvers took place between Hungarian and Italian miners. The weight of evidence seems rather against the Hungarian as a desirable element in American immigration. The above facts are drawn chiefly from the coal and coke regions, although the Hungarians are to be found scattered though not in such force, over many other localities. It is probably sufficient to take them as found in their largest aggregations to be a fair sample of the whole of the nationality.

ITALIAN IMMIGRATION.

The Italians come next. They, in many respects, resemble the Hungarians, and are often found associated with them in doing the lower unskilled labour of the country. Like the

Hungarians, they have only made their descent upon the United States in force in comparatively recent years, and in their case also there is that striking inequality in the proportion of the sexes, which is also one of the undesirable features of the Austria-Hungarian immigration. Thus, in 1870, the number of immigrants from Italy into the States was 2,891, 759 of whom were females. In 1879, after rising to nearly 9,000 in 1873, the number had dropped again to 5,791, from which point it continued steadily to rise, until, in 1891, it reached its maximum of 75,455, of which only 15,280 were females. In 1892 it was 61,631, of which 14,232 were females. Of a total immigration from 1873 to 1892 of 493,148, a period of 20 years, 444,395 came during the last 12 years of the period. This immense influx of people from Italy is so peculiar in many of its features, that it can hardly be considered a natural immigration, and deserves a little attention. So far as influence upon American labour is concerned, no part of the immigration needs to be so carefully watched as that from Italy. Generally, as has been observed, the effect of the law prohibiting the importation of labour under contract has been to exercise a protective influence over the conditions of American labour. Practically, this law has made it impossible for employers to engage from Europe, or elsewhere, cheap labour wherewith to replace that of a higher grade. This cannot, however, be said to be entirely true in the case of Italian immigrants. They do not, it is true, enter the States under contract to serve any specific master at any definite price; but thousands of them actually come while under conditions which place their labour at the disposal of men who contract regularly for the supply of labour to employers. Thus the law, which is moderately effective in respect to skilled labour, is rendered of no account in so far as the unskilled labour of Italy is concerned. Much of the immigration from Italy is forced and unnatural. It is stimulated by the activity of emigration agents paid on commission, who work in the interests of the shipping companies. The country districts are placarded with notices as to the desirability of the United States as a field for emigration, and these advertisements give glowing accounts of the conditions existing there. Hopes are held out that ordinary labourers may earn 2 dollars per day. Some are able to pay their own passage money by the sale or mortgage of property or goods they may possess, but, in a large proportion of cases, tickets are supplied to the intending immigrants on the understanding that they are to re-pay the value from the first money they earn in America. Before the Select Committee of 1888 witness after witness was called from the ranks of poor unemployed Italian labourers who had gone over to the States, and found that the promises made to them were impossible of realisation. One witness, the head of an Italian Immigrants Society, deposed that there were from four to five thousand Italian labourers idle in New York. These unfortunate men

had been induced to come by the promises of emigration agents, or employment agencies, and, from poverty, were unable to proceed further than New York. In many instances in which the passage tickets had been provided for the emigrants, by agents, on an undertaking to pay for them out of first money earned, a considerable per-centage was charged on the amount thus advanced, the commission charged in this way being often double the usual fare. In the earlier stages of the Italian immigration into the States, troops of Italians would come over under the direction of contractors, to whom they were practically engaged as labourers, and these "bosses" would let them out in gangs to employers requiring labour, the contractor receiving again a commission on the labour of each man supplied, which was deducted from his wages. The labourers themselves had, in numerous instances, to pay a special fee for the employment found them. Not content with this, the men into whose hands they fell undertook to board and lodge them while employed, and every necessary of life was supplied to them under an extortionate truck system. The men who work this traffic in human labour are often small bankers, or beer saloon keepers, who also transact for the poor Italians any financial business they may have. This is often considerable, as there is a large amount remitted year by year to friends or families in Italy, either for the purpose of saving, of maintenance, or for emigration. It has been generally said of the Italians that they come to America to stay for a few years only, returning to Italy with the money they have saved. As in the case of other nationalities, however, this is not so much the case now as it used to be, and much the larger proportion now comes to stay. Others again, who are skilled operatives in the building trades, are "birds of passage," who cross from Italy in the spring, and return in the autumn.

The lowest labour of the States is now mostly done by Italians. They do the unskilled labour of the railroads, the stripping or surface labour of the mines, and the repairing and sweeping of the public streets. From those walks of labour they have completely forced out the Irish labourers who used to do such work, and it is felt that they have reduced the rates of wages paid in such occupations. There are none in the United States who work so hard or so long as the Italians, or for so little wages, and on so small an amount of food. Their effect upon American wages and standards of comfort is, therefore, felt wherever they compete with other labour.

There is, in fact, in most of the large centres an agreement of opinion that daily wages for street labourers have come down from \$1.50 to \$1.25, which seems to have become quite a recognised standard for Italian labour, and below which many of them refuse to work.

These rates are stated to be falling, however, and evidence has been given to show, that some of the Italians who combine

the businesses of banking and labour contracting have been willing to contract to supply 600 men at \$1.10 per day, without commission, provided only there should be a clause in the contract permitting them to have full control of the housing and feeding of the men. Again, in some towns the Italian street labour is not now paid at more than 75 cents a day.

Though mostly unskilled labourers many of the Italian immigrants become small dealers, fruit sellers in the public streets, newsboys, shoeblacks, and generally drift into small occupations in which they can do business on their own account. In the large towns they are to be found living together, and take possession of certain quarters almost entirely. They are thus to be found under conditions of the most unhealthy kind, while their low standard of cleanliness and comfort, and strong desire to save all they can, cause them to overcrowd the tenements in which they live to such an extent as to be not only unhealthy and degrading to themselves, but a source of danger to the health of the community generally.

In New York they are perhaps to be found at their worst, and, jointly with the Chinese and Russian Jews, have gradually taken possession of a central portion of the city. Mulberry Street is the chief centre of the Italian settlement in New York, and the neighbourhood swarms with a population of a variety and a density such as cannot easily be equalled elsewhere. Here it is difficult to find anyone who speaks the language of the country, and the street sounds, sights, and smells are those of Southern Europe. The tall houses with their iron balconies and fire escapes on which the bedding of the inmates is hung out to air on fine days, present a most disorderly and slovenly appearance, in striking contrast to some of the more American avenues and streets which are only a few minutes' walk away. In all that concerns the administration of their laws for the preservation of public health, the authorities of the great American cities are strangely indulgent to their alien populations, and they allow them to do with impunity, things which are not permitted to the native American.

As to the conditions under which the Italians of this portion of New York live, and which generally resemble the conditions existing in other cities, much valuable information is to be found in the Report of the House of Representatives' Committee on Manufactures, which sat to investigate the sweating system in 1892.

Dr. Annie Sturges Daniel, out-door visiting physician to the New York Infirmary for Women and Children, had made a special study of cases she had visited, and testified to the Committee as to the conditions under which her patients lived. Of one Italian family it was recorded that the occupation was trouser finishing at 11 cents a pair. The mother and two children worked, and could do five pairs a day by working very

long hours. The entire number of the family was seven, and in addition there was a boarder. There were two rooms, and but one bed. The rooms were dirty, and trouser finishing was going on in the room where a child lay sick with measles. In another case an Italian family of nine occupied three dirty rooms in bad repair. In addition to themselves they had two boarders, and there were three beds for the eleven persons. One of the children lay dying, but work went on as usual at trouser finishing. In another case a family of nine, with four boarders in addition, occupied three rooms in a very insanitary house, in which there were four families on every floor; every apartment filled with trouser finishers and Italian boarders. In the city of Boston the Committee visited the Italian quarter. In one place they found a man, his wife, and eight children living in two rooms, each about 12 feet square. There were no conveniences nor closets, except those common to the whole alley, which were "filthy and nauseating beyond description, and showing no regard to decency, let alone comfort or cleanliness." In the same alley was discovered in two rooms of about the same size "a man, his wife, and four children, with several "boarders or guests. Here clothing was being manufactured, "and upon the three beds were piled the goods ready to be made "up. The stench and filth of these rooms was such as to make "it impossible for the Committee to remain in them, while the "closet arrangements were simply a mass of filth." Cases might be quoted *ad nauseam*, and the testimony thus quoted has been verified by personal inspection of some of the localities described.

These unhappy immigrants are to be pitied. Coming without means, to a new country of the language of which they are altogether ignorant, and in which they have been led to believe that work is plentiful and wages high, they fall victims to labour contractors. That these labour dealers are their own countrymen affords no mitigation to their condition. They are now spreading all over the States. In the large towns they form communities of their own, have their own institutions, and their own newspapers printed in Italian. It is contended that this immigration has not reduced wages. Mr. Jos. D. Potts, Director of the International Navigation Company, American Line of steamers, who had had great experience as an engineer in the construction of railways, expressed to Mr. Schloß the opinion that if Italian and Hungarian labour had not reduced the wages of labour generally, it had certainly prevented any advance. He thinks the Italians do a work which a native or an older immigrant of another nationality will not do. Mr. Wm H. Brown, Chief Engineer of the Union Pacific Railroad, upon being questioned said that wages paid to men in the construction and maintenance of railways are not lower now than previously, but the influx of foreigners had no doubt the effect of preventing those wages from rising. The work,

he thinks, is now done at the same wages, but the Italians, who do it are an inferior class. On the other hand, Mr. E. W. Howe, Engineer of the Parks Department of the city of Boston, writes on this point:—"All the contractors for work of which I have charge are paying \$1.50 per day of ten hours for Italians and \$1.75 to \$2.00 for Irish or native labourers. The city pays a uniform rate of \$2. a day to common labourers. I do not say that there has been any reduction of wages since the Italians came, but they are paid about the same rate as was paid before, while the wages paid to others than Italians have been increased."

In mining the Italian has, with the Hungarian, taken possession of much of the labour in some districts, and it is in this industry, as has already been seen, that the greatest effects upon wages have been visible. In the more highly skilled trades the Italians have done little harm. The mere fact that they have been skilled artisans has prevented them from being exploited by the labour contractors, and has also given them definite ideas as to the value of their own labour. They have been chiefly felt in stone cutting, and other branches of the building trades, in which many of them are "birds of passage." In such industries, however, they have occasionally formed trade unions of their own, or have become members of the American organisations of the trades they belong to.

The Italians spread themselves impartially all over the States, but in a few of the greater towns form, from their habit of overcrowding, a dense population. Thus, in Philadelphia, there is said to be an Italian population of 31,000. There is an Italian daily paper, called "Il Vesuvio," which has a circulation of 8,000. A conversation with the editor and proprietor of this journal brought out some facts of interest. The Italian population of Philadelphia, it appears, are mostly engaged in the work of street cleaning, and on railway and other unskilled labour. A great many are also employed as stone cutters, masons, and mosaic marble workers. Doubtless among them there are many who are mere "birds of passage;" but it is the fact, also, that the tendency to settle permanently is year by year becoming greater, and now most of them have their wives and families with them. They are now also taking to the clothing trade, and the women and children do a good deal of work in their own homes. There is an Italian society in the city, which has for its object to look after the interests of Italian immigrants, and which sets agencies in operation to Americanise them as speedily as possible after arrival. There are schools in which the children are taught English, so that they may be prepared for the public schools. They have also night schools for adults which are crowded by those wishing to learn the language of the country. As to trade organisation, there is not much among them. The street cleaners have a good society, but in spite of this, wages are not now so high for that class of labour as they

used to be. Fortunately the "padrone" or contract labour system does not exist in Philadelphia as it does in New York. A few years ago there were 13 Italian branches of the American International Union of Stonemasons, but those special branches have now disappeared, and the Italian members are merged among the other nationalities. It cannot, be said, however, that they form a very numerous section. There are in Philadelphia four or five building contractors who are Italians. They treat their workmen very well, and pay the current rates of wages. The Italian quarter of the city has much improved of late years. Those of the Italians who work at tailoring are badly paid, and toil very long hours, even on Sundays. Italians are also making their way into the boot and shoe trades.

Like the Hungarians, they are unfortunately addicted to crimes of violence against the person, and have introduced into the States some of the customs and practices of the secret societies of Italy. The greater proportion of Italians in prison have been convicted for crimes against the person. Enough has been said to bring out the most salient characteristics of the Italian immigration, and to enable an opinion to be formed as to whether it is likely to be beneficial or otherwise to the social life of the United States.

POLISH IMMIGRATION.

Another important element in the European immigration into the United States is that from Poland. In respect to the labour coming in from that country, it corresponds generally with that arriving from Hungary and Italy, and, like the latter, distributes itself generally over the States. It is also an immigration, which is of comparatively recent but very rapid growth. In 1870 the number from Poland was only 223, but in 1890 it had risen to 11,073, in 1891 to 27,497, and in 1892 to 33,299, about one-third of whom were females. The only skilled industry in which they are to be found in any force is tailoring, which is doubtless due to the fact that there are amongst them many Jews. As a rule, they compete only with the lowest class labour of the country, and are often to be found in the mining districts, side by side with the Hungarians, and Italians, but living up to a higher standard of comfort, assimilating better with the people of the country, and discharging the duties of citizenship. In the large towns they are occasionally found in communities, living to a great extent in a state of comparative isolation from the native or English-speaking population. They are to be found thus settled in large numbers in Chicago, but perhaps more in Detroit than in any other city of the States. In Detroit there is an estimated Polish population of 30,000 to 40,000 souls, which is roughly about one-eighth of the total population of the city.

There are also a large number of Hungarians and Italians in this important frontier town, but the Poles out-number all the

other non-English speaking foreigners put together. They are mostly engaged in the lower labour of the district work for low wages, and, as in other localities, are pushing out the Irish labourer. When Poles get a footing in any of the occupations in which trade unions exist, they join the unions, and are said to be as energetic as others in demanding standard conditions of labour.

Large numbers of them are engaged in doing the stable work of the Street Car Company. The Street Car Employés' Association is the largest trade union in Detroit, and the Poles are generally members. Immigrants of this nationality who are grown up before coming to America do not readily acquire the language, but their children are quick to learn, and in the second generation can only be distinguished by their names from native Americans. In Buffalo also there are similar settlements of Poles, Galicians, and Bohemians, the quarters of the city of which they have taken possession, being known by the names of the countries from which they come.

MISCELLANEOUS IMMIGRATION.

With the exception of the immigration from Russia, which is now about to be dealt with, there is no other nationality calling for special attention. There is now some immigration of Portuguese, of people from the Azores, of Greeks, and of Armenians, the latter not being well spoken of by the other operatives in the occupations into which they find their way. There is a good deal of this element in the leather, and boot and shoe trades of the New England States, where it has been successfully used to break down strikes of the English-speaking operatives. There is also a small amount of other Asiatic labour to be found scattered over the country, but it becomes less in extent every year the exclusion laws against the Chinese tending to keep it in check. All these may, however, be disregarded for the purposes of this report, and an examination may now be made of that portion of American immigration "which is of the character of the recent immigration of destitute foreigners from the Eastern parts of Europe into England."

IMMIGRATION OF RUSSIAN JEWS.

Practically, the immigration of Russian Jews, whether into England, or into the United States, never threatened to become a difficulty for either nation until 1881. For centuries the Jews in Russia had been barely tolerated. They lived subject to special laws, and were only allowed to reside within certain limits. In the year named, such alterations were made in the laws affecting Jews, that, immediately for thousands, and soon after for even larger numbers, expatriation was the only possible fate. Since then a continuous exodus has been going on, and

the banished Jew has had no alternative but to turn his face westward, seeking in strange lands the right of domicile refused to him longer in the land of his birth. Into the history of the persecution which thus drove the Jews out of Russia it is not necessary to enter. All that needs to be done is to examine the extent to which this immigration has entered the United States; the peculiar characteristics of such immigration; and its effect upon social and industrial conditions in that country.

As to extent. We are at once met with a difficulty which is not, however, serious. The United States statistics of immigration give figures as to nationality only, not in any way specially distinguishing Jews from other Russians or Poles, Austrians or Germans. It is, therefore, impossible, in dealing with numbers, to be absolutely sure as to the proportion of Jews among the immigrants counted as coming from Russia. Looking at all the circumstances, however, it will appear quite safe to assume that practically the whole of the Russian immigration is Hebrew in character. In the first place, the Russians are not an emigrating people, nor has it ever been the desire of their Government to see them emigrate. On the contrary, there was a law against the emigration of Russians from which Jews were excepted. In the next place, until the special circumstance occurred which tended to drive the Jews out of Russia the immigration from that country into the United States was almost infinitesimal. In 1861 it only amounted to 34, and for the ten years ending 1871, the annual average was but 314. During the decade ending 1881, the yearly average was 4,304; but in the following ten years 1882-91 it had risen to 23,865, the rise from year to year being progressive. In 1892 the maximum figure of 79,294 was reached. Thus, in 31 years there was a total immigration from Russia of 364,119, of which 317,948 came during the last eleven years in which the special causes affecting the Jews were in more or less constant operation. In none of these figures is Poland included. The inference that practically all the Russian immigration is Hebrew seems, therefore, entirely justified. There may be a few among the number who are actually Russians, but it is impossible to avoid the conclusion that the bulk of them are of Jewish origin. Long, however, before the commencement of this Russian immigration, the Jews generally had been settling in the United States. In many of the learned professions, in commerce, in finance, and in the smaller walks of business, they had been taking up the positions which their special intellectual endowments, and keen habits of business qualified them to fill. These were, however, people of a higher order than the mass of those who came from Russia when the era of persecution set in, and had been a natural outflow from Europe, of people who came willingly to seek a new home, and to adopt a new country. Thus they readily naturalised, and became American citizens to the fullest extent. In the case of the exiled Russian Jews,

however, this was not so. They neither came voluntarily, nor possessed the capacity of the first comers, and they were naturally not so welcome. What, therefore, are the general characteristics of the flood of immigrants who recently poured out from Russia?

So far as the Jews in Russia are concerned, it is now practically a question of the survival of the fittest, and those who are driven, or assisted out of the country are, in the main, those most unfit to make their way elsewhere. There are of course, numerous exceptions to this rule, and among the flood of those coming out of Russia, is a considerable minority of people able to fight the battle of life anywhere. In Russia, however, as elsewhere, it is the weakest who go to the wall, and thus it is, that even so far as the Russian Jews are concerned, it is those who are poorest and weakest who are driven across the Atlantic. Living in Russia under exceptional conditions, restricted from the exercise of their powers in almost every direction by special legislation, and compelled to live within limits which gave them no scope for the acquirement or development of industrial capacity, provided that they had any desire to move in that direction, the poorer among them could hardly be expected to become, as a class, desirable elements in a new country which requires, above all things, physical strength, and ability to do almost any kind of work. Physically, the Russian Jews are not strong and are not naturally fitted for employments requiring the constant exertion of great muscular power. It is also said against them that for labour of such a kind they have no inclination, but prefer to occupy those walks in life in which the brain is of more service than the muscles. Smart, capable artisans there are amongst them, it is true, but it is to be repeated, that here again the great bulk of those who, during the past 12 years have been crowding into the larger towns of the United States, are of a class not fitted either physically or by disposition for severe exertion. That they can and do work hard and persistently, at special occupations requiring constant application rather than strength, is beyond dispute, but the fact that their industrial scope is thus limited undoubtedly places them at a disadvantage as immigrants. The American statistics showing immigration by occupations prove this very conclusively, and nearly the whole of the labour coming from Russia is seen to be included under the heads of unskilled labour. The only skilled occupations in which they make much show are the clothing trades, but, even here, it is probable that many who return themselves as tailors do so, not because they are already tailors, but because they mean to be tailors, in some one of the senses in which that term is now used in the United States. A gradually increasing number now return themselves as farmers, but, as under the occupation tables Poland is included with Russia, it is difficult to determine how many of these may have come from Southern Russia. A larger number also seem to enter as servants, but

the proportion under the heads of labourers and "miscellaneous" is very large indeed, and it is exactly under those two divisions that many of the most undesirable elements of American immigration are to be found. This unfitness of the Russian Jew for general employments has been a great hindrance to his proper distribution over the United States. The sorts of work he can do, or can easily learn, are carried on chiefly in the great cities. The limited extent of his industrial capacity has also caused his concentration upon a comparatively small number of trades. So far as he is concerned, therefore, there has been an amount of local and trade congestion, which has caused his presence to be much more seriously felt than if this class of immigrant had been more generally distributed over the country.

But the tendency to settle down thus in the great centres, and so to take entire possession of certain localities as to gradually force out the population of other nationalities, and to establish a state of isolation from the remainder of the community, has been fostered in other ways, especially by the practices required by their religion. If men require to have their meat slaughtered in a special way, and their food generally prepared in modes which are not those of the population generally, they will naturally seek to live under conditions which make special arrangements in these matters possible. Another contributory cause towards these tendencies to exclusion from intercourse with their neighbours of other nationalities, has been that of language, together with a disposition so suspicious and distrustful as to incline them always to keep by themselves. How far such tendencies are natural or are the results of the centuries of repression under which they have lived it is unnecessary to inquire, but it seems clear that they unfit the Russian Jew from becoming at once an esteemed inhabitant of a nation, which is above all things desirous of making a people which shall be American, and which shall be, as far as possible, homogeneous. Thus the Russian Jew coming to America has been heavily handicapped to begin with. He may not, like the Italian, have been openly bought and sold in the labour market by his own countrymen, trading upon his ignorance, but in another way he has been taken advantage of, and his labour utilised to the profit and advantage of others, usually also of his own race who have availed themselves of these very tendencies in his character to carry out the process. These seem to be features so much part of the character of these people, rather than a result from the new circumstances into which they are thrown, that it is not surprising to find, that the objections urged against the Russian Jews as they are found in the United States, are almost precisely the same as those used against them in England.

These objections briefly stated are, that the Russian Jews coming into a few trades already sufficiently stocked with native

labour, work at lower rates of wages than the native workers, and under conditions which are generally injurious to the well-being of the whole trade; that they set up a lower standard of living and of social comfort; that they are dirty in their persons and habits, and form a source of danger to the health of the general community; that, being of a foreign race, not speaking the language of the country into which they come, they are imbued with no spirit of patriotism, and that any political opinions they may entertain are such as would, if carried into practice, subvert the system under which the government of the country into which they come is carried on. Before proceeding to discuss these objections in detail, it is desirable to explain that in no race is the principle of charity towards one's fellows more implicitly believed in than by the Jews. It is with them a religious duty, and, pitiable as the condition of those of their race driven out of Russia may have been, it has been immensely alleviated by the benevolence, the almost unmeasured generosity of their more fortunate brethren in other countries. Charitable agencies of all kinds have been promoted with a view to emigrate them to the countries most suitable for them, and, when there, to distribute them as judiciously as possible in the trades and districts in which they would be least likely to raise objection. If such institutions have been unsuccessful in these objects, it has not been because they have been sparing in their outlay, but rather because of the inherent difficulties of their task. Most other European peoples which send many emigrants to the States have agencies of this kind on the American or European side, or on both, but none can be said to have done more than the Jewish organisations for their people who cross the Atlantic. These very facts, however, tend but to strengthen the objection to the Russian Jew as an immigrant, because it is at once assumed that the necessity for so much charitable assistance indicates the poverty-stricken and helpless character of the people. If then, with all the advantages of this complete system of assisted and specially directed emigration the result is not what it should be, the causes demand investigation.

As has already been observed in respect to some nationalities sending large numbers of emigrants to the States, it is difficult to name special localities, or particular industries into which they have chiefly gone. They are distributed everywhere, and leave no marked trace of the course they have followed.

The Russian Jewish element is not, however, one of these. The localities and trades it affects are easily traced, and the work of examination as to results is comparatively easy.

The total Jewish population of the United States cannot easily be obtained, because in census returns nationalities are shown only by places of birth. As, however, this inquiry has chiefly to deal with Russian Jews who can be dealt with more definitely, this is of little importance

The census of 1890 gives the total number of Russian-born persons in the United States as 182,644, and those of Polish birth as 147,440. Nearly the whole of the former and a considerable proportion of the latter would be Jews. Having regard to the immense immigration of recent years, the census figures seem astonishingly low, even allowing for the addition of the years 1891-2; but it is not impossible to reconcile the figures given by the statistics of immigration with those of the census. Looking at these apparent discrepancies, in fact, it seems likely that the census enumerators were unable to deal at all exhaustively with such large numbers of foreigners unacquainted with the language of the country, and living together with so many different families under one roof or in one set of apartments. Allowing for emigration, however, and death, the figures may be easily reconciled.

Dealing, however, only with Russians, about whom there is least doubt, it is found on examination of the census tables that nearly one half of the population born in Russia is to be found in 10 of the towns only. 48,790 were said to be located in New York, but persons familiar with the Jewish quarter of that city will feel much inclined to doubt the sufficiency of these figures. However, so far as geographical distribution is concerned, it is quite clear that the Russian and Polish Jews are almost entirely to be found in the towns, and make little effort to spread themselves over the country or to take up other than a limited number of occupations.

THE SWEATING SYSTEM.

The trades into which they chiefly go are, in order of numbers, the clothing trades and the cigar trade. They are, of course, to be found in other industries, but only to a limited extent.

In America the clothing trades are of great importance, and employ an immense army of labour. The ready-made clothing trade especially, is carried on upon a gigantic scale, of which we have but little experience in this country, large as our trade is. Much of the ready-made work of the United States is turned out in a very superior fashion, and many of those in the trade do not hesitate to say that their work is quite as good, if not better, than the custom or made-to-order work of England. The effect of this is largely to drive out the higher skilled labour of the custom trade. In the clothing trade there are, of course, numerous grades of quality, but in the higher, the quality is good. Thus in the outer clothing of men and boys, and in ladies' mantles, there is an enormous production of all kinds, from the very best down to the very lowest. Another important branch of the clothing trade is shirt-making, which is also a large industry in the United States, and which,

whether carried on under a factory system, in small workshops, or in the homes of the workers, gives employment to many thousands of people, both men and women. Neck wear, such as ties and collars, is another important branch, and most of this is in the hands of the Jews, who have displaced native or other foreign labour, but who are now being in turn hard pressed by the Italians, who have an even lower standard of living. Into the felt hat trade the Jews are also making their way, and, to some extent, but very slightly, into the boot and shoe trade. The chief trades, however, are the two first named—tailoring and cigar-making. Again, it is chiefly as to the effect of the Jew in the clothing trade that complaints are made. In the first place, therefore, it is desirable to ascertain what are the conditions specially existing in that trade, and which of them are due to the introduction of the Russian Jew. The sources of information on this subject are various. In the first place there is personal examination. In the second there is the evidence of witnesses given before the House of Representatives Committee which investigated the "Sweating System," as it exists in the large cities of the United States. This inquiry was held in Washington, but the Committee at different times held sittings in New York, Chicago, and Boston in order that local inspections might be made. In the third place there are the reports of the factory inspectors for the State of New York, in which this industry is principally carried on.

From all these sources of information it appears, that in the ready-made clothing trade all the evils are found to exist which are met with in the east end of London. That is to say, in New York, Boston, Chicago, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Cincinnati, and in a less degree in a few other cities, the sweating system prevails to the fullest extent. As in England, it rests chiefly upon Jewish labour, but, so far as the chief contractors in America are concerned, they are mostly Jews. In some respects it is not surrounded by quite such bad conditions in America, but in other particulars it is worse. Rates of pay are higher, and, possibly, the standard of living a little better than in the worst shops of this kind in the east end of London; but in a considerable number of cases the sanitary conditions of the places used as workshops are much worse. During the last two years legislation has done much to mitigate some of the evils which led to the inquiry, and even now new laws are being put into operation, which are intended, so far as is possible, to abolish the domestic workshop, and to drive the manufacture of clothing back into factories, in which due measures may be taken to protect the health of the workers. To convey a clear idea of the extent and nature of the system it may be well to state that in 1890, according to the census of production, the total value of clothing manufactured in the United States was, from cities of over 20,000 population alone, nearly \$500,000,000. Of this New York city made up

\$155,000,000 ; Chicago, \$58,000,000 ; Philadelphia, \$42,000,000, and Boston, \$31,000,000 ; while Cincinnati, Baltimore, Brooklyn, San Francisco, and Rochester are each responsible for over \$10,000,000 worth. Twenty-five years ago not 25 per cent. of the clothing trade of the country was " ready made," but in 1890 it was at least 60 per cent., and since then has risen considerably. The following description of the growth of the sweating system in the United States is from the report of the House of Representatives Committee on Manufactures, 1892, and is specially interesting as showing how closely the development of this system in the States has followed the lines of its practice in this country : a development largely, if not indeed chiefly, due to the presence in each case of the special kind of human material required for such work :—

" In accord with this development, the system of manufacture has been altered and developed. Up to the time of the war, in the main a household industry, by which the women of the family provided its clothing, and in which work the neighbourhood seamstress assisted and the village tailor co-operated as an expert, the work of the larger establishments was mainly custom work, the greater part of which was done on the premises, under the close supervision of the dealer, who sold directly to the consuming public ; and to a large extent this is still the case with what is known as ' custom work.'

" The ready-made business was at first carried on under the same plan, its economies involving at first not so much a change of this system as the saving of expert judgment, by making the garments in specified assortments, instead of adapting each to a special wearer, and in the sub-division of labour and comparative cheapness of expert skill in each branch made possible by this change.

" The difference in labour conditions between the custom and ready-made business soon developed a specialization in the methods of the latter, which has come to be known as the ' sweating ' system, and which, giving opportunity for one or more middlemen between the wholesale ' manufacturer ' (so called) and the actual operative, has facilitated the cheapening of manufacture, the degradation of the labour engaged in it, and the growth or a serious menace to the general health of the country. When to this it is added that, generally speaking, in each of the important centres where clothing manufacture is carried on, three-quarters or more of the goods made there are manufactured for sale outside of the State, and that in those where its conditions are most serious the per-centage of the whole manufacture disposed of in other States is still higher, there is stated what to your Committee seems the most obvious basis for action by Congress.

" The present system is as follows :—The materials are cut, and those for each garment bunched together on the premises of the manufacturer, who expects to mark the finished product as his own. They are then distributed in large lots, frequently by thousands of garments each, to special jobbers, who are known as ' contractors,' each of whom has his own place of business, and generally his own factory, and who, though he naturally and frequently works largely for the same and a limited number of parties from year to year, is at the same time free to make contracts with any one, and is rather a specialist in some particular line of manufacture—for examples, coats, or cloaks, or pantaloons, or over-coats, or special grades or sizes of these—than the special employé of

any particular firm or firms. He may, and frequently does, live in a different city from that in which the goods are cut, the contractors for certain classes of work in certain cities, offering such inducements as attract work from other cities. In this way the manufacture, as well as the marketing of clothing, involves most complex questions of interstate commerce, the most marked feature of which is the extent to which goods nominally 'manufactured' in other parts of the country, are really made up in New York, Philadelphia, or Baltimore, notably at the first-named city, and special lines are distributed in the rural districts of each of the eastern and middle and many of the other States.

"With his acquaintance with the contractor, who receives in large lots the materials ready cut out for making, knowledge by the wholesaler of their manufacture practically ceases, his ignorance of the actual conditions of their manufacture being frequently as carefully guarded as it is generally claimed, and responsibility being sedulously disclaimed, on his part.

As a matter of fact, a large proportion—probably one-half—of the goods thus distributed for making, are made up by the employes of the contractor in factories, and under conditions which—though varying largely, according to the class of labour employed, local factory laws and their enforcement, &c.—are not such as to call for special comment, the essential of the 'sweating' process consisting in the fact that the compensation of the contractor is the margin between the price he receives and the price he pays for the making of each garment, which margin is, in the vernacular, said to be 'sweated' from the compensation of his employes.

As to a very large portion, however—so nearly one-half that it may be so regarded—the work is sub-contracted from the first contractor. Being financially responsible and having a business 'rating,' he is enabled to secure work from firms which deal only with such, and he in turn has facilities for satisfying himself as to the integrity and responsibility of others less fortunate, with whom wholesale manufacturers refuse to deal. A great part, therefore, of the work which the original contractor receives is given out to sub-contractors, each of whom employs hands—generally less than 20. As to these sub-contractors, it is the exception that a tolerable workshop is provided, or that their work is done under tolerable conditions. From them, in the first place, must be sweated the profits of the first contractor, while the sub-contractor's compensation must be sweated in turn from employes, who will work for less wages than those employed in the larger shops, and under conditions generally inconsistent with comfort and cleanliness.

"A typical and a most general example of these sub-contractor's establishments is the so-called tenement sweat shop, where the main work room is one of the two larger rooms of the tenement flat, and, overflowing into the adjacent rooms, is made to accommodate from 6 to 15, or even more, 'sweating' employes—men, women, and children—while in the other large room of the flat is the domestic headquarters of the 'sweater,' his living, sleeping, and cooking arrangements overflowing into the workroom, employes whom he boards, and who eat at their work and sleep on the goods, frequently completing the intimate connexion of living and manufacturing conditions.

"Such are the circumstances under which probably more than one-fourth of our ready-made, and somewhat (though only a small per cent.) of our custom-made clothing is made. The people engaged in the business are among those whose families are most prolific, whose sense of order and cleanliness is least developed, and by whom the distinction between living and workrooms is least comprehended, not to say, made.

The premises are generally dirty to the point of filth, though in frequent cases one wonders at their comparative good order, especially when one notes how invariably the landlord's duty is even more neglected than is that of the tenant, and the halls and staircases more filthy and out of repair than their private rooms. These so-called shops are, generally speaking, in the most squalid and densely populated parts of the city.

"This, however, is not the bottom step. To some extent from the first contractors, to a larger extent from these tenement sweaters, and to a considerable extent from each other, the heads of single families, inhabiting one or more rooms, and generally accommodating either another family as sub-tenants or a number of lodgers or boarders, secure lots of work to be made up at a price which permits the ones from whom they secure it to 'sweat' a profit from them. By this class, known as the "tenement home workers" is probably made nearly one-fourth of our ready-made clothing and a larger proportion of the branch known as "children's" clothes. Even in the custom catering trade, while there is little room left for the middleman, yet a considerable portion of it is handled by comparatively well-paid operatives who are allowed to do part of their work at home. In many cases, possibly in most of the cases in some cities, the conditions are not particularly bad.

"The great mass, however, of the tenement home work is of a medium or low grade ready-made goods, from the price for making up which frequently two, and sometimes more, middlemen's profits must be sweated. The households in which it is made include many of the most wretched in which human beings exist among us. The conditions of squalor and filth are such as in a large proportion of cases to make even inspection impossible except by one hardened to the process, while the quarters towards which this work seems to tend are the eddies into which seem to have drifted the most wretched and ignorant of our population, and from which are scattered much of the crime and more of the disease that infest our large cities. From the wholesale manufacturer, marketing from \$2,000,000 to \$3,000,000 worth of goods per year, through the middleman to the home tenement worker, the steps are steadily downward, of decreasing prominence and respectability in a business way, of decreasing comfort and compensation, the profit of each one of the line, above the wretch who toils at the bottom, being sweated from the one next below him.

"So far as concerns operatives in the contractors' shops, while there may be much to suggest as to certain instances and places, yet your committee has found no such general condition as to call for congressional consideration. In several cities their condition is being steadily bettered as the result of the work of local or State inspectors. The operatives employed in them receive the ordinary wages of other labour, skilled or unskilled, of similar grade. Woman labour is neither exceptionally prevalent nor poorly compensated, and child labour is little used, probably not more than in the same localities and in other callings it would be used without question. There are, of course, generous employers and tyrannical ones; good ones and bad ones of every kind; but their only special features worth mentioning here are perhaps, first, that the proportion of foreign-born labour is extraordinary when compared with that employed in other occupations, and that the hours are frequently, though by no means invariably, longer than those at which in similar sized shops of other industries they would be permitted to work.

"In the tenement sweat shops, however, the conditions are radically changed for the worse. In the first place, unhealthy and unclean conditions are almost universal, while those of filth and contagion are

common. The proportion of foreign-born and newly-arrived immigrants is so large that others form an inconsiderable proportion. The circumstances of the wage-workers making them more dependent in getting along in the new country to which they have come, they are more subject to hard treatment by the sub-contractor or sweater who employs them, though it must not be supposed that the latter are a particularly inhuman class. The proportion of female labour arises to a much larger proportion than in the first contractor's shops, and child labour is generally used, while as to wages they average from 25 to 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent. less than in the larger shops, and as to hours there is practically no limit, except the endurance of the employé, the work not merely being paid for by the task, but the task so adjusted as practically to drive from the shop each employé who is not willing to work to the limit of physical endurance, the hours of labour under this system rarely being less than 12, generally 13 or 14, and frequently from 15 to 18 hours in the 24.

"The lot, however, of these tenement-house shop workers is enviable compared to that of those engaged in tenement-house homework, except, however, the limited number as above noted engaged in the customs trade under a different system. The tenement-house worker is almost invariably a foreigner, generally of a short stay in this country, frequently defective in habits or physical or in mental capacity, or a woman whom the death or worthlessness of her husband leaves to support a family, which prevents her leaving her home. Here the labour is practically all foreign-born. The women are more numerous than the men, and the children are as numerous as either. The work is carried on in the one, two, or three rooms occupied by the family, which probably has, as sub-tenants or boarders, an equal number of outsiders. No pretence is made of separating the work from the household affairs, if such a term can be used to describe the existence of these people. The hours observed are simply those which endurance or necessity prescribe. Children are worked to death by the side of their parents, who are dying from overwork or disease.

"Contagious diseases, which are specially prevalent among these people, thrive along with their work, and even death may distract from their occupation only the one or the few necessary to dispose of the body. As to wages, there practically is no compensation which could be properly so called. The work has been secured by ruinous underbidding of even the tenement-house sweat shops, or by sub-contract from them, and is almost invariably piecework, involving several processes, part of which may be attended to by the head of the family, and the rest by its other members, according to their capacity. Indeed, as to this class of labour, it consists in so large part of those who are compelled to accept rather than to choose their work, that it is taken without reference to the possibility of a livelihood being made thereby, the miserable workers getting simply all that they can from it, begging as much as possible to supplement their below-starvation wages, and dying or being taken charge of by the charitable authorities when they are driven to that extreme."

It will be gathered from this statement that, so far as the element of sub-contract is concerned, the sweating system in the United States is worse than it is in England. It is also to be observed, that, while in England, during the last two or three years, there has been a considerable extension of the factory system in the clothing trade, in the United States the tendency

has been in the other direction. There is, indeed, much evidence to show that clothing contractors have limited or closed entirely their factories, because in various ways they consider they can secure greater cheapness of production, with freedom from responsibility by giving the work out to be done in small workshops or in tenements in different parts of the country. This tendency on the other hand, has caused legislative efforts to be made to drive the work back again into large establishments. In a few States this legislation has taken the form of a very strict supervision of small and domestic workshops. Massachusetts was the first State to enforce laws against tenement work, but as the neighbouring State of New York had not provided a system of inspection equally stringent; what happened was, that Boston firms simply sent their work to sub-contractors in New York, where there were thousands of Russian and Polish Jews ready to take it under the lowest sweating conditions. The State of New York has quite recently brought itself into line with Massachusetts in this matter, but, until other States do the same, the only effect of this piecemeal legislation will simply be to drive the system from one corner to another.

It is quite clear that without the supply of cheap foreign labour upon which the whole system as it at present exists is based, this mode of production cannot continue. It is possible that the system may secure some degree of cheapness in production, but any economy in this direction may be more than lost through the evils which follow in its train. It is extremely doubtful if the domestic system of manufacture results in cheaper production than the factory system. If anything is to be learned from the history of the boot and shoe trade in the United States, it is that the factory system applied to a large scale of production obtains for the consumer a cheaper and probably better article than any other method. The general boot and shoe trade of the United States is carried on in large factories. The largest establishments in the world in this line of business are to be found in the New England States. Clothing generally is at least 25 per cent. dearer in the United States than in England, but in boots and shoes there is a nearer approach to an equality of price and value than in any other article. American producers of boots and shoes will go so far as to say, that American goods in this line are both better and cheaper than in England. However this may be, the fact is clear, that in a branch of manufacture so nearly allied to tailoring, and, which is just as much suited for tenement production, the greatest cheapness to the consumer results from the adoption of the factory system, while in all that concerns the health and cleanliness of the operatives, the advantage is immeasurable.

The general characteristics of the American sweating system, as it exists in the large centres, have already been described from the report of the Committee of Investigation, but a few special

cases of which personal observation has been made will further illustrate the condition of the trade, and the workers therein, especially in New York.

Hester Street may be taken as a typical street of the Jewish quarter in New York. In many respects it is strongly suggestive of Middlesex Street in our own Whitechapel. It may not be quite so crowded, or so dilapidated as Petticoat Lane in its palmy days, before town improvement altered the aspect of its most picturesque retreats, nor is it, perhaps, so varied in the character of the merchandise exposed for sale. There is, however, a strong family resemblance to the broader Middlesex Street into which the old lane has expanded. The Whitechapel Street is, however, a cleaner and better ordered thoroughfare than its rival of New York. The sanitary conditions are altogether better, and the local authorities in London would not tolerate for a single day the filth and squalor which so generally prevail in Hester Street. Hester Street serves largely as a market for the Jewish quarter, and is so crowded with stalls, boxes, barrows, baskets, barrels, and other extemporised places of business, that locomotion is exceedingly difficult, while the heavier traffic of the mid street can only be carried on at a slow walk, so great is the crowd and the obstruction. The basement of nearly every house is used as a store of some kind, and merchants of every conceivable commodity, invariably of the lowest class in its kind, elbow each other on the sidewalks. The food materials offered for sale are of inferior quality and of dirty appearance, and lie exposed for sale side by side with the casks of overflowing ashes and other house refuse, which stand out well into the afternoon waiting for the dustman's cart. The houses on either side are large tenements, crowded to their fullest capacity, bedding and clothing of every variety of colour hanging out from windows, and over the projecting balconies. In damp weather the street is soon ankle deep in mud and redolent of rotten fruit, bad onions, and salt herrings, with an added touch of pungency from the tubs of pickled cucumbers which flank the basement doorways, and windows of the houses.

In this thoroughfare are to be found the abodes of many sweaters. One man, who, when in full work employs about 30 hands at coat making, gave through an American workwoman, he being unable to speak English, some account of his business. His workroom is on the second floor, is fairly lighted and clean, but the ante-room, through which it is approached, is in a most dirty and stinking condition, a sink and closet near the doorway being in a most uncleanly state. The female worker said that a few years ago she could earn \$8 to \$10 a week at coat making, but now does not get more than \$6. Part of the reduction is, however, due to working shorter hours. The men, none of whom understand a word of English, work from 6 a.m. to 8 p.m., with an interval of one

hour for dinner. They work in sets, under a task system which demands a turn out of eight coats per day for each set, each coat passing through seven or eight pairs of hands. The machinists, or "operators," as they are here called, are best paid, and at 25c. a coat earn \$2 a day. The baster, who does also general work, comes next, and has 22 cts. a coat. The presser gets 15 cts. a coat, and the female finisher 8 cts. Schiller works for four or five different houses, and makes second-class coats, for which he gets 6s. each. Four years ago he was getting 8s. for the same article.

The cheapest coat he makes is a 5s. coat. Formerly silks and trimmings were supplied by the wholesale house, but now he has to find these materials himself. Button-holes are sent out to be machined and cost him four cents per hole. His men work all the year round, but the busy season is in the summer quarter. There is not much lost time to be complained of, but he pays off men when trade is bad, as plenty of others can always be had.

A German Jew makes trousers in a large room, formed by clearing out the partitions and thus converting four small rooms into one, for which he pays 18 dollars a month. He makes trousers at from 12½ cents to 30 cents a pair. He employs seven machinists, all males, and double the number of other male and female workers. His two most skilled machinists can get through 40 pairs of trousers a day and can earn from \$12 to \$13 a week. The average machinist does not earn more than \$8 to \$9. The female finishers in the shop can earn \$6 a week, but those who take work out to finish, not more than \$3. The presser, &c., can earn \$4 a day of 13 hours. None of his people speak English, although many of them have been some years in the country. In his opinion the increasing immigration of Russian Jews and Italians is intensifying competition, so that during the last three or four years prices have fallen at least 10 cents a pair. It is also causing an increased amount of work to be done by people in the country, and in their own houses.

A Jewish master has a shop in this locality and employs about 100 hands in two large well-lighted rooms. His place is under factory inspection and kept in good order. This must, however, be classed as a sweating shop, because the employer takes out work from the wholesale houses, in the usual way, and makes his profit by paying less than the rates he receives for labour to his workpeople. He represents the system in perhaps its least objectionable form. He is by trade himself a skilled tailor, has worked in Prescott Street, London, and is a well-educated, intelligent Hebrew, whose ideas about the general condition of his trade and the people in it are worthy of note. Except his pressers, all his people are paid by the day. He does a good class of work, but sub-divides to such an extent, that one coat may, in the process of manufacture, pass through 40 hands. Naturally, under such a system, the rates of wages vary considerably. His workpeople are mostly Russian Jews who, with

a few exceptions, were not regularly trained tailors when they came to New York. Remuneration is therefore a question of proficiency. His pressers are mostly machine pressers and can earn from \$15 to \$20 a week, the average being about \$17. His operators of the best class may get as much as \$15 a week, but from this maximum the scale runs down to a very much lower figure for inexperienced hands doing the least important sections of work. His female workers average \$7 a week. It is not easy for a good tailor to get into this style of work, which entirely depends upon the organising of comparatively unskilled persons, each only able to do a very little portion of a garment. His foreman, when he first came, could not sew on a button, but now he is drawing \$22 a week. The employer is of opinion that his position and reputation in the trade, as a maker of good work only, gives him power to make the best conditions with the wholesale houses for which he works, and he is thus able to maintain his prices in spite of the increasing competition which prevails. The lowest price coat he makes is one at \$1½ and for overcoats he receives from \$2½ to \$3½. In the higher walks of the ready-made trade there are some mutual associations of employers, who are able to regulate prices somewhat. He admits that although prices have not come down in his case, he has now to make a much better garment for the same money. He says that among the smaller employers there is an utter want of anything like organisation, or a common understanding about prices, and the wholesale houses take advantage of this to play off one against another. Thus, as new men come into the trade, they take a sample of their work to the warehouse. They are met there with an inquiry as to price. Suppose they say a dollar, they are told that the firm cannot take any at that price, but will give 85 cents, which is what they can get the article done for by other makers. The work may be really worth a dollar, but the small master, pressed by his necessities, takes the sum offered and thus fixes the rate, not only for himself but for others who have been receiving the higher price. The concentration of Hebrew workmen in one locality he believes to be bad, not only for the general community, but for the people themselves. It is very unsanitary, because it results in congestion and overcrowding with all their attendant evils. It also has the effect of largely raising rents in the crowded districts, because property owners take advantage of this desire of the immigrants to live together. Sometimes he would ask his workpeople why they continued to live in the slums instead of going out into the suburbs, where they could get cheaper and better houses and fresh air. Do what he would he could not get them to move out, and so has to have his shop just there. He admits that this concentration is largely, if not entirely, due to what some might call religious superstition. They liked to make sure that they got the kind of food prescribed by their religion, and also to get their meals at home. It is only

by living in communities that they can make sure on these points of their religious belief. The bad side of this is that it keeps them isolated and they remain ignorant of the language, the laws, and the manners of the nation in which they live.

Forsyth Street is another thoroughfare of the Jewish quarter in which the sweating system flourishes amid the most unsanitary surroundings, and in which property owners have discovered still a newer method of increasing the density of population. This is done by filling in any blank spaces which may have been left for yards or gardens, between the backs of the houses of two adjoining streets. In other words, at the back of every street an additional row of houses has been sandwiched in. In most cases these intermediate houses are used as work-rooms, and often do duty as both dwelling places and work-rooms. In the case of one visited, the front tenement was crowded from basement to garret with residents of the poorest class. Into the few feet of back yard between the front and back house no less than five closets are crowded, and these are of the most unsatisfactory type. Standing as they do immediately under the back windows of the front house and the front windows of that at the back, they must prove sources of discomfort and ill-health to the tenants around, who have to breathe the atmosphere they pollute. On the first floor of the back house, approached by a filthy, dilapidated staircase, is found a sweating shop occupying four rooms, the largest of which is 13 feet square. There are nine machines in the place, and there are boys at work who are under the prescribed age. On the floor above is a similar establishment crowded with workers, who stitch in peril of a rotten, water-stained ceiling, which, broken in places, now threatens to fall in a mass. The house is absolutely so ruinous as to be dangerous, and yet, such as it is, a rent of \$15 a month is exacted for this floor alone. There are two miserable rooms in the basement, one about 10 feet by 8 feet, and the other, without a window, about 8 feet by 7 feet. There are here two machines, and it is evident, from bedding lying on the floor, that this is both workshop and dwelling. The rent for these is \$9½ per month. A well-dressed lady is here collecting her rents, but, much to her indignation, she is warned by a factory inspector that, under a law just come into operation, the back premises must be repaired, or a license for use as workshops will be refused and the occupant prosecuted. Further on is a sweating workshop about 20 feet square, in which are employed 24 people. There is a stable on the ground floor below, and the combination of odours arising from this cause, from the cooking of bad food, and from the pressing of damp cloth, is well nigh insupportable. The rent for this room is \$15 a month. On the floor above is a room 14 feet by 10 feet, in which 15 persons are employed. Notice is given by the inspector in all these cases that the rooms cannot be used longer as workshops, it being now illegal to have such

establishments above stables. Further on, the inspectors show a wretched old house, the closets of which are in a disgraceful condition, occupied in a similar manner, and from which a gross rental of from \$80 to \$100 per month is obtained. Under the guidance of inspectors so vigilant as Mrs. Louise Cuthell and Mr. G. A. McKay, the doubting Londoner, who thinks there is nothing on earth to equal the sweating shops of East London, is quickly undeceived. The one consoling fact is that New York is at last waking up to the gravity of the situation created by this colony of eastern Europeans in their midst. Such a state of things has caused a gradual increase in the stringency of factory inspection, and legislation is continually in demand to circumvent the varied devices by which these people, and their landlords, manage to evade the law.

That this description is not in the least overdrawn may be easily seen from a quotation or two from the report of the Sweating Committee, which will also serve to show at the same time that this state of things is not peculiar to New York. Thus, referring to a visit of inspection paid by the Committee to Chicago, in April of 1892, the report says: "This shop is located in the rear of a two storey frame building, over a stable in which there are three stalls, one horse, a dog, a spring wagon, and a large manure pile, and is reached by a narrow, dirty passage way, which leads to a rickety pair of steps, by which the shop is entered. There is a space, perhaps, 25 feet square, between the front building and the stable, which the sweater chooses to call a "yard," but which is, in reality, nothing more than a garbage receptacle. The dirty rags, ashes, and decayed garbage, together with the foul odours that issue from two unkept closets, evidence great neglect on the part of the tenant as to the healthful and sanitary conditions of his surroundings." Under examination, the proprietor of this shop said that he employs about 18 people, making ladies' cloaks. They are all Hebrews, and he estimates the Hebrew population of Chicago at 150,000. The average wages of his men he states at \$15, and of his women at \$6 per week. The hours of work he gives as being from 7 a.m. to 6 p.m., but admits they sometimes work until 9 p.m. Questioned as to the special work upon which he was then employed, he says that he now receives 80 cents. for it, whereas two years ago he was obtaining \$1.25. Wages are therefore lower, and he ascribes this to there being so many who want work. Practically the same story is told by the employer in every establishment visited.

As to Boston, Philadelphia, and New York, the evidence is all in the same direction, but it is unnecessary to quote further, as the sweating system is but an incident in the general question of immigration, without which the system could not exist. In respect to wages, however, it is important to observe that while the evidence taken by the Committee tends to show that in the larger factories and workshops not conducted under this system,

the wages are quite as good as those paid in other equally skilled employments in the same locality, the rates paid in the sweating workplaces are 25 per cent. less for the same amount of work. In the case of work done under the tenement system wages are lower still, but it is pointed out that it is the poorer and cheaper grades of goods which are made under the last-named conditions. This Committee, having considered all the facts laid before it, is of opinion that, "Since the operatives in these industries are so largely newly-arrived immigrants, and since the deterioration in their condition has been so coincident with the development of certain classes of immigration as unquestionably to be connected with them—that strict and discriminating limitation of immigration might be properly and successfully tried." The Committee, however, declines to go beyond this general recommendation as to immigration.

WORKSHOP LEGISLATION AND INSPECTION.

Necessarily there have been repeated attempts in the States chiefly concerned to mitigate these evils by legislation, and the State of Massachusetts may be said to have led the way in this direction. The difficulty of all legislation, however, which is merely local, is that it simply drives the evil from one place to another. The history of all this law making is itself sufficient to fill a volume, and its inadequacy is shown in every report issued by the factory inspectors in the States chiefly concerned in this trade. Yet in many respects the factory legislation of the States of Massachusetts and New York is much more drastic nominally than that of this country intended to deal with similar evils. In the State of Massachusetts the chief industries carried on are such as specially require State supervision being of a kind in which much female and child labour is employed. It is the chief home of the textile industries, and in these a large proportion of British labour is to be found. Possibly for this reason its factory legislation has proceeded on very similar lines to that of this country, but in so far as domestic industries are concerned the State has gone much further than we have done. In this respect legislation has been less a question of individual rights than of the public good, and it is interesting to note how far the State has been driven in this direction, by the strong influx of alien labour which was creating conditions considered dangerous to the community if left to go on unchecked. In looking at the matter from this point of view it is to be borne in mind that no State has power to make a law prohibiting, or directly restricting immigration. If it suffers from this cause it can only legislate indirectly, and must leave the National Legislature to deal with the larger question, which is a national one. The stringency of local legislation may therefore in some degree be regarded as the measure of the evils to be checked. In this way, therefore, the industrial legislation of Massachusetts and New York is of importance to this inquiry.

In Massachusetts a very stringent Act was passed in 1891, which was amended in 1892, and again altered in March of the present year, so as to increase its stringency. The Act is administered by the District Police, under which is the Department of Factory Inspection. This law requires, that within 14 days of the opening of any house or room used as a dwelling, for purposes of clothing manufacture, notice shall be given to the District Police, or to the special inspector appointed for the purpose, in order that the premises may be inspected. If found to be in good sanitary condition a license is to be given. The decision as to what are suitable premises is left with the inspectors, and they insist upon cleanliness and good sanitation being maintained. This is held to include separate waterclosets for women and men. Owners of tenement property are naturally unwilling to make the alterations thus involved, and so at once a great blow is struck at the tenement system. Stringent inspection as to the presence of infectious disease in such workshops, is also insisted upon, and this extends to imported clothing which may be suspected of having come from any place where it has been manufactured under unhealthy conditions. It is also provided that all ready-made clothing manufactured in such places, exposed for sale shall bear a tag or label on which the words "Tenement Made" shall be legibly printed. The minimum penalty for violation of the Act is \$50 and the maximum \$100. The amendment of 1893 renders liable to penalties any person who gives out work to be done in a tenement, to anyone who has not the license required by the law. The full text of this Act and the license forms necessary under it, are set forth in full in an appendix to this report. In the opinion of the Chief Inspector this law is now very effective, and is rapidly having the desired result of driving work into healthy factories, in which it can be done under the most healthful conditions. The number of Jews in Boston is now so great, that, according to the Factory Inspectors, vigorous action is necessary to keep down the evils of the sweating system. Their numbers have become so large that competition is reducing wages, and work formerly done by men at \$10 to \$14 a week is now being done by these Jews at \$7. The hours have gone up from 10 per day to 14 or 15 per day. The Jews are not skilled tailors when they come, but have to be taught on inferior work. In some shops the inspector sees an entire change of faces every three months in the low grade trade. In shops of this class wages will vary from a minimum of \$3½ a week, to a maximum of \$9 a week. Gradually the new comers improve, take better work, and are now even getting into the custom trade. All the same, the effect on wages is to reduce them, and English-speaking labour is gradually being displaced. In Boston as elsewhere the Jews are localising themselves, and from their first centre are gradually extending their circumference by squeezing out the former inhabitants. They promise in a short time to take entire pos-

session of Wards 6 and 7. In these divisions at the census of 1880 there were but 159 Russians, while at the same time there were 7,667 Irish inhabitants. Now there are but 5,532 Irish, a decrease of 2,135, which has been more than made up by an increase of 2,240 Russian Jews. Since the last census was taken the influx of Russian cheap labour into this locality has still further increased. With a liberty-loving people, the character of the legislation enacted is of itself sufficient testimony to the urgent need for severe measures, and affords ample proof of the quality of the immigration rendering such laws necessary. But if the evil has thus in some degree been counteracted in New England, the neighbouring State of New York has been somewhat behind in the movement, but is now alive to the importance of reform.

So far as the factory inspectors of the State of New York are concerned, everything possible has been done by the Department to educate public opinion as to the extent to which this unhealthy industrial system has been extending in the city, and in the State generally. In the report for 1891 the Chief Inspector calls attention to the fact, that the city of New York has become a centre to which goods are sent ready cut up for manufacture by clothing contractors in other cities in which stricter laws for the regulation of this trade prevail. This is notably the case in regard to the State of Massachusetts. The Massachusetts Legislature, as has been seen, had passed very stringent laws in regard to the inspection of all workshops and tenements in which this class of work was carried on, and made regulations by which work done in tenement houses, was to be specially labelled as a safeguard to purchasers. The chief effect of this legislation, however, seems to have been to cause the Boston contractors to send their work to be executed in New York, where there is an unlimited supply of cheap labour ready to execute it, free from the limitations prevailing in Massachusetts. A Commission of Inquiry was sent from Massachusetts to New York to investigate the facts in connection with this state of affairs. A physician of repute accompanied the party and drew up a report of his impressions embodied in a sworn affidavit. In the course of this document Dr. Stiebeling declares, that he visited No. 116, Hester Street, which he found to be "an old
 " four storey and basement brick house, in which the two lower
 " floors are used as dwellings, while the two upper floors are
 " occupied by two tailor 'bosses' with their families, boarders
 " and working hands. The third floor consists of four small
 " rooms which are filled to excess by seven sewing machines,
 " heaps of boys' pants, nine working hands, boss, wife, six
 " children, two beds and a mighty fire-place. On the fourth
 " floor two small rooms are occupied by 15 working hands, a
 " number of sewing machines, heaps of jackets and a large fire-
 " place. There are two cabinets in the rear basement one of
 " which was locked and the other open. As an old practising

" physician and a surgeon in our late war of rebellion, affiant
 " has seen many bad places, but he confesses that he has never
 " met a place in such an awful condition as this open cabinet in
 " the basement of the house, No. 116, Hester Street. It beggars
 " description." At 162, Division Street, on the fourth floor, he
 found four very small rooms occupied by five sewing machines,
 24 working hands and the family of the employer, consisting of
 wife and five children. The mother reported that within the
 last few years six of her children had died of various diseases in
 this place. The doctor further declares " that the dust, filth, and
 " dirt accumulated in the sweating dens contain the germs of
 " the prevailing infectious diseases such as diphtheria, scarlatina,
 " erysipelas and small-pox, and all the clothing manufactured
 " in these shops is impregnated with these germs and con-
 " sequently may transmit such germs to persons who handle
 " and wear it." Commenting on this statement the factory
 inspectors say: " It is no exaggeration to say that nine-tenths
 " of the sweat shops of New York City are the equal in squalor,
 " wretchedness and overcrowding with the two places mentioned,
 " and the vile state of affairs does not improve with time but is
 " becoming even worse." The report further points out that
 the swarms of inferior if not utterly objectionable immigrants
 which have come to the country within the last few years have
 to a large degree settled in New York, and that many have
 gone into the business of manufacturing clothing. By living in
 communities rent is increased. Competition has been further
 intensified by one nationality struggling for the work with the
 immigrants of another nationality; Russian Jews have no longer
 a monopoly of the sweating trade, and there are now hundreds
 of Italian sweater dens in New York where a couple of years
 ago there was scarcely one. The Italians with a still lower
 standard of living are able to under-bid the Russian Jews. In
 supplement to this statement of the Factory Inspector, it may
 be observed that another element which tends to give the
 Italians an advantage in this competition, is the larger employment
 of Italian women and children, by their husbands, in this class of
 work, than among the Jews, female labour among the latter not
 being at all extensively used. In the seventh Annual Report,
 that for 1892, of the inspector, attention is again called to the
 " abominations that have arisen in the manufacture of clothing,"
 and it is urged that, " laws should be passed which would tend
 " to at least regulate, if not entirely abolish the system which
 " permitted the deplorable evils which have already become a
 " scandal to civilization." The laws passed have not as yet
 been entirely effective, although conditions in the sweating
 trade, under which it is estimated probably 60,000 persons labour,
 have been somewhat improved. The report goes on: " The people
 " for whose direct benefit this legislation is intended, compose
 " a well-defined class who are helpless without the interposition
 " of the law. They come here in great ship loads, oftentimes

" without even a rudimentary education in their native tongues,
 " entirely ignorant of the customs of this country, without re-
 " sources, with no trade or occupation to which they can turn,
 " and are ready material to be used for profit by those who wish
 " to take advantage of their helplessness or misfortunes. There
 " seemed to be some sort of arrangement, the precise nature of
 " which it is difficult to determine, by which the Polish and Rus-
 " sian Jewish emigrants are controlled so that they may be easily
 " congregated and utilised in the clothing trades. It is certain
 " that they did not work at tailoring in the countries from
 " whence they came, and it is not possible to believe that they
 " would so unanimously adopt that occupation immediately upon
 " their arrival here were they not systematically guided into it.
 " It would be a matter of public interest to know who it is, or
 " what powerful influence is brought to bear upon them, that
 " thus diverts these people into an occupation which is no longer
 " remunerative or attractive, and confines them in dense masses
 " in foul quarters, where they must labour extraordinarily long
 " hours for a mere subsistence." The report then goes on to call
 in question the conclusion, that it is only the lower grade of
 ready-made clothing which is manufactured in these sweating
 shops. It points out that in a large per-centage of the work-
 shops there are individual cases in which disease and bodily
 contamination afflict the operatives, and that as clothing is
 known to be a ready receptacle and distributor of disease germs,
 the danger from apparel made in these shops is patent. During
 the year the inspectors have learned, that all ready-made
 clothing regardless of grade is made up in these places either
 wholly or in part. Work is so subdivided and sent out to be
 done in different establishments, that in some stage of its manu-
 facture it is sure to find its way into premises of doubtful health-
 fulness, whether the manufacturers are aware of it or not.
 There are about 350 wholesale clothing manufacturers—that
 is, firms which cut up cloth for manufacture—in the city of
 New York alone, and of these all but about ten have their
 work done in tenements and sweat shops. Even the custom
 tailors are beginning to avail themselves of this kind of cheap
 labour. It was found during the year that the police uniforms
 for one of the chief cities in the State, for which the indi-
 vidual policeman has to pay a fair price, were manufactured
 in a sweating shop. The work of the week in these shops,
 commences at from 5 to 7 o'clock on Sunday morning, and
 continues until 8 or possibly 12, and so on till Friday at six
 o'clock in the evening. Even if these people had the desire to
 be clean they have not the time. In the city of New York the
 work hours generally are shorter than elsewhere in the State in
 the same industries, but an exception is made in the case of
 those sweating shops in which 66 hours are still considered a
 week's work. During the busy season the limit of time is a ques-
 tion of endurance, and sometimes as much as 90 hours a week is
 worked.

These vigorous denunciations of the evils of a system developed by the cupidity of individuals, and based upon the ignorance and weakness of these unhappy immigrants, have had their effect in the increased stringency of legislation, and the law of 1893 brings New York quite abreast, if not, indeed, ahead of Massachusetts in the drastic nature of its laws dealing with the matter. The number of inspectors is to be increased from 18 to 24, and of these nearly one half will be females, who are found to be very effective in dealing with domestic workplaces. The New York inspection laws will be found fully set forth in an appendix. No severer condemnation of the character of the immigration from Eastern and Southern Europe into America can be found than the passage of these laws which their presence has rendered necessary. So far as the Jews are concerned, none can feel more keenly the dangers of such a situation than the leaders of the philanthropic organisations which exist in different parts of the world for the aid, direction, and regulation of Jewish immigration.

THE WORK OF JEWISH ORGANISATIONS.

It is perceived by these bodies that if something is not done to check the tendency to settle down in masses, in a limited number of localities, and in a few industries, a state of feeling will be created which may result in the entire stoppage of Jewish immigration into the United States. Therefore various, if inadequate, measures are continually being adopted, with a view to secure a more general diffusion of those who come, over a wider area and over more fields of industry. The chief reasons operating against the success of such a policy have already been explained. So vast has been the flood of Russian Jewish immigration in recent years, and so great is the feeling of benevolence of well-to-do Jews towards their less fortunate brethren, that there is hardly a town of any importance in the State which has not a Jewish Relief Association in some form or other. To understand rightly how serious a problem this immigration difficulty is to such bodies, it is necessary to study some of their operations. With the work of the Jewish Board of Guardians, and other charitable organisations in this country most people are familiar. In America such institutions are more numerous, and their fields of operation more extensive than here. In New York the chief organisations existing, are the United Hebrew Charities and the Baron de Hirsch Fund. The first of these finds it necessary to lay down a very broad programme of charitable work. It consists of a Hebrew Benevolent and Orphan Society, a Hebrew Benevolent Fuel Society, a Hebrew Relief Society, a Hebrew Lying-in Society, and a Hebrew Free Burial Fund Society. It maintains industrial schools and a technical institute, in which men and women, and boys and girls, may be taught how to work. It is to be noted in respect to this that a very large proportion of pupils

are instructed in the use of the sewing machine. It distributes relief in kind to necessitous Hebrews. It also sees to the emigration of those who are unable to get a living in the States, and has an employment agency always on the look out to find work for unemployed Jews. Even these descriptions do not fully detail the work of some of the departments, for the employment agency, in addition to its main function, also provides lodgings and food, clothing and shoes, cost of transit, and tools to its *protégés*. Medical assistance is also provided by another department. To all this were added, a few years ago, auxiliary committees, such as a Central Russian Refugee Committee, a Russian Transportation Fund, and a Committee for Ameliorating the Condition of Russian Exiles. Nor do these by any means exhaust the list of the good works of these charities. A perusal of a few of the yearly reports will discover references to many other special and occasional works of benevolence. It is sometimes contended that the Jewish immigrants are not of a pauper class, because they do not come upon the charities of the countries in which they land. This is simply because they are assisted by the charities of people of their own race. The balance sheets of these organisations show how vast is the sum expended. From whatever source it comes it is as much the sign of a helpless poverty-stricken people, so far as its recipients are concerned, as if it came through any public body. Beyond this it may even be said, that the very existence of these special funds tends to attract towards them the very class of immigrants least likely to find favour in the eyes of the American people. The extent of the operations of the Hebrew Charities, in New York alone, may be partially inferred from the following:—

STATEMENT showing INCOME, EXPENDITURE, and certain details of EXPENDITURE of UNITED HEBREW CHARITIES of NEW YORK, for a period of SIX YEARS. Compiled from the Annual Report of the Association.

Year.	Total Income.	Total Expenditure.	Total of all Forms of Poor Relief.	Total Number of Persons Relieved.	Expended on Transportation.	Persons Furnished Transportation.	Immigration.	Educational.	Providing Employment.
1887	\$ 64,214	\$ 63,705	\$ 44,690	35,734	\$ 6,790	1,025	\$ 911	\$ 3,777	\$ 2,139
1888	73,053	68,405	46,590	37,510	7,338	2,338	945	4,870	2,282
1889	76,706	78,312	54,665	42,144	9,106	2,381	1,034	4,926	2,351
1890	104,524	103,591	74,390	52,895	14,136	2,959	1,450	3,744	3,413
1891	175,743	150,015	93,661	54,259	25,647	4,553	2,003	3,333	5,051
1892	327,071	321,311	112,232	62,576	28,286	5,047	1,914	4,02	6,515

The figures of 1892 are swollen by special contributions from the Baron de Hirsch Fund, and Russian Transportation and Refugee Funds: the total expenditure for the year including \$145,200 to the Russian Refugee Committee.

The only point in this statement which requires special observation is the amount and numbers of persons shown under the head of "Transportation." These two columns represent the number of persons assisted to move from New York to other places, and the amount expended on their transportation. Many of these removals are, of course, only to other cities in the United States, but a considerable proportion of them apply to people sent back to Europe. In addition to the numbers shown in the table, during some years an almost equal number were sent as attendants in cattle boats, or forwarded by freight steamers. Of those included in the table, 236 were returned to Liverpool and London during the six years, but it is possible that many of those returning by cattle or freight boats, may also have been returned to England. In 1887, 1,082 persons, said in the report to be unfit for work, were provided with free passages to Europe by freight and cattle steamers. In 1888 the number was 1,396; in 1889, 1,118; in 1890, 1,204. During the following year the practice of sending them back in cattle ships came to an end, and the number sent was only 513. For 1892 no figures are given. The observation arising from these figures is, that a number of persons "unfit for work" is year by year admitted into the United States in spite of the close surveillance of the authorities, many of whom are sent back to European countries, in which they must be equally unfit to work. It would thus appear that the very residuum of the Jewish immigration into America, finds its way back again to Europe for more or less general distribution.

The work of the Hebrew Charities in finding employment for immigrants is deserving of mention, especially as, in doing this, it endeavours to secure their distribution over as many trades as possible. There can be no doubt that the existence of this organisation, providing as it does for new arrivals, and looking after them as if children, has greatly facilitated the entrance of many into the United States, who, if they had been left entirely to their own resources, would never have been permitted to land by the authorities. Mr. Frank, who is chief of the Employment Bureau of the Charities, has been in the service of the Committee for many years, and has perhaps a wider knowledge of the Jewish question as it affects New York, than any other person. His opinions ought therefore to carry some weight, more especially as a long official experience enables him to look at the matter from the point of view of an impartial observer rather than that of a partisan of any particular school of opinion. The following facts and opinions were expressed by him, in the course of an interview, chiefly in answer to questions. According to Mr. Frank, immigrants upon their first arrival are taken by

the officers of the association to the home for Jewish strangers, for cleansing and sanitary purposes. They are retained there until, so to speak, they have found their feet. During 1891, the stream of arrivals was so broad and constant that special receiving houses had to be arranged. The chief object of the Bureau is to find employment for new arrivals as speedily as possible. For this purpose the Committee is in constant communication with manufacturers and mill-owners in various parts of the States. There is a considerable demand for labour in the textile industries, and as the necessary skill for this is easily attained, the Committee is able to place many of the applicants for assistance. This is said to be especially the case in respect to those with families, the labour of the children being more required than that of the adults. At first, while learning the work, these people are merely paid bare subsistence rates of wages by the manufacturers. One of the difficulties of the Committee lies in the unwillingness of the people to leave New York and go into the country, even when places are found for them.

For this reason the Committee endeavours to get newcomers away from the town as soon as ever they can, because, if they once settle down, it is almost impossible to move them afterwards. Their religious beliefs have a good deal to do with this, but he knows of many cases in which those who have taken a broad view of their position and gone out into the country, have done uncommonly well, and are now living in comparative comfort. These are, however, exceptional cases. Occasionally in its work the employment agency comes into conflict with the trade unions, especially in New York, where they are numerous and strong, but, in carrying on the work of his bureau, he tries to avoid giving offence to such organisations.

In one or two cases men have been sent to establishments from which the workpeople were on strike, but the object was to get the strike committees of the unions involved, to take the people on to the union books, and thus relieve the funds of his committee. Unfortunately, in Mr. Frank's opinion, most of the Russian Jews who come into New York find their way into the sweating workshops of the ready-made clothing trade, in which they are badly paid and hardly treated. The Bureau refuses to supply men to any employer known to be a sweater. The sweating system is a growth of comparatively recent years, and it is now common for newcomers to have to work for some time for nothing, while learning how to do part of a garment. The subdivision of labour is carried out to an amazing extent, and suits which have to be retailed at \$3½ would pass through a large number of hands in the process of manufacture. Work is carried on in such shops from seven in the morning until eleven at night, amid the most squalid and unhealthy surroundings, and the general tendency of the whole system is to reduce those employed under it to a still lower level. Wages are, un-

doubtedly, says Mr. Frank, going down year by year. As to those applicants to the charity, who are skilled artizans, there is no difficulty in placing them, as there is generally a good demand for most classes of skilled labour. In addition to this the technical school affords a means of teaching trades to their people, and the committee also arranges with employers who are willing to teach an industry to suitable applicants. Their women will not go into domestic service or they could be easily provided for, but prefer to work in sweating shops at \$4 to \$5 a week rather than go out as servants at \$12 to \$14 a month and all found. The Russian Jew is, in Mr. Frank's opinion, quite a different man from the German or Austrian Jew, and is not at all so easily provided for. The Russian Jews have, however, few of the vices of the immigrants of other nationalities; they are sober, industrious, and frugal, but as a set-off to these good qualities they often desert their wives and families. This summary of the work of the Hebrew charities of New York and of the opinions of one of the chief executive officers of this association is in itself more instructive than any number of statistical tables, and ought to assist largely in the formation of opinion as to the value of the Russian Jew as an immigrant in a country in which he is an alien.

THE BARON DE HIRSCH FUND.

The Baron de Hirsch Fund is the title of another benevolent institution, established in New York for the special purpose of protecting and furthering the interests of Jewish immigrants coming into the United States from certain parts of Europe. This institution is supported entirely by the generosity of the wealthy Hebrew whose name gives its title to the fund, and deserves a more than passing notice of its work.

Baron de Hirsch is of opinion that the Jews are not merely a commercial people, and believes that they will succeed in farming, and in other arts and industries, if they have scope for their abilities. Prevented from assisting them in Russia, and perceiving that the tendency of emigration from that country was towards America, he came to the conclusion to aid practically those whom he described in his own words as "brethren in race" who had emigrated or might emigrate from the inhospitable "shores of Russia and Roumania to the Republic of the United States of America." To this end a committee or board of trustees was formed in New York to attend to the development and administration of the Baron's scheme. The first suggestion was to appropriate a sum of \$10,000 a month for the relief of immigrants from Russia and Roumania. The committee, however, eventually recommended the donation of a capital by the Baron large enough to provide for the establishment and maintenance of one or two permanent institutions, such as an agricultural and industrial settlement and a trade school. In this view the

Baron coincided, and in March 1891, after having sent the above-named monthly remittance for 12 months, a sum of \$2,400,000 was handed over under a deed of trust to the committee in New York. During 1890 and 1891 the committee worked largely on the same lines as the Hebrew charities, and made large gifts to that body. It also commenced educational work and formed auxiliary committees at Philadelphia and Baltimore. Except \$240,000 set apart for the acquirement of land for colonizing purposes, schools and other buildings, this capital was invested in securities returning interest of five per cent. per annum. The deed of trust provides for carrying out the following objects:—

1. Loans to emigrants from Russia or Roumania, actual agriculturists, settlers within the United States upon real or chattel security.
2. Provision for the transportation of emigrants, selected (after their arrival at an American port) with reference to their age, character, and capacity, to places where it is expected the conditions of the labour market or the residence of friends will tend to make them self-supporting.
3. Provision for training emigrants in a handicraft, and contributing to their support while learning such handicraft, and for furnishing them the necessary tools and implements and other assistance, to enable them to earn a livelihood.
4. Provision for improved mechanical training for adults and youths, emigrants and their children, whereby persons of industry and capacity may acquire some remunerative employment, either by the payment of apprenticeship or tuition fees, or the instruction of adults and minors in trade schools or otherwise, with contributions for temporary support.
5. Provision for instruction in the English language and in the duties and obligations of life and citizenship in the United States, and for technical and trade education and the establishment and subvention of special schools, workshops, and other suitable agencies for promoting and maintaining such instruction.
6. Provision for instruction in agricultural work and improved methods of farming and for aiding settlers with tools and implements, and the practical supervision of such instruction conducted upon suitable tracts of land and in necessary buildings.
7. Co-operation with established agencies in various sections of the United States, whose duty it shall be, in whole or in part, to furnish aid or relief and education to needy and deserving applicants coming within the classes designated herein.
8. Contributions towards the maintenance of individuals and families, selected by such corporation or corporations, while temporarily awaiting work or when settled in the new homes in which they may be established.
9. Such other and further modes of relief and such other and further contributions to education and in such departments of knowledge as the said trustees or their successors or said corporations shall from time to time decide.

This is a comprehensive scheme supported by ample funds and ought to do much, if rightly worked, to ameliorate the condition of the Russian and Roumanian Jews arriving in the United States. Its efforts in this direction are not, however, received with much favour by the American labour

unions, some of whom simply look upon it as a means of flooding the labour market with crowds of cheap, unskilled, and partially skilled labour. This much, however, is quite clear; if the immigration of such vast masses of Jews from Eastern Europe is to continue, there must be in existence some such machinery for their reception, education, and distribution, as is provided by these Hebrew Charities. It is desirable that these people shall be Americanised as speedily as possible, and to do this is one of the chief aims of the de Hirsch Fund. In the first place schools are provided for the children of the new arrivals, in which they are taught the English tongue, and are prepared for entrance into the primary schools of the city. The class-rooms are large and well ventilated. The children learn quickly, and are bright and intelligent. It is admitted, that naturally, the Russian Jew is very dirty in his habits, but the utmost cleanliness is required in the children attending the schools. The de Hirsch Baths are established specially for the cultivation of personal cleanliness. Dirty children are not allowed to attend the school. If any are found who through poverty, are not decently clad, clothing is provided for them by the Committee, and food is also provided for the very poor among the children. Special lessons and exercises are taught, intended to develop a knowledge of American institutions, and create a feeling of love for the country to which the children have come. The number on the school register is nearly 500, and during 1892, 888 children were passed out as fit for admission to the public schools, while 120 moved to the public schools of their own accord. Night classes are also held for young men and young women, which are well attended.

The Trade School of the de Hirsch Fund is an institution intended for the technical and practical instruction of boys and young men in various handicrafts. The school has been fitted with machinery and tools of all kinds, regardless of expense, and is lighted throughout by electricity. The object of the school is, not so much to teach men trades, as generally to accustom them to the use of tools. The chief branches of work pursued are: wood carving and turning, carpentry, cabinet making, and wood work generally; colouring, varnishing, staining, painting, sign and fresco painting and lettering; plumbing, metal work, engineering and machinery. Electric plating is also taught. The methods and appliances of teaching are those of a technical college, much of the work done reaching a high standard of excellence. The trades selected are those least congested, with a view to sparing the susceptibilities of the trade unions as much as possible. The average time passed by pupils in this school is about three and a half months, after which they pass out to apprenticeships in private employment, or take work as they can find it. It is somewhat discouraging to learn that only about 60 of all ages pass through this institution during the year. The educational agencies of the

Hirsch Fund owe much of their success to the vigilant oversight of Mr. Solomons, the secretary to the Committee.

JEWISH COLONISATION SCHEMES.

More important, however, than this work, useful as it may be, are the efforts made by the de Hirsch Committee and other bodies to place their immigrants upon the land as agriculturists. It will be seen at once that, if it can be shown that the Russian Jew is fitted for farming, the problem of what is to be done with him may soon be solved. There are still available, in the United States, millions of acres of good land out of which capable men may make a living, without in the slightest degree pressing upon any other man, or without disturbing the balance of labour in any particular trade. This branch of the subject, therefore, requires attention.

The most important attempt made in the direction of colonisation by the Jews, was the one which in 1882 resulted in the establishment of a Jewish colony near Vineland, in the State of New Jersey. During the great influx of Jewish immigrants from Russia in 1882, the Hebrew Immigrants' Aid Society made inquiries in different parts of the States as to the best methods of distributing these immigrants over various occupations. Several attempts to form colonies were tried, notably in Louisiana, which did not succeed for climatic reasons. At the end of 1882, or the beginning of 1883, this Committee bought 1,100 acres of land in New Jersey, which has since become known as the Alliance Colony. The land was suitable for fruit culture only. High farming was not considered desirable at first, as too much capital would be required. In some respects the colony was advantageously situated, being near to both Philadelphia and New York. The land was divided up at 15 acres per family and operations began with 70 families. While engaged in the work of clearing the land, sustenance money was advanced to the immigrants as a free gift. In the first place, the farms were sold at the cost of the buildings and land, the land being charged at cost price of \$15 an acre, repayable by instalments of 6 per cent. per annum. Houses were erected at a cost of \$125 each. After having cleared their land these colonists hired themselves out to other farmers and cultivated their own land in addition. This not only enabled them to earn a subsistence, but also taught them how to cultivate garden products for themselves. The chief products of the land are sweet potatoes, blackberries, raspberries, and strawberries. Fruit trees were also planted, but these have not yet given very good results. For a long time these colonists had a hard struggle, and until four years ago it was exceedingly difficult for them to get a living out of their land. In 1886 the colony was on the verge of failure, and the settlers would have had to give up their holdings if assistance had not been forthcoming. Mr. Samuel Montague, M.P., and

other gentlemen from London, however, visited Vineland, and upon their return recommended an advance of money from the Mansion House Fund. A sum of 2,000*l.* was sent out for the assistance of the colonists to whom advances were to be made only one half of which was to be repayable at the rate of 3 per cent. This enabled the colonists to obtain entire possession of the land. Since that time several colonists have entirely paid off their debt, and a few have sold their land to other Russian colonists, for as much as from \$1,500 to \$2,000, with which they have bought for themselves larger farms close at hand, so that a few now hold as much as 100 acres. New comers have since added to the strength of the colony, and, coming with capital, have bought land in the neighbourhood. The result of this has been to raise the price of land to such an extent that it is now selling at \$40 an acre. One difficulty with the colonists was, that their work was merely seasonal, and they had nothing with which to fill in the long winter months of idleness. In order that their time might be employed to advantage, the manufacture of clothing and cigars was commenced. The manufacture of clothing, in particular, has been developed with a fair amount of success under the management of an energetic colonist named Lubiroff. This man holds 20 acres of land, 13 acres of which he keeps in cultivation, and from his produce he can sometimes make as much as \$800 a year. Seven years ago he commenced to learn tailoring, then he taught other colonists how to make clothing, giving them out work to do in their houses. Many of them have had sewing machines supplied by benevolent friends. He then built a workshop on his farm, and during seven or eight months of the year could find fairly regular employment for his 22 machines and a considerable number of workpeople. The work to be done was sent to Alliance from wholesale firms in different parts of the country. The earnings of the people would vary from \$6 to \$15 a week, and some of the best workers amongst the girls could earn as much as \$9 a week in the busy season, these earnings going to help to buy more land. Tailoring work ceases after Easter, the people going to work on the land, and when the weather is fine it is impossible to get them to work in the shop even at \$12 a week. There are now 2,075 acres occupied by Jewish colonists, about 1,400 of which are in cultivation. The young men among the colonists are becoming American citizens. They mix with the American families living around, become members of their clubs, and take joint action with them in matters of public interest. They find a ready market for their productions, and claim that they obtain better prices than the people around them. During the fruit season they get poor people from the city to come out and pick for them. Some have as much as six acres under cultivation for blackberries alone, for which as much as \$200 for an acre and a half have been

obtained. A considerable interchange of labour goes on among the colonists, and any farmer who has a horse and plough will hire himself and equipage out at \$2½ a day. The quantity of live stock in possession of the colonists is also gradually increasing. There can be no doubt that, but for the powerful support of the Immigrant Society and the Mansion House Fund, this colony would have failed miserably in its earliest days, and it cannot be considered as a triumph of voluntary colonisation. During their early hardships many of the colonists would have left Alliance if they had been able to go elsewhere, but their very poverty kept them fixed to the spot, and almost in spite of themselves, the bulk of them have been made capable farmers and are now sending their sons out to farm on a larger scale in the Western States, while they themselves are rapidly clearing off their financial obligations to the generous friends who have assisted them. It is claimed for the colony that it may be taken as a fair instance of the ability of the Russian Jew to be turned to good account for agricultural purposes.

Under the auspices of the Baron Hirsch Fund another Jewish colony was established in 1891 at Woodbine, in New Jersey, where 5,300 acres of land were purchased. This was divided up into lots of 15 acres which were to become ultimately 30 acre lots. Ten acres were immediately to be cleared and houses built at a cost of from \$500 to \$550 each. Each tenant was to have as live stock one cow and 25 fowls, \$40 being charged for the cow and \$12½ for the fowls. They were also to be supplied with seeds and plants. The money advanced in this way they were to pay off in 12 years, at an average of \$75 a year and at 4 per cent. interest. The land was to become their own property in 1907. At the commencement there were 150 men on the land. The clearing of the estate began with American labour, but about 70 per cent. was ultimately done by settlers. There were 80 families altogether, consisting of from 500 to 600 persons. In order that work might be found during the dull season a clothing factory was built, which was leased to a New York firm and is conducted on strictly business principles. 120 to 150 people are employed in the factory. Thus in most cases part of the family would be working in the factory and part on the land. An hotel has been built, and at night the colony is lighted up by electricity. The colonists have been found very difficult to manage, and they profess to have doubts as to their leases and the terms under which they hold their land. Some of them have even gone so far as to refuse to pay for their land or acknowledge any right or claim over them on the part of the committee. The company is bound to assert its rights, the whole intention of the scheme being, that as payments are made by the settlers, the money shall be used to place more families on the land. The existence of the factory seems to have intensified the causes of dispute, inasmuch as everyone was anxious rather to work in the factory than on his

land, which could not be expected for some time to come to yield much profit. So dissatisfied have the settlers become that litigation between the company and themselves has become inevitable, and evictions have taken place. So far, therefore, this colony cannot be considered a success. But for the factory it is difficult to see how these people could have earned anything whatever. During the period of 11 months ending April 1893 wages were paid in the factory to the amount of over \$21,000. In one case two members of a family in a period of a little more than two months earned \$327, in another case two members of a family earned \$304, in another one man earned \$191. As showing the liberal spirit in which the colonists were treated, it may be pointed out that during the making of the roads and general clearing of the land for the town of Woodbine, \$18,759 was paid to farmers for their labour, while to Jewish colonists themselves \$5,153 was paid in a very short time for work done. One family with two workers, received as much as \$911. Another with three workers, received \$1,153 and another with three workers \$1,026. One single worker took \$640. Yet despite all these fair and liberal provisions for their welfare, the colonists were dissatisfied and ready to break out into open revolt because they thought they were being cheated.

These are the most notable of the efforts made to establish Jewish colonies in the United States. Others have been attempted in various directions. A number of Russian Jews established a colony at Bad Axe, in the State of Michigan, about 12 miles from Lake Huron and 135 miles south-east from Detroit. These people without due inquiry bought some wild but very good land, agreeing to pay from \$12 to \$13 per acre, each family contracting to take from 40 to 60 acres, the purchase money to be repayable over five years by five equal instalments, with interest at 7 per cent. per annum. The settlers commenced to clear the land and built themselves shanties to live in. Before any crops could be raised their capital was gone and in the early part of the winter of 1892 their state was so desperate that they had to seek assistance. They laid their case before the Hebrew Relief Society of Detroit. This society provided for their maintenance during the winter and spring and afterwards applied to the Baron Hirsch Committee for further assistance for them. The Committee advanced money to furnish each family with a milch cow, to buy implements of agriculture and horses to cultivate the land they had cleared, and arrangements were made to extend the time over which the purchase money was to be repaid. The money advanced by the Hirsch Committee is a loan to the settlers at a low rate of interest. These people are struggling hard to make their land pay, but as they have little practical knowledge and insufficient means, the ultimate result of their endeavour to become successful farmers is doubtful. Other colonies in New Jersey are those of Carmel and Rosenhayn, not far from Alliance. Rosenhayn has a population of

about 300, but at first consisted of only six families, settled there by the New York Emigrant Aid Society. There are now about 2,000 acres of land held by these colonists. Carmel began likewise on a very small scale and has now a population of about 300 people occupying less than 1,000 acres of land. In both cases the colonies are rather industrial than agricultural, and the manufacture of clothing is carried on according to the usual Jewish methods. In each instance outside help has been necessary and quite recently an advance of \$5,000 from the de Hirsch Fund was made to assist the Carmel colonists. There are German and Italian settlers in the same locality who seem to farm their land to much better advantage. Much of the ground is swampy and the Italian farmers are said to display a patience and skill in the work of reclamation not equalled, if at all attempted, by their Jewish neighbours. The Alliance colony, as may be seen, has been the most successful, but has only been rendered so by the generosity of the support it has received.

SOME SOCIAL DEFECTS OF JEWISH IMMIGRANTS.

The complications which have arisen at the de Hirsch Colony at Woodbine are similar in character to troubles which arose in the earlier years of the Alliance experiment. Such difficulties have their root in the extremely jealous and suspicious character of the Russian Jew, who, coming from a land of despotic government, is inclined to become unruly under the freer conditions of the American Republic. It is another feature of his character that when once he becomes the recipient of charity of any kind he seems rather demoralised than fortified by it, and thinks he should always have a claim to it as long as funds hold out, without responsibility or even genuine gratitude to those who give. In this respect, however, he may not be singular.

This shows a distinctly bad side to the character of this immigration, to which it may be as well to direct a little attention. The evidence to be here adduced has been obtained from various authorities in the United States, in some cases specially for the purpose of this report, in others, from information supplied by Jewish organisations themselves.

Even so far back as 1875 the Hebrew Relief Society of St. Louis was complaining of the number of beggars who were trading upon the charity of such associations, and who threatened to leave their families to be supported by the charities if they were not themselves relieved. The United Hebrew Charities of Philadelphia are second only in importance to those of New York, and are organised upon similar lines. In 1885, so numerous were the claims upon the benevolence of this body, that special steps had to be taken to insure that none but deserving applicants should be relieved. The report of the Society for 1889 referring to the immense work of investigation thus necessary, states, that of 2,458 applications for relief 249

were refused, the reasons of refusal being, that some would not work, others were confirmed paupers, and some again were impostors or tramps. Other references in the reports show that the best efforts of the Committee did not satisfy the applicants for assistance, who were as much discontented as though absolute rights were refused to them. Attention is also strongly called in the report of 1890 to the steadily increasing evil of husbands deserting their wives and families under circumstances which lead to the belief that there is collusion between husband and wife, in order to impose upon the charity.

Speaking on the same point the report of 1889 says :—“ How
 “ to deal with deserted wives and families, the condition so
 “ common among Russian applicants for relief, who get married
 “ before they either know or realise the sacredness and import-
 “ ance of married life ; and further, what course to pursue to
 “ bring such derelicts to their marital vows to justice, were, and
 “ are, most embarrassing questions for your Board of Govern-
 “ ment. It is an almost everyday occurrence among the people
 “ who so lately found shelter here from Russian persecution,
 “ that the Board often surmised that there was collusion between
 “ the husbands and their abandoned wives. . . . The huddling
 “ together of so many of these people in close crowded quarters,
 “ with nearly as many families in a house as there are rooms
 “ cannot help but create evil results. The sense of morality,
 “ decency, and thrift is deadened, and the proper appreciation
 “ of family life is in danger of being cast aside. The damaging
 “ effect it will have on their children is incalculable, and steps
 “ should be taken to remedy it. This society pays alone nearly
 “ \$4,000 in rent for such hovels.” Another report of this
 Association [shows that in its action in respect to strikes the
 Employment Bureau of this charity is singularly ill-advised,
 inasmuch as it supplies men to employers to replace their
 operatives who may be out on strike. These charitable asso-
 ciations are necessarily supported by capitalists, and it may
 be easily understood that they think they are doing a good and
 useful work in helping to defeat operatives on strike. Whether
 it is wise policy on the part of an organisation professing, above
 all things, a desire to Americanise its immigrants as speedily as
 possible, is more than doubtful. A common accusation made
 by the trade unions in the United States against such charities
 is, that while bringing such people as the Russian Jews into the
 country under the pretence of kinship and benevolence, their
 subscribers know how to make benevolence profitable by means
 of the supply of cheap labour which they thus obtain. As will
 hereafter appear, this idea is largely shared by American
 Hebrew working men who hold extreme opinions on the labour
 question.

The Association of Jewish Immigrants of Philadelphia was also formed to look specially after the interests of new arrivals in that city. In the report of this Society for 1889 it

is hinted that among those arriving are some that are not desirable, and intimates that means may be taken to eliminate elements which may unfavourably affect the status of the Jewish community. In nearly every large centre of population there are organisations of this kind, though, necessarily, they have most work to do in those towns which are ports of arrival for immigrants. Next to New York and Philadelphia come Baltimore and Boston, and at each of those ports there are Jewish charities.

In Pittsburg the Jewish population numbers from 3,000 to 4,000, a large proportion of whom are engaged in cigar making. This industry they carry on in small domestic workshops and make generally very low class goods. The Hebrew Charity here expends about \$10,000 a year, and was drawn upon by travelling Jews, who came for relief to such an extent that the Society was obliged to cut down this branch of expenditure. Chicago has also a numerous Jewish population many of whom have to be cared for by their co-religionists in the same way; no reports of the operations of these societies have, however, been obtained.

Large numbers also come into Detroit especially from among those who have landed at Canadian ports. In this city there is a Hebrew Relief Society of 25 years standing. Mr. Martin Butzel, president of this society, upon being questioned, gave his opinions in writing as to the Russian Jewish immigrants so far as he has been able to observe them. He states that the estimated Jewish population of Detroit is about 8,000 seventenths of whom are Poles and Russians. These are mostly tailors, cape and cloak makers, shoemakers, cigar makers, travelling salesmen, &c. The majority are tailors and cigar makers. Within the last three years the demands upon the Charity have largely increased. In Detroit they seem to get a large proportion of immigrants who are skilled mechanics, or strong, able-bodied labourers, and who are, after a few days in the city, in a position to support themselves. At the same time there come large numbers of middle-aged and elderly men, with wives younger than themselves, and having large families, who need a good deal of assistance. These, generally, are small pedlars, rag-dealers, or fruit sellers. Their children are sent out into the streets to sell newspapers, or matches, or to clean boots. If such as these apply to the Society for aid it is given only on condition that they will send their children to school. They are not a criminal class, but adhere closely to the orthodox faith, and are as closely packed in their dwellings as it is possible to be. Wife desertion is here also a common occurrence among them.

Many of them become naturalised citizens, and Mr. Butzel's hope is that the next generation will become entirely Americanised. He thinks, however, that until the old orthodox notions they have brought with them from Russia have been modified or eliminated, there is little to be expected even from the children.

Buffalo is another frontier town in which there is a large Jewish community. The number is estimated at 10,000, 4,000 being Russian as to nationality and these have mostly come into the town since 1882. Mr. Haenlin, president of the Hebrew Charity, states that the expenditure of the society is about \$3,000 a year, and as the list of subscribers is not large the strain upon those who do pay is very heavy. In his opinion the Russian Jews are a difficult class to deal with. They are the most persistent beggars, and are never satisfied with what they receive. They are always trying to impose upon the funds. Whatever they get they want more. The man who commences as a pedlar first wants a barrow from the Society, then after awhile he wants a horse and cart, and never seems to think he should try to get these things for himself. The expenditure on tools for workmen is very heavy. The Russian Jew, he thinks, is not addicted to crimes of violence, nor does he drink to excess, but a very considerable number are guilty of the crime of wife desertion.

JEW IN RECEIPT OF PUBLIC CHARITY.

It is generally claimed for the Russian Jew that, however heavily he may draw upon the funds of the charities of his own faith, he is not a drain upon the resources of other charitable societies. The annual reports of the Buffalo Charity Organisation Society, however, show that this is not altogether the case. In the report for 1889 it is shown that in respect to 663 cases investigated in which the nativity of the heads of families was known 139 were Polish and Russian. These nationalities were only exceeded in number on the list by Germans, 170, and United States (white) 165. In the report for the following year the relative position was shown to be the same, and in 1891, though the number had somewhat lessened, Russians and Poles were still third in point of numbers on the list of nationalities relieved.

In like manner the annual reports of the city of New York Charity Organisation Society, for the years 1889, 1891 and 1892, show per-centages of Russians and Poles (heads of families) applying for relief of 2, 1.80, and 1.72. An appendix to the reports of the same society also show, that from the Treasury of the City of New York, there is made annually a distribution of money raised by taxation and from excise, to various local charities. Among the charities receiving such grants of public money are the Hebrew Benevolent and Orphan Asylum, and the Hebrew Sheltering Guardian Society. The sums paid to these two societies have been considerable, and for the four years 1889-92 the aggregate thus paid amounts to considerably over \$500,000. In addition to this it is quite certain, that in many other of the charitable institutions of the United States, considerable numbers of Jews are to be found. For instance, at

the Conference of charities and corrections held in Denver in 1892, it was contended on behalf of the Hebrews, that they appreciate home life so well, and attend so carefully to their own people, that they very rarely have children in reform schools. The representative of the New York Juvenile Asylum, however, demonstrated, that in his institution there were more than 100 Jewish children.

The annual reports of the New York Association for the Improvement of the Condition of the Poor, also supply some information on this point. A table will be found in the Appendix showing the numbers of those relieved each year from 1887 to 1892, according to nationality and religion. The statement compiled from the reports of the Association is interesting, as showing the great variety of peoples with which charity in the United States has to deal. It also brings out in a strong light the frequently urged difficulty met with in making this inquiry, of obtaining precise information as to actual number of Jews in all the United States statistics of Immigration. Thus, for instance, it is seen, that, while in 1889 the number of Russians and Poles relieved was but 79, the section giving the religion of recipient states the number of Hebrews at 219. This is a difference of 140, indicating that a considerable number of Jews appear as belonging to nationalities other than those from which they are generally believed to come.

COMPARATIVE JEWISH PAUPERISM.

These isolated facts, however, prove little in themselves, while it must be admitted that the general statistics of pauperism for the whole of the United States show the Jewish population, so far as they can be traced, in a very favourable light, as compared with other nationalities. Fortunately, there is available on this point some very recent information, and it will be desirable in using this and other statistical information to extend the investigation to all nationalities rather than confine it exclusively to the Jews, in order that comparisons of relative pauperism may be made. On February 9th of the present year a "Census Bulletin" was issued containing statistics on this subject. From this it appears that at the census of 1890 there were 66,578 white paupers in almshouses in the United States. Of these 36,656 were born in the United States, and 27,648 were of foreign birth; of the remaining 2,274, the birthplace was unknown. Omitting those whose nativity was unknown, the percentage of native whites was 57, and of foreign whites 43. Of the 36,656 born in the United States, 21,519 had a native father and a native mother; 3,580 had both parents foreign born; 949 had one native and one foreign parent, and the parentage of 10,608 was unknown as to one or both parents. Omitting the latter the per-centage of native whites of purely

native origin was 82·61, of purely foreign origin, 13·75, and of mixed origin 3·64.

As the result of a minute inquiry into the parental origin of the paupers in the United States, the following conclusions were deduced. The total number of white paupers being 66,578, these must have had 133,156 parents of both sexes. Taking into account only 108,802 parents whose nativity is known, 41·56 of the white inmates of almshouses is of the native white element, and 58·44 per cent. of the foreign element. The actual nationalities of the 63,587 foreign parents of American paupers, and the number of each nationality, are given in the ensuing table, in which they are classed according to the elements of population:—

BIRTHPLACE OF FOREIGN PARENTS.

Birthplace of Parents.	Paupers Classed by Elements of the Population.				
	Total Parents.	Foreign born.	Parents Foreign.	One Parent Foreign.	One or both Parents unknown.
Total	63,587	55,296	7,160	949	182
Africa	2	2	—	—	—
Arabia	4	4	—	—	—
Australia	16	16	—	—	—
Austria	190	190	—	—	—
Azore Islands	7	6	—	1	—
Bavaria	20	18	2	—	—
Belgium	80	62	15	2	1
Bermuda	2	2	—	—	—
Bohemia	348	340	8	—	—
British Guiana	2	2	—	—	—
Canada, English	2,012	1,630	262	100	20
Canada, French	249	218	15	8	8
Central America	2	2	—	—	—
Chile	62	62	—	—	—
China	4	4	—	—	—
Corsica	2	2	—	—	—
Cuba	12	10	2	—	—
Denmark	241	228	5	8	—
East Indies	4	4	—	—	—
England	4,688	3,912	579	174	23
Europe	10	10	—	—	—
Finland	84	82	2	—	—

Birthplace of Parents.	Paupers Classed by Elements of the Population.				
	Total Parents.	Foreign born.	Parents Foreign.	One Parent Foreign.	One or both Parents unknown.
France	973	820	115	33	5
Germany	15,629	13,546	1,895	156	33
Greece	4	2	2	—	—
Haiti	4	4	—	—	—
Holland	300	276	27	4	2
Hungary	108	98	9	—	1
Iceland	3	2	—	—	1
Ireland	32,421	28,256	3,758	345	63
Isle of Malta	8	8	—	—	—
Isle of Man	17	12	5	—	—
Isle of St. Helena	2	2	—	—	—
Italy	317	290	23	3	1
Lapland	4	4	—	—	—
Mexico	103	84	7	11	1
Moravia	2	2	—	—	—
New South Wales	4	4	—	—	—
Norway	797	738	57	1	1
Peru	6	6	—	—	—
Poland	476	438	36	1	1
Portugal	55	54	—	1	—
Prussia	2	2	—	—	—
Roumania	2	2	—	—	—
Russia	136	128	6	1	1
Sandwich Islands	4	4	—	—	—
Saxony	2	2	—	—	—
Scotland	1,302	1,150	158	75	9
South America	40	38	2	—	—
South Australia	2	2	—	—	—
Spain	32	28	1	2	1
Sweden	1,363	1,292	65	7	4
Switzerland	654	618	32	4	—
Syria	1	—	—	1	—
Turkey	4	4	—	—	—
Wales	590	512	68	8	2
Western Islands	2	2	—	—	—
West Indies	12	10	1	—	1
At sea	61	50	3	3	5

From this it will be seen that, in respect to inmates of almshouses in the United States, where the almshouse is the

equivalent of our workhouse, the Jews come out remarkably well, and compare favourably with any other nationality, even when reference is made to the proportions they form of the general population of the country. In addition to the above total of indoor paupers, the number on outdoor relief was 24,220, in 1890, but as to these no complete enumeration could be obtained. Under the circumstances of the immigration to the United States the results shown by the above statement are what might naturally have been anticipated. It is, however, interesting to observe the general tendency of pauperism to diminish in proportion to population. Thus, in 1880, the ratio of almshouse paupers to population was 1 to 758, while in 1890 it was but 1 to 857. Roughly it is here shown that nearly three fifths of all the paupers in the almshouses of the United States in 1890, were either persons of foreign birth, or their immediate descendants. The foreign-born paupers alone outnumber all the white native paupers whose parentage is known, whether the same be native or foreign. So far as the Jews are concerned, however, it must be admitted they come well out of this test, although it has been shown they are so largely the recipients of charity in other forms.

CRIMINALITY, INSANITY, AND DISEASE.

This is a branch of the subject as important as pauperism, if not more so. The latter may be but a casual incident in the lifetime of the individual, and have little effect either upon the person concerned or upon the community, but crime, insanity, and other forms of disease are generally far reaching in their results, and affect others than the person immediately concerned. So far, therefore, as it can be shown that foreign immigration tends to increase the proportion of criminal, insane, or otherwise unhealthy persons in a community, to that extent will such immigration be shown to be undesirable. Unfortunately there is as yet little reliable information available on these points in the United States. It has only become evident in comparatively recent years that such information would be of the highest value in determining what elements of population might be admitted into, or excluded from the country. The United States Census is generally made the means of collecting full details upon these and other subjects. In the Census of 1880 statistics were prepared so far as possible, but these are now so remote as to be practically useless, so rapid has been the growth of the alien element in the population. The Census of 1890 has been completed, and its results are regularly issued in sections dealing with special subjects, but very little on the points now under discussion has yet appeared. Census Bulletin (No. 352), issued in February last, gives some statistics as to the parentage and nativity of prisoners in the United States in 1890. The aggregate number of prisoners was 82,329, of which 57,310 were white. As to the

nativity of these white prisoners, 40,471 were born in the United States, 15,932 were born abroad, and the birthplace of 907 was unknown. Omitting those whose nativity was unknown, the per-centage of native whites is 71.75 and of foreign whites 28.25. Going into the question of parentage, however, the matter is much more complicated. Of the 40,471 whites born in the United States, 21,037 had a native father and a native mother, 12,601 had both parents foreign born, 2,281 had one native and one foreign parent, and the parentage of 3,952 is unknown as to one or both parents. Leaving out those of unknown extraction, the per-centage of white prisoners of purely native origin was 57.61, of foreign origin 34.50, and of mixed origin 7.89. The native white prisoners who were born of a native white father, and native white mother, form the purely native element in the prison population. The foreign born prisoners whose parents are both foreign constitute the purely foreign element in the prison population. Between those two elements is found a mixed element, which includes prisoners born in the United States both of whose parents were foreign born, and prisoners born in the United States one of whose parents was foreign born and one native.

The number of prisoners born in the United States who had one native parent and one parent foreign born was 2,881. Of these, 1,176 had American fathers and 1,705 had American mothers.

The number of white prisoners born in the United States but having both parents foreign born was 12,601. Of these, 11,327 had parents of the same nationality, and 1,274 had parents of different nationalities. The general conclusion arrived at is that the number of white prisoners being 57,310, these must have had 114,620 parents of both sexes. Their distribution among the elements of population and the number of parents corresponding to the number of prisoners in each element are shown in the following statement:—

SUMMARY.

Elements of the Population.	Prisoners.			Parents of—			Nativity of Parents.		
	Total.	Men.	Wo. men.	Total.	Men.	Wo. men.	Na-tive.	For- eign Born.	Un- known.
Total . . .	57,310	52,894	4,416	114,620	105,788	8,832	45,732	60,153	8,735
Both parents native . . .	21,037	20,101	936	42,074	40,202	1,872	42,074	—	—
One parent foreign . . .	2,881	2,729	152	5,762	5,458	304	2,881	2,881	—
Both parents foreign . . .	12,601	11,766	835	25,202	23,532	1,670	—	25,202	—
One or both unknown . . .	3,952	3,560	392	7,904	7,120	784	777	206	6,921
Foreign born . . .	15,932	13,869	2,063	31,864	27,738	4,126	—	31,864	—
Birthplace unknown . . .	907	869	38	1,814	1,738	76	—	—	1,814

Taking into account only the 105,885 parents whose nativity is known, 43·19 per cent. of crime committed in the United States by white men and women is chargeable to the native white element of the population and 56·81 to the foreign element. The tables which fully set forth the extent to which the different nationalities contribute to these totals are too lengthy to be quoted here, but as they are important to those desiring a full knowledge of the subject, they are given in the Appendix to this Report.

These statistics, though possessing a certain value, have the disadvantage of being so general that they give no indication of degrees of criminality. A prisoner may be a person who has committed a petty offence, hardly criminal in its essence, or may be one who has been guilty of murder. A Census Bulletin dealing with the subject of sentences of convicts in penitentiaries says: "The average sentence of a native white convict, of native parents, is 5 years and 208 days; of a foreign-born convict, "5 years and 193 days." This, however, does not clear up the difficulty, as sentences vary in different States for the same offences. Neither do they, in striking their final conclusions, take into account the proportion of the entire population which each element constitutes. Nor do they take into account in any way the fact that in the native population the proportion of young children not of criminal age is much larger than among the foreign element. They do not, either, take any note of the fact that in the foreign population there is a much larger proportion of males to females than in the native; this being another important factor in minimising the general effect of the statistical tables. Nor is it easy to extract from them exact figures as to the numbers of Jewish prisoners. Only nationalities are given in the tables, and thus Jews who may belong to various nationalities cannot easily be traced. All that can be done is to assume that under Russia the whole or nearly the whole of those shown will be Jews, and that under Poland a great many will be also Jews. There will also, doubtless, be a small proportion of Jews under Germany, Austria, and Great Britain. Such as they are the figures are given for what they are worth, and may be compared with the general population tables, also quoted in the Appendix. Most of the other criminal statistics of the United States present the same difficulty so far as the Jews are concerned—a difficulty which would partly disappear if they were entered as a separate race rather than as members of the nationality from which they may have emigrated.

The annual reports of the Police Department of the City of New York show the nativity of persons arrested during each year, but make no attempt to distinguish races, nor to connect the persons arrested with the different classes of offences shown in other tables, and which range from murder down to merely

being a suspicious person. The following statement is compiled from the reports for the years to which it refers :—

NATIVITY OF PERSONS ARRESTED.

Country.	1889.	1890.	1891.
United States - - - - -	37,159	37,660	39,626
" " (black) - - - - -	2,387	1,951	2,145
Ireland - - - - -	20,654	21,254	21,944
Germany - - - - -	9,248	9,146	8,812
England - - - - -	2,656	2,545	2,710
Scotland - - - - -	821	843	978
British Provinces - - - - -	474	520	593
Italy - - - - -	3,569	4,757	4,586
Austria - - - - -	519	607	711
Hungary - - - - -	192	231	304
Norway and Sweden - - - - -	424	526	642
Russia - - - - -	2,191	2,253	3,763
Poland - - - - -	351	371	280
Roumania - - - - -	21	38	48
All other countries - - - - -	1,534	1,854	3,002
Totals - - - - -	82,200	84,556	90,124

These figures, again, are only given for what they are worth, for, as will be at once seen, they take no account of the relation which each element of nationality bears to the total population of New York City, nor of the fact that some of the nationalities settling in comparatively small numbers in the city belong to a portion of the community in which there is generally found but a small proportion of criminals. It is, however, impossible to look at the table without being impressed by the great increase in the number of arrests for Italy and for Russia during the three years, which is certainly greater than their increase in proportion to population. As in the previous tables, the figures for Ireland are very high, and it may be as well to refer in this case to the Census tables of general population to ascertain what the relative per-centages are to the total population of a few of the more important races.

Thus, taking Ireland, the number of Irish born in New York in 1890, according to the Census returns, was 190,418, so that the per-centage of Irish arrested to total Irish population in that year was 11.22. The English population was 35,907, so that the per-centage of English arrests to English population was 7.09. The German population was 210,723 and the per-centage of arrests 4.34. The Italian population was 39,951 and the per-centage of arrests 11.90. The Russian and Polish population was 55,549 and the per-centage of arrests 4.72, though

the rise in 1891 was greater than in the other cases. The native American proportion was 4·3.

The annual reports of the Board of Police Justices for the City of New York give statistics for each year of the nativity of the persons held for trial, convicted, or committed, but only in a form which renders them useless for the purpose of full comparison, the Jewish element being included in the aggregate of "Other Countries." For some other nationalities, however, they are useful as an additional means of comparison, and a compilation of results for five years is here given :—

NATIVITY of PERSONS HELD for TRIAL, CONVICTED, or COMMITTED by CITY OF NEW YORK BOARD OF JUSTICES for FIVE YEARS, 1888-92.

Nativity.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.
United States - - - -	27,140	26,383	25,986	23,422	24,473
Ireland - - - - -	15,371	14,252	14,944	14,311	13,567
Germany - - - - -	6,240	6,444	5,778	5,207	4,808
England - - - - -	1,937	1,775	1,850	1,503	1,557
Scotland - - - - -	550	548	529	485	450
France - - - - -	377	272	320	379	451
Italy - - - - -	2,530	2,622	3,074	2,682	2,737
Other Countries - - -	3,169	3,808	3,686	6,104	5,449
Not given - - - - -	81	67	139	—	—
Totals - - - - -	57,395	56,171	56,306	54,093	53,492

This table may be said to reduce the previous table from the gross number of arrests to the stage at which mere suspicion has become certainty of offence against the law. It is unfortunate that the Jewish element cannot be distinctly traced here, as the greater part of it is included in "Other Countries," but, as in the table of arrests it is seen to have a certain relation to other countries, the proportion of Jews included under "Other Countries" in this table will probably be about the same as in the other table. This assumption, therefore, is made in making the following comparison. In this second table, dealing with the year 1890 only, as that is the year for which population figures are given, Ireland comes out with a proportion of offenders against the law of 7·88; England with 5·15; Germany with 2·74; Italy with 7·69; and Russia and Poland with 3·89.

The annual reports of the Commissioners of Prisons for the State of Massachusetts also throw a little light upon the subject of relative criminality, and there may be quoted in full the following :—

TABLE showing BIRTHPLACES of PRISONERS COMMITTED to JAILS and HOUSES OF CORRECTION during the year ending September 30, 1890.

Birthplaces.	1.—Offences against the Person.			2.—Offences against Property.			3.—Offences against Public Order, &c.			Aggregate Offences of all Classes.		
	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.	Males.	Females.	Total.
Massachusetts	445	0	451	652	23	674	4,929	347	5,276	6,026	375	6,401
Other States	168	9	177	326	17	343	2,290	206	2,505	2,793	232	3,025
British Provinces	86	4	90	157	10	167	970	129	1,099	1,213	143	1,356
Ireland	284	26	310	186	36	222	3,976	747	4,717	4,440	809	5,249
England	60	4	73	61	7	68	968	206	1,204	1,128	217	1,345
Scotland	20	1	21	27	4	31	260	69	329	307	74	381
Germany	9	—	9	11	—	11	71	3	74	91	3	94
Sweden	8	—	8	6	—	6	85	3	88	99	3	102
Norway	3	—	3	3	—	3	16	—	16	22	—	22
Miscellaneous*	49	1	50	35	—	35	150	12	162	234	13	247
Total	1,141	51	1,192	1,464	96	1,560	13,748	1,722	15,470	16,353	1,869	18,222

* Of the 247 miscellaneous, 6 were born in Arabia, 1 in Armenia, 1 in Asia, 3 at sea, 4 in Australia, 7 in Austria, 1 in Belgium, 2 in Bohemia, 4 on Cape De Vere, 3 in China, 8 in Denmark, 2 in Egypt, 1 in Europe, 2 in Fayal, 10 in Finland, 32 in France, 1 in Greece, 1 in Holland, 1 in Hungary, 1 in Isle of Guernsey, 33 in Italy, 1 in Labrador, 4 in Malta, 8 in Poland, 3 in Portugal, 17 in Russia, 1 in South America, 2 in Spain, 1 in St. Helena, 4 in Switzerland, 2 in Syria, 4 in Turkey, 28 in Wales, 26 in West Indies, and 17 unknown.

The 1892 report of the Allegheny County Workhouse, which answers to our county gaol, contains the following table showing the nativity of 4,227 prisoners committed during the year:—

United States	-	-	-	2,720
Ireland	-	-	-	681
Germany	-	-	-	250
England	-	-	-	217
Scotland	-	-	-	62
Wales	-	-	-	54
Hungary	-	-	-	39
Austria	-	-	-	49
Poland	-	-	-	32
Russia	-	-	-	25
Italy	-	-	-	23
Canada	-	-	-	24
France	-	-	-	15
Sweden	-	-	-	13
Belgium	-	-	-	4

Norway	-	-	-	-	5
Mexico	-	-	-	-	3
Switzerland	-	-	-	-	11
Denmark	-	-	-	-	3
Arabia	-	-	-	-	3
Holland	-	-	-	-	1
East Indies	-	-	-	-	1
Central America	-	-	-	-	1

This report also gives the numbers and nationalities of illiterate prisoners, and of the 597 who could neither read nor write, the distribution was as follows:—

United States	-	-	-	-	296
Ireland	-	-	-	-	156
England	-	-	-	-	27
Wales	-	-	-	-	16
Hungary	-	-	-	-	19
Poland	-	-	-	-	21
Russia	-	-	-	-	10
Italy	-	-	-	-	13
Germany	-	-	-	-	11
Austria	-	-	-	-	15
Scotland	-	-	-	-	4
Arabia	-	-	-	-	3
Switzerland	-	-	-	-	2
Belgium	-	-	-	-	2
France	-	-	-	-	2

The apparent general tendency of these statistics is to show that the Jewish immigrants form a fairly law-abiding section of the community, although the figures last quoted seem to prove that they are very illiterate in comparison with some other nationalities. Something further on this point has yet to be said, however, *see* p. 280. There only remains to be quoted on this head a few observations of the chaplain appointed by the Jewish Ministers' Association of New York to visit prisoners of their religion in several of the State prisons. Reporting as to 1891 and 1892, he says:—"The number of Jewish convicts of this State has not been considerably increased during the last two years; certainly not in proportion to the large numbers of Jewish immigrants that have flocked to our shores. Most of the Jewish convicts are young men between 16 and 30 years of age. Of these the largest number, the young Americans, have been led to vice and crime by card playing, horse betting, and other such sports; the immigrants have come into trouble through their ignorance of the laws of the country, and through the false notion they have brought along with them from Europe, that America is a country of swindlers and

“ humbugs, and that immigrants can get rich here only by fraudulent manipulations and transactions. The crimes and offences committed by Jewish convicts are mainly of a light order; yet three Jews are confined in Sing Sing, one for murder in the first degree, one for murder in the second degree, and one for manslaughter.” Then follows a sentence in the report which shows how fallacious must be all attempts to obtain exact information as to numbers of Jews through the ordinary American statistics of nationality. “In Blackwell’s Island Penitentiary there are among a total of about 950 delinquents, 83 Jewish prisoners, 77 males and 6 females. Their respective nationalities are 18 Russians, 13 Poles, 9 Austrians, 5 Hungarians, 14 Germans, 16 Americans, 2 English, 2 Swiss, 1 Roumanian, 1 French, and 2 Dutch.” The same principle applies in every one of the State prisons the chaplain visits. The obvious inference is that in all the statistics of pauperism or criminality the true number of Jewish paupers and criminals cannot possibly be ascertained. They are returned as members of all the European nationalities, thus swelling the total number of criminals and paupers of other nations while at the same time reducing their own. Further on the chaplain reveals still another element of uncertainty. “The whole number,” he says, “of Jewish prisoners in the State of New York amounts to 335-360. Their comparatively small proportion in this State, which contains the largest Jewish population of any in the Union, bears a favourable testimony to the moral and law-abiding character of our co-religionists. Less flattering, however, for our fellow believers is the proportionally large number of Jewish convicts at the Elmira Reformatory. Think of it! Among a total of 1,450 prisoners, 99 Jews; *besides 10 to 15 young men, at least, who persistently deny their Jewish descent.* This deadful number of Jewish criminals shows us plainly and unmistakably the demoralization and depravity of a certain portion of the Jewish youth of our metropolis.” He then goes on to show that these criminals are mostly New York boys. It may be at once admitted that these statistics definitely prove little or nothing, except that American statistics of nationality are singularly incomplete, if not inaccurate, and that only general conclusions can be drawn from them.

INSANITY AND GENERAL HEALTH.

This is another section of the subject about which there is, unfortunately, little trustworthy evidence up to date. The figures of the Census of 1880 are now quite inapplicable, and the figures of 1890 are not yet compiled by the Census authorities, so that nothing is at present known as to the condition in this respect of the entire Union. A little light of more or less importance may, however, be obtained from local sources. The visiting

Jewish chaplain of New York, already quoted, says, in respect to the Insane Asylum on Ward's Island, that "there is quite a large number of Jewish inmates." More specific information is supplied by the medical superintendent of the institution here referred to. He states that in 1888 the number of Jewish patients in the asylum was 50; in 1889, 64; in 1890, 67; in 1891, 82; and in 1892, 124. About the only marked change observed during the past five years is the increase of Russian immigrant cases and the Hebrew element amongst the admissions. The superintendent of the New York City Asylum for the Insane at Hart's Island furnishes the following return of Jewish inmates during the past four years:—1889, 55; 1890, 79; 1891, 88; 1892, 87. These are, however, but two asylums out of a large number, and all that the figures prove is that there is in each case, a tendency to increase in the number of Jewish insane. What relation this bears to increasing population cannot be definitely ascertained, nor is there any means furnished for comparison with other nationalities. The reports of the New York State Board of Charities, which controls public institutions of this character in the State, do not give statistics in sufficient detail for any purpose of comparison. The Pennsylvania Board of Charities, however, reports more fully upon these points, and in its report for 1891 is to be found a table which gives particulars as to nationality of patients admitted during the year. The total admissions during the year into nine State institutions was 1,726. Of these 1,247 were of American nativity, 390 were foreign, and 89 unknown. The respective contributions to this total of the nationalities of greatest importance to this inquiry are as follows:—

Austria-Hungary	-	-	-	10
England	-	-	-	46
Ireland	-	-	-	150
Scotland	-	-	-	6
Wales	-	-	-	17
Germany	-	-	-	108
Italy	-	-	-	3
Poland	-	-	-	13
Russia	-	-	-	5
Other Countries	-	-	-	32

In the State of Pennsylvania the iron and coal industries are largely carried on, and thus there is a preponderance in that State of British and German immigrants. By taking the figures of the Census of the State, however, for 1890 it may be possible to form some approximate idea of the proportional insanity of these nationalities. Thus Ireland comes out with a proportion to population of $\cdot 61$ per 1,000; England, $\cdot 35$; Scotland less than $\cdot 2$; Wales, $\cdot 45$; Germany, $\cdot 45$; Austria-Hungary, $\cdot 2$; Russia and Poland, $\cdot 42$; while the per-centage of natives is

·28. This comparison, it must be borne in mind, is only based upon the admissions into the State asylums for a single year and not upon the total number of inmates, but it is of value as showing the extent to which each of the above nationalities contributes to the sum total of Pennsylvanian insanity. As the average annual cost of maintenance for the insane in the United States is \$161 per head, this is a consideration which must weigh heavily with the authorities in dealing with the immigration problem.

It is commonly assumed in the United States that disease generally is more common among the foreign sections of their population than among natives, and that the rate of mortality among those of alien birth is higher. As yet, however, there is no evidence available in proof of this which is worthy of much consideration. As to comparative health, disease, and mortality among nationalities, there is literally nothing which may be safely quoted, or which goes beyond the region of opinion. The reports of the New York State Board of Charities might have been of service now in such a discussion if the results as to nationality were brought out in the statistical tables which record the year's work of all the State institutions. Dr. Billing, who is the chief authority in the United States on the statistics of disease and mortality, is directing the work of the Census Department on this subject, but nothing is yet published. The statistics of the 1880 Census are now too remote, and the conditions of to-day so different from those existing at that time, that no useful purpose can be served by referring to them. Nor do the annual reports of the Health Department of the city of New York throw any light on the subject. In the report for 1891 there is only one brief paragraph which can be quoted as of service to this inquiry. It is as follows:—

“Of the total of 43,659 persons who died during the year, 27,300 were natives of the United States, 6,860 of Ireland, and 4,311 natives of Germany. On the other hand, only 7,883 were of native parentage, while 11,453 were of Irish parentage, and 7,594 of German. These proportions do not differ much from those of 1890. But an indication of the great increase in the number of Russian Jews in the city lies in the fact that 515 natives of Russia died during the year, against 341 in 1890, an increase of almost exactly 50 per cent.

“Pneumonia caused the greatest number of deaths among natives of the United States or of native parentage, while among those of Irish and German nativity or parentage the most fatal disease was phthisis. The deaths from cirrhosis of the liver and hepatitis, usually attributed to intemperate habits, numbered only 45 among persons of native parentage, against 380 of foreign parentage, including 109 of Germans and 166 of Irish parentage.”

For the purposes of this report inquiries were made as to the number of Jewish inmates of a few of the public hospitals in the city of New York, and the subjoined particulars were obtained, but they prove nothing, except that a certain increasing number of Jews are year by year admitted into these institutions:—

Name of Institution.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.
Bellevue Hospital - - - -	780	765	838	896	994
Ward's Island Hospital - - -	25	28	62	97	162
Randall's Island Hospital - - -	114	141	133	170	284
Totals - - - -	919	934	1,033	1,163	1,440

A Census Bulletin containing the results of an inquiry made under the direction of Dr. Billings as to the vital statistics of the Jews is of interest in this connexion. It is necessary to state, however, that the inquiry was only partial, and dealt merely with a limited number of selected cases. Returns were collected from 10,618 Jewish families representing 60,630 persons. Of these 10,618 families, the heads of 1,332 were native born, 8,263 had been in the United States 15 years and over, 221 from 10 to 15 years, 552 from 5 to 10 years, and 128 under 5 years, and for 124 the period of residence was unknown. The following are the points which are brought out with most distinctness by the inquiry, which covered a period of five years. The marriage rate among these Jews was very low, being but 7·4 per 1,000 annually, as against 18 to 22 per 1,000 among the general population. The average age at marriage was higher among the Jews than the ordinary population, and hence there is a lower Jewish birth rate. The average number of children born to each mother was 4·66. Those mothers born in the United States, however, averaged 3·56, as against 5·63 for those born in Russia and Poland, indicating a diminishing fertility for those born in the country. One effect of continued residence in America is, therefore, assumed to be to diminish the birth rate of the race, which is now lower than that of the general population. It may be pointed out, however, that this conclusion is hardly borne out by the figures supplied which tend to show, that among immigrants there is generally to be found a much larger proportion of women at child-bearing ages, than among the native population, to which cause the difference may perhaps be ascribed, rather than to lessened fertility.

The death rate of these families was very low, being 7·11 per 1,000, but the figures for each of the five years show a progressive increase, from which the conclusion is drawn that

the death rate of Jews after settling in America tends to increase. Still, even in 1889, the lightest of the five years, the rate was only about 10 per 1,000. The ages of mortality also show a much higher expectation of life for these Jews than are shown either by American or English insurance tables. It is also brought out that as to certain classes of disease—such as diphtheria, diarrhoeal diseases, diseases of the nervous system (and especially diseases of the spinal cord), from diseases of the circulatory system, urinary system, bones and joints, and of the skin—mortality is greater than in other sections of the community. On the other hand their mortality has been less from tubercular diseases, including consumption, scrofula, tabes, and hydrocephalus. The returns made by these families as to members belonging to the “defective classes” show such a small proportion as to excite a strong feeling in the mind of the compiler that all the cases have not been reported, “especially,” he says, “since European experience shows that the proportion of those classes is invariably greater among the Jews than it is among other races. For example, the proportion per 100,000 of insane and idiots reported among the Jews is 44·5, while by the United States Census of 1880 it was 336·6. For deaf mutes the Jews report 31·3 per 1,000 of population, while in 1880 for the United States it was 67·5.”

The latest summary of conclusions as to vital statistics of Jews in Europe is that given by Mr. J. Jacobs in the *Journal of the Anthropological Institute* for 1885–86, which states that Jews have a less marriage rate, less birth rate, and less death rate than their neighbours. This corresponds with the results obtained for the Jews in the United States. “If the data obtained as to births and deaths for Jews in the United States are correct, they would indicate that the birth rate among them is decreasing, and the death rate increasing with prolonged residence in the country.” This, unfortunately, is but the summary of a merely partial inquiry which may be extended to a complete and exhaustive inquiry before the Census authorities have terminated their work.

ILLITERACY.

As to the relative illiteracy of the Jews and other nationalities there is no information available for the purposes of such an inquiry, unless the amount of illiteracy in each European nation, from which immigration to the United States largely takes place, may be relied upon as giving to some extent the measure of the mischief which an alien population inflicts upon the country. For this purpose the only evidence available is a table prepared by the United States Education Department and laid before the Immigration Committee of 1891, which is given for what it is worth, as there is nothing to show on what facts it is based.

ILLITERACY IN EUROPE.

Year.	Name of Country.	Ratio.	Per Capital of Ex- penditures of the Entire Population.
1887	Saxony - - - -	0·2 per cent. of the army recruits -	\$ 2·28
1887	Wurtemberg - - - -	0·2 per cent. of the army recruits -	1·67
1887	Bavaria - - - -	0·4 per cent. of the army recruits -	—
1887	Prussia - - - -	0·6 per cent. of the army recruits -	1·88
1887	Denmark - - - -	- - - - -	1·54
1887	Sweden - - - -	- - - - -	0·61*
1887	Norway - - - -	} Less than 1 per cent. of the army recruits. }	1·06
1887	Finland (province of Russia)	- - - - -	—
1887	Switzerland - - - -	2·5 per cent. of the population above 10 years of age.	1·84
1888	England and Wales - - - -	9 per cent. of the population above 10 years of age.	1·24†
1888	Scotland - - - -	7 per cent. of the population above 10 years of age.	1·24
1886	The Netherlands - - - -	10 per cent. of the population above 10 years of age.	1·58
1886	France‡ - - - -	11 per cent. of the population above 10 years of age.	1·34
1886	Belgium - - - -	15 per cent. of the population above 10 years of age.	1·60
1886	Ireland - - - -	21 per cent. of the population above 10 years of age.	1·24†
1886	Austria - - - -	39 per cent. of the population above 10 years of age.	·22
1886	Hungary - - - -	43 per cent. of the population above 10 years of age.	·42
1886	Greece - - - -	45 per cent. of the population above 10 years of age.	·53
1886	Italy - - - -	48 per cent. of the population above six years of age.	·77
1886	Spain - - - -	63 per cent. of the population -	·33
1886	Russia - - - -	80 per cent. of the population -	·15*
1886	Servia - - - -	80 per cent. of the population -	·23*
1886	Roumania - - - -	82 per cent. of the population -	·41*
1886	Portugal - - - -	82 per cent. of the population -	·23*
1886	Bulgaria - - - -	85 per cent. of the population -	·16*
1886	Turkey - - - -	No data available - - - -	·08*
1888	United States - - - -	8 per cent. (estimated) - - - -	2·12§

* State only.

† In United Kingdom.

‡ In 1827, 53 per cent.; 1831, 48 per cent.; 1848, 32 per cent.; 1860, 30 per cent.; 1870, 19½ per cent.; 1880, 14 per cent.; 1886, 11 per cent.

§ For common schools only.

Assuming the above statement to be correct, it may be taken as a fair test of the relative illiteracy of the immigration from European countries into the United States, and is more useful for the purposes of this report than the American Census figures of 1880, or the State of Massachusetts Census figures of 1885. The bulk of immigration is adult, and, therefore, the ignorance represented is of the hopeless kind which is too old for education.

The figures for Eastern and Southern Europe bear out the figures quoted on page 274 from the Allegheny Workhouse Criminal Statistics. If we think for a moment of the close relationship between ignorance and crime, it seems wonderful that the Jewish immigrant, measured by his illiteracy, is not much more criminal than he is found to be by a study of the criminal statistics previously referred to. Is it to be said that, while his greater ignorance is the fault of the European conditions from which he has come, his better law-abiding instincts are redeeming features in his character?

JEWISH OPINION IN AMERICA AS TO THE RUSSIAN JEW.

In the course of this report there has already been quoted a considerable body of Hebrew opinion as to the desirability of the Russian Jew as an element in the population of the United States. These opinions have, however, been used as they were found to fit in with the special point under notice. Beyond this there is available some further evidence on this part of the subject which may now be presented and taken at its apparent value. As it is drawn from exclusively Jewish sources, it may be expected to treat the Russian Jew as tenderly as possible, and not in such a way as to do him any injustice. The evidence referred to was obtained in the following way. In 1889 a committee of English Jews in London, deeply interested in emigration, addressed a circular letter to certain persons of their own faith in the principal cities of the United States, asking for information on special questions bearing on the subject. The answers received have been handed over to be used for the purposes of this report, and such abstracts of them are here produced as is necessary to give an idea of their general tone.

A Washington correspondent states that there are about 1,800 Jews in Washington, chiefly German and native, who are mostly retail dealers. The occupation of the poor Jews who have emigrated from Europe since 1882 is said to be "living on their neighbours." It is estimated that a new arrival takes two or three years before he is able to obtain remunerative employment. There is no disfavour shown towards Jews except against the lower classes.

An official of the Adams Express Company states it as his opinion, having great experience of the United States, that there are openings for Jewish immigrants as labourers, and domestic servants, out West, and in the Southern States. This correspondent also says there is no great prejudice shown against the Jews as a race.

An official of the United Hebrew Charity states that the Jewish population in New York is probably $2\frac{1}{2}$ times that of London, and the poorer element proportionately larger. Bad, he says, as are the conditions under which the London Jews live, New York is a second and even a greater London in its crowds of immi-

grants and charities. New York is no more able to cope with increased immigration than is London, and is no less willing to aid deserving cases as its records will show.

An Albany reply says there are about 550 families in that city, the poorer Jews being chiefly employed as pedlars. The best chance for new immigrants would be as tailors or shoemakers. Only those who understand a trade would be likely to make a living.

The United Jewish Charities of Rochester, New York, state that there is quite a numerous Jewish population in that city. Until 1882 the the German element was largely predominant and only a few Polish Jews were living there, but in consequence of the flow of immigration which began at that time the number of Polish and Russian Jews has very largely increased. It is thought that the occupations generally followed by new arrivals are tailoring and rag picking. The charities have many applications for relief from immigrants settled in the city, and since 1885 the association has supported over 100 families for a longer or shorter time. No disfavour was shown to Jews by the other inhabitants of the city until lately, and this was provoked by the Jews themselves, their uncleanly habits, their custom of living together in certain quarters to the exclusion of others, their litigious spirit, and their insolence, most conspicuous among the most worthless of them, has caused an animosity against them, the which, deplorable as it may be, is easily explainable. Most of the poor Jews who have emigrated from Europe since 1882 are tailors, some shoemakers, a few in general trades, but most of them, the writer is sorry to say, are pedlars, rag pickers, and rag collectors. Some are self-sustaining from the first day of their arrival, and others, equally healthy and able to work, have been a continuous burden to the community for seven or eight years. The writer advises those to come to the United States who are prompted by their own energy, who are willing and able to work, and honestly to earn a living, but protests against all assisted emigration, against admitting the lazy, the vicious, and the habitual recipients of charity upon American shores. They are a bane to the country and a curse to the Jews. The Jews have earned an enviable reputation in the United States, but this has been undermined by the influx of thousands who are not ripe for the enjoyment of liberty and equal rights, and all who mean well for the Jewish name should prevent them as much as possible from coming there. The experience of the charity teaches that organised immigration from Russia, Roumania, and other semi-barbarous countries is a mistake, and has proved a failure. It is no relief to the Jews of Russia, Poland, &c., and it jeopardises the well-being of the American Jews.

From Syracuse, New York, an answer is sent saying that that city is literally crowded with Polish and Russian immigrants who have gone there since 1882. Most of them are lazy and shiftless, and rely largely upon the charitable institutions for

relief. Emigration from Europe to the Eastern States of America is discouraged, but the Western States are said to offer opportunities for industrious settlers.

A correspondent at Newport, Rhode Island, says that there is a small Jewish community there consisting of some Russian and Polish Jews with a few native Americans, but as there are few industries carried on there, there is no opening for Jewish immigrants.

Chicago is said to have about 40,000 Jews and all kinds of German, Russian, and Polish Jews. It is estimated that about 10 per cent. are merchants, 2 per cent. clerks and employees, 5 per cent. pedlars, about 2 per cent. professional men, 5 per cent. mechanics and workmen, and the balance women and children. The poorer Jews are said to be mostly pedlars and storekeepers. No one should be encouraged to go there unless able to work as a mechanic. The Hebrew Relief Association has many applications for charity, but the Association chiefly assists people who have lived in the city, and gives but little to new comers, so that when immigrants go there they are generally thrown upon their own resources, and in many instances are a burden to the community for a good many months before they are able to make their own livelihood. In the large towns there are many applications for work by people who are unemployed. There are thousands and thousands of people without work, those who can speak the language can find work more easily than those who cannot, and it is considered detrimental to the Jews themselves and to their community to go round the streets peddling a few small articles such as matches.

From Detroit a correspondent says that that city has received its share of Jewish immigrants since 1882. It is difficult, however, to find employment for them owing to the fact that none of them are mechanics or have learnt any trade. What makes matters worse in Detroit is the fact that very few of the immigrants that came at that time, and also those who have followed since, were able or had the inclination to do a day's hard work. Gradually a few of them got into the rag peddling, other tin wares, Yankee notions, &c., and thus managed to earn a livelihood; but the majority of those that have come within the last five years are dependent upon the relief society for their support. Besides this aid they also receive some assistance during the winter months from the City Poor Commission.

A Milwaukee correspondent says there is no appreciable demand for labour in that place unless it be of a kind to which the Jews seldom turn. The Russian Jewish immigrants who have come to Milwaukee have been of a class that reflects no credit upon their brethren. There is no open hostility to the Jews in Milwaukee, but the writer would not advise any to go there.

Writing from St. Paul, Minn., a correspondent says English Jews who have a trade or profession will get along here as well

as persons belonging to other denominations, also men who understand farming. Those who will not succeed are those who do not want to work, but want to depend on charity or peddling. A great many Russian refugees have settled in the States west of St. Paul, and these have had a great deal of help from their brethren. Many of them are now as poor as ever they were, as they do not try to help themselves, but those who put their shoulder to the wheel get along well enough.

From the neighbouring city of Minneapolis it is stated that the winters are very severe and not suitable for Jews. There are about 600 Jewish families in the place nearly all selling goods in stores or peddling, the latter having of late become so great a nuisance that the city authorities were obliged to put a stop to it, thus creating much suffering and poverty.

Writing from St. Louis a correspondent says there is a community in this city of native Jews. There is also a large contingent of Russian and Polish Jews. The immigrants do not get along nearly so well as the native Jews. Their want of knowledge of the language, their habits, customs, filth, and clan-nishness, lead them to congregate in a certain locality, and forces them to seek a living as best they may, chiefly as pedlars, buyers of secondhand clothing and furniture. The trades some of them follow are glazing, tailoring, cobbling. In the writer's opinion, the judicious distribution of immigrants among the smaller cities seems advisable. Their congregation in large numbers in large cities seems detrimental to the best interests of the Jewish people, racial prejudices are engendered, mutual good-will is lessened, the worst side of the race is brought to the front, and, where want and poverty predominate, the higher attributes are lost sight of.

Another St. Louis correspondent says he finds people unwilling to employ immigrants even at less wages than native labour receives. It is considered that immigrant workmen are unfit for the mode of doing work and would be dear at any price.

In Louisville there is a Jewish community of about 550 Jewish families and 150 unattached young men. The poorer Jews of native birth or long residence are mostly retail dealers, clerks, tailors, pedlars or cigar makers. The Russian and Polish Jews to a great extent peddle, buy rags, &c.

From Galveston, Texas, it is said there are about 750 Jews, chiefly German, Russian, Polish, and American, the latter being very few in number. The poorer Jews are small storekeepers or pedlars, and immigrants have mostly done well.

A Gainsville (Texas), correspondent says that the immigrants who have gone there have been mostly pedlars or small shop-keepers. They generally buy a few goods on credit, live out of them as long as they can, then go to some other place without paying their debts, and try the same thing again. There are many applications for charitable relief by persons who receive \$2 each from the charity fund of the congregation. The writer

is of opinion that there are good openings in Texas for young married people with a knowledge of farming, who ought to go in colonies of not less than 20 families, and settle close together for mutual help, and also form a congregation under which they could live up to their religion.

In Kansas city there are said to be about 2,000 Jews who have chiefly gone there since 1882. The poorer Jews are mostly tailors, shoemakers, pedlars, small traders, and clerks. There are heavy demands made upon the charity from people who get stranded by sickness, but mostly by the thriftless and worthless.

There is no prejudice against the Jews if they behave themselves, except the innate prejudice which is subdued unless the Jew evokes it.

JEWISH IMMIGRANTS AND LABOUR ORGANISATION.

Casual reference has been made in various portions of this report, to the fact that many Jewish mechanics join the trade union of their craft. Even in these cases, however, they do not mix readily with their fellow-workers of other nationalities. As with the Jewish tailors in the East End of London, who while joining the Amalgamated Society of Tailors, form by themselves an exclusively Jewish branch of that organisation, so, with the Jews in America, they may join the trade unions of general labour but they usually seek to establish exclusively Jewish branches. Thus, in the March number of the "Carpenter," the monthly organ of the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners, it is stated that the Jewish carpenters, are organising all over the country under the Brotherhood, there being now three Hebrew unions, one at New York, one at Chicago, and one at Boston. In the opinion of Mr. McGuire, the general secretary of the Order, which has a membership of nearly 70,000, these Jewish carpenters work chiefly for employers of their own race. They make good trade unionists, but, politically, most of them are anarchists. In New York many of the Jewish workers have their trade unions, and these all throw in their lot with what may be termed the advanced party. There, as here, the labour movement has been cleft into two parties—that of the older trade unionism and its methods, and of the newer unionism with other theories and modes of action. The Jewish unions belong almost exclusively to the latter section. There are nearly 30 of these Jewish unions in New York, their total strength is quoted at about 15,000 members, and they are all affiliated to a central body called the United Hebrew Trades. A list of these unions gives a fair idea of the extent to which Jewish labour in New York is being organised, and is spreading itself out over the general field of industry. The bulk of the members of the Jewish unions are, of course, in branches of the clothing trades, the proportion in

these industries being estimated at two thirds. The principal unions are :—

The United Coat Makers.
 United Coat Operatives.
 Pants Makers.
 Vest Makers.
 Knee Pants Makers.
 Children's Jacket Makers.
 Cloak Makers' Union.
 United Brotherhood of Tailors.
 Overcoat and Sea-coat Makers.
 " Never Rip " Pants Makers.
 Pants Pressers.
 Coat Pressers.
 Cap Makers.
 Cap Blockers.
 Shirt Makers.
 Mattress Makers.
 Purse Makers.
 Liberty Musical Union.
 Jewish Chorus Union.
 Jewellers' Union.
 Tin Smiths' Union.
 Bill Posters.
 Waiters' Alliance.
 Architectural Ironworkers.
 Hebrew Typographical Union.
 Tobacco Cutters.
 Paper Makers.
 Bookbinders.

There is a vague roundness about all the figures of membership of these associations, which is suggestive of a mere paper existence not supported by actual payments or accumulated funds, and they can hardly be taken to indicate a regular and constant connexion with the union to which members profess to belong. Among their leaders are some very intelligent and capable men who try hard to educate their followers to look at the labour movement from the socialistic point of view. They profess to believe in progress by political means rather than by strikes and the other usual trade union methods. They, therefore, seek to create an independent labour party, and it is much to the credit of the consistency of Jewish trade unionists that they refuse to follow either of the great parties in American politics, holding both to be corrupt, and failing to come up to their ideal of what a political party ought to be.

The Jewish unions in New York denounce the charities because they believe that those bodies sympathise with the employing interest, and that their employment bureaux are used

as a means to supply cheap labour. Mr. Wienstein, Secretary of the United Hebrew Trades, states that the agent of the bureau sent men to a shop which he knew to be a strike shop. It may be stated as also the opinion of Mr. Wienstein, that the Jewish workers make quite as good unionists as those of other races, and are as well able to conduct and maintain a strike. The American unions are now recognising this fact, and support them when they are involved in disputes with their employers. The United Trades have their own labour organ, called the "Arbeiter Zeitung," which is said to have a circulation of 10,000 copies weekly.

In Philadelphia also the Jewish workers have made great efforts to organise themselves but with less success than in New York. In Philadelphia there is now an estimated Jewish population of 50,000, 20,000 of which are Russian. These are chiefly engaged in the clothing and cigar trades. They are learning to combine, but their past training has been severe, and they come from a land in which combination is unknown. It is, therefore, not easy for them to fall into new methods. They say that they are taunted by the American workmen for not organising and for working at low wages, but when they strike to improve their condition, they are told they are anarchists who wish to destroy the social system of the country to which they have come. Here also the Jewish workers have a labour paper, which is edited and owned by one of the original Vineland colonists.

Naturally the Russian Jew is not adapted for the ordinary methods of trade organisation. He is suspicious by nature, but among his fellows in the workshops, where the occupation is such as to permit of conversation, he will discuss for hours the socialistic ideals in which he believes. With this he is content and prefers to wait for a social revolution rather than lift a finger to improve his condition in the immediate present. Besides, membership of a trade union involves the payment of subscriptions, and he is averse to the spending of coin which is not compensated for by some immediate material advantage. As he becomes Americanised he will become more practical and less of an abstract dreamer, but this process must necessarily be slow.

OPINIONS OF LABOUR LEADERS AS TO IMMIGRATION GENERALLY.

During the inquiry made in the United States for the purposes of this report several of the chief officials of the principal labour unions were visited in order to elicit, so far as possible, the general opinion of the organised labour movement of the country in respect to alien immigration and its effects upon labour generally. As has been already pointed out no general labour programme on this subject has yet been formulated, and opinion in respect to it can only be obtained by consultation with labour leaders and from labour organs.

Mr. Samuel Gompers is president of the American Federation of Labour, which at the end of 1892 consisted of 7,031 local unions, claiming an aggregate membership of 652,300. This position Mr. Gompers has held for several years, and he may be considered the leader of the older trade unionism of the United States. He has several times given evidence on the subject of immigration before committees of the Legislature at Washington, and is well qualified to speak on behalf of the Federation of Unions he represents. In fact he believes his views on the subject are in harmony with those of the Federation generally. In his opinion immigration has produced disastrous effects in the clothing and mining industries, though many others feel it more or less directly. One of its greatest evils has been the way in which the continuity of employment in those trades has been broken up. There has also been an enormous displacement of citizen labour, and in all the large centres of industry there is an overcrowded labour market. Employers have now a practically unlimited supply of labour on which to draw. The result is that what had been previously the production of months, is now condensed into a few crowded weeks, with the result that there are frequent intervals of trade depression, not due alone to seasonal causes, but to the fact that there is so much surplus labour available. In some cases, notably that of the cigar makers, there has been a great increase of alien workers, but, as this trade is well organised, the evils are kept down. A high standard of skill is required, which tends to restrict the indiscriminate entry of new and cheap labour. An eight hours' day is a stringent law of the trade. Thus, the power of the organisation, while not keeping out alien labour, keeps down many of the evils arising therefrom and prevents new comers being unduly taken advantage of. In the badly organised trades this cannot be done, and, in some directions, native labour is suffering severely from the continuous influx of cheaper labour from countries in which a cheaper standard of living prevails. While, in his opinion, it may be necessary to restrict immigration in some cases, American workmen are reluctant to impose any restraint upon the natural right of a man to choose his own place of abode. They wish to curtail immigration without infraction of this natural right, and desire to do their utmost to put an end to all importation of aliens under contract whether actual or implied. The wholesale deportation of sections of their subjects by foreign despotisms is, in his opinion, contrary to the interests of progress. It removes from such countries a certain amount of social pressure and thus postpones the adoption of social and political reforms, which, but for this outlet, would be inevitable. At the same time, these immigrants bring with them the evils of the systems from which they have fled or have been driven. He admits that the Contract Labour Law has not been so successful as the unions anticipated, but it has at least stopped the importation

of large bodies of men to break down labour movements in America. He knows of many cases in which strikes have formerly been so broken down. As to the sweating system in its worst forms, he considers it entirely due to the influx of foreign labour from countries in which great industries are undeveloped and in which starvation wages with a low standard of living prevail. The views of Mr. Gompers as to methods of restriction are set forth in another section of this volume.

Mr. Morse, Secretary to the International Machinists Union of America, which represents several branches of the engineering trade, states that this trade is not much affected by the influx of alien labour, though it does suffer to some extent. The foreign elements chiefly affecting the engineering trade are Swedes and Germans. Little fault can be found as to their ability as workmen, but what happens is, that sometimes the immigrants are caught by agents at the landing place, and are engaged at lower rates of wages than those generally prevailing. As soon as they know enough of the language to realise that they have been deceived they stand out for the same rates as other men, but the constant succession of strangers tends to reduce the general wage rate. New comers engaged in this way are started at \$6 to \$9 a week, instead of \$15 which is the prevailing rate.

Mr. J. B. Lennon, General Secretary of the Journeymen Tailors Union of America, which has a membership of 24,000, or about one-fifth of the trade in the United States, is of opinion that the general effect of immigration is worse in the tailoring trade than in any other. There are altogether about 120,000 custom tailors in the United States, so that the union numbers about one-fifth of the trade. As far as nationalities are concerned, native Americans form about 10 per cent. of the membership of the union, Germans 30 per cent., Scandinavians 30 per cent., Jews 5 per cent., British 10 per cent., 15 per cent. being of mixed nationalities. During 1892 the immigration of men calling themselves tailors reached 80,000; 10 per cent. of this number went into the custom trade, 90 per cent. into the ready-made trade. Most of the latter were not tailors at all, but said they were. His impression is that the Hirsch Fund is used to assist them to emigrate. The tuition given at the technical school of the Hebrew Charities enables men to get into the ready-made trade, and then they gradually drift into the cheaper branches of the clothing trade generally, with the result of reducing wages. The other 10 per cent. are regular tailors, but even they tend to reduce wages, because they generally take the first employment offered regardless of the rate of wages. English tailors seldom come now to America; sometimes a few Irishmen come and sometimes a few Scotchmen. A great many Scandinavians come, but they are good tailors and stand out for the best prices. The Germans and Scandinavians are not hasty or impulsive in the matter of strikes, but if they do

come out they stand out remarkably well. The leaders in trade movements are, with few exceptions, native Americans or British. In the large cities the work is, in their trade, generally taken home, but in the smaller towns it is done in shops. There is now a strong trade movement going on in favour of all work being done in regular workshops; there is a sentiment in favour of home shops, but there is a general feeling that the evils engendered by that system are so great as to call for reform. The average wages of the tailoring trade for the last few years have been \$14 per week, but employment has been very irregular. Ten years ago wages were two dollars a week higher than now, the men were then better employed, and average prices were higher.

Mr. Wright, Secretary to the Philadelphia Garment Cutters Society, states that 90 per cent. of the clothing trade in that city is controlled by foreigners. During the last 12 years there has been considerable reduction of wages in the tailoring trade, but through good organisation the cutters have been able to improve their position. 70 per cent. of the cutters are in the organisation, wages are higher than they have been, but it is quite certain that work is now much harder. The sweating trade exists to a large extent in the Jewish quarter, everything being carried on there on the sub-contract system.

Mr. O'Keefe, editor of the Knights of Labour Journal, says, the Order does not object to immigration in the abstract, but does object to all kinds of immigration induced by false representations made by interested steamship companies or their agents.

Mr. Anderson, General Secretary of the Philadelphia Operative Bricklayers' Union with 3,600 members states, that his trade has no strong feeling against immigration. It may injure the trade here and there, but in the mass he thinks it does no harm. His trade only favours restriction to a very limited extent. A capitation tax, he thinks, would have bad results. They have found as a union, that when they tried to keep foreigners out of their union, and thus out of the trade, by a tax of 100 dollars, the plan had acted badly because it merely increased the number of non-union men. Among their members only a few hundred are foreigners, those who come from Great Britain being the best trade unionists. They are even better in this respect than native Americans, and as soon as they arrive they want to join a union. There are a few Italians in the union. Their trade does not suffer in wages, nor in other conditions of labour in consequence of immigration. They receive 45 cents an hour, and taking the year round the regulation hours are 50 per week.

Mr. P. J. MacGuire, General Secretary of the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners, says his society is divided in opinion on the subject of foreign immigration. Three to four per cent. of the members are in favour of unlimited immigration, but these are chiefly German socialists. The bulk, however, are

in favour of some measure of restriction, but are undecided as to what form it should take. Some are in favour of an educational test, others of a head tax, another section would prohibit immigration from certain countries such as Russia, Poland, Hungary, and Italy. Others, again, are in favour of suspension for a limited period for sanitary reasons. In his opinion the more thoughtful men among the members think that immigration in the past has really made the country what it is. Men of special knowledge are still wanted. Such men have developed their industries and there is still work to be done by them in the future. The Alien Labour Contract law he thinks, has done good. What employers require now in America is quantity rather than quality of work, and men of over 40 years of age going there are at a disadvantage; they may be first-rate mechanics but they have fixed ideas as to methods of doing work and do not readily fall into the American system; thus their tendency is somewhat to keep down wages. He believes that New York changes its labour population considerably every few years, men who have been there some time moving out and being replaced by new comers.

Mr. T. V. Powderly, General Master Workman of the Knights of Labour, who has been already quoted, is in favour of restriction. He says, "All residents in our crowded centres are examining into this immigration problem and they favour its restriction. That sentiment is not confined to native-born Americans, it is shared by many who were but yesterday the inmates of the noisome depths of the steerages. They were deceived by those who allured them to these shores, and they would warn others against a like fate. There is room for the immigrant in his own land. He is willing to remain there and earn his bread. He is deprived of the right to live as becomes a man on the soil of his own country. He is not welcome in a country where he must sink his manhood in taking the place of his brother for a lower wage. The railroad, coal, and land speculators together with the steamship companies are the only ones benefited by the immigration of the present day."

Mr. Powderly first began to speak and write in favour of restriction some six or seven years ago when the sentiment of the Order on the subject was opposed to him. His views now, are even stronger than formerly, and the Order, as shown by the resolution previously quoted, seems to have come round to his point of view. He declares now without hesitation, that he favours the total exclusion of all immigrants who are not self-sustaining on entering the country. He would, indeed, fix a term of ten years during which no immigrant should be permitted to land, with a view to remaining, unless he could prove that he had sufficient means to sustain himself and those depending on him for one year. He sees great danger to labour and the country at large, if the immigration question is not carefully and heroically handled in the near future. Mr. Powderly

is the most consistent and outspoken of all the labour leaders in the United States on this question.

Mr. Robert Watchorn is chief factory inspector in the important manufacturing State of Pennsylvania. In his opinion the alien element, chiefly Jewish, predominates in the clothing trades in Philadelphia. There is also a good deal of foreign labour employed in Pittsburgh and the surrounding neighbourhood. The factory inspection staff consists of one chief and six assistants, three of whom are women. For so large a State this staff is inadequate, but a Bill for its extension is before the Legislature. The law as to the inspection of workshops is as yet defective, and there is no tenement law in Philadelphia. There are often prosecutions for working children long hours and for insanitary workplaces. Seven large manufacturers have been prosecuted and since then few prosecutions have been necessary. They have no power, however, to touch domestic workshops, the evils of which are caused chiefly by immigration. The furniture trade, in his opinion, is little, if any, affected by immigrant labour. Williamsport is a great centre of the furniture manufacture, which is now almost entirely carried on in factories, so that the sweating system has not touched it.

Mr. J. Kilgallon, General Secretary of the Amalgamated Association of Iron and Steel Workers, consisting of 25,000 members, states that the immigrants coming into the iron and steel trade are chiefly British, though there are many Germans. These all make good trade unionists, and stand up for the best conditions of work. The trade is over-supplied with men, however, and large numbers are now unemployed. The average wage of the trade is about \$3 per day, although, of course, many receive a much higher rate. The organisation has expressed no opinion as to restriction of immigration, but a strong feeling is developing in favour of restriction. Personally, he is in favour of restriction, but not to such an extent as to inflict hardship upon desirable immigrants, and whom he would continue to admit.

Mr. G. W. Perkins, President of the Cigar Makers' International Union, of 30,000 members, considers that his union is one of the strongest in the United States. It is formed upon the English model and pays both friendly and trade benefits. A large number of immigrants have come into the cigar trade, and of these many are Germans, who at first are socialists, but who gradually become good trade unionists. A considerable number of Russian Jews have of late years come into the trade, but wages do not seem to have been reduced in consequence. On the contrary, they seem to have increased in the well-organised centres of the trade, whilst among the non-unionists they have decreased. The union, however, has had to work hard, and it is only by means of systematic organisation that its members have been able to improve their position. Immigrants

first arriving in large centres of the trade affect it injuriously because they take the first employment offered them without regard to what may be the standard rate of wages. From 1863 to 1873 it is considered that 15,000 cigar makers were imported. He thinks that there are about 75,000 persons who work at some kind of cigar making, but, of really skilled workers, nine-tenths are in the union. Their society has for the last two and a half years been paying unemployed benefit, and during that time at least 2½ per cent. of the membership have been on that benefit. In Chicago, the head-quarters of the union, there is some sweating in the cigar trade, and the union supplies a label for work done under conditions accepted by the society. The usual supply of labels to manufacturers being about two millions a month.

Mr. J. J. Linehan, President of the Chicago Trades and Labour Assembly, states that the Assembly has occasionally discussed the question of the alien immigration. In Chicago they have not suffered much from it and have not attempted to deal with it finally or to formulate any scheme of policy relative to it. The trades feel that many aliens are now coming into the country who are not desirable, and if it were possible they should like some process of selection to be adopted. This will be difficult, but, in some trades, there is now considerable overcrowding from this cause, and much inferior labour is being introduced.

Mr. Albert A. Piller, the organiser of the American Federation of Labour in the city of Boston, is himself of Hebrew extraction, and a cigar maker by trade. He is opposed to restriction of immigration, but is conscious that in many trades and districts a large number of undesirable immigrants are coming in. The Russian Jews he considers are an undesirable class. He is a Jew himself, but believes in organisation as the salvation of labour. It is difficult, if not impossible, to organise the Russian Jews. They are suspicious and distrustful even of each other. The only remedies they talk about for the improvement of labour are either anarchial or socialistic, and they do not care to adopt trade union methods; still he objects to restriction because it may have the effect of preventing international unionists from Great Britain from coming into the States. This, in his opinion, would be an evil, because the English workers who come to the States are the best unionists in the world, and are always in the van of labour movements. The Russian Jews who do get into the cigar trade have, in his opinion, a very bad effect, even though generally engaged on inferior work. On the other hand, those who come from western Europe, especially those who have learned their trade in England, are the best workmen and the best trade unionists. He admits that his objection to restrict immigration may be removed or modified if means can be found to shut out the undesirable elements only.

Mr. Abrahams, Secretary of the Boston district of the Cigar Makers' Society, and also of the Boston Central Labour Union, is also a Hebrew, and much opposed to unrestricted immigration. He denounces the mobilisation on America shores of 10,000 Russian Jews per month—an army which is producing the most serious results in the field of industry. He sees in the incursion of these men who have never belonged to a trade organisation a terrible menace to his wages, his trade, and his family. He gives Baron de Hirsch full credit for his generosity and benevolence, but contends that it has been again and again diverted in such a way as to supply employers, especially in the clothing trade, with cheap labour to the detriment of others, and thus to develop the sweating system. These views have been strongly expressed by him and are shared by a considerable section, if not indeed a majority, of the Boston trades of which the Central Labour Union is composed.

The Assistant Secretary of the Boot and Shoe Makers' International Union, of 8,000 members, head-quarters of Boston Mass., states that in the leather trade there has been a considerable introduction of foreign labour, and on several occasions strikes, both in the leather trade and in the boot and shoe trade, have been defeated by the introduction of Armenian labour. In his opinion, the Armenians are from every point of view a most undesirable class.

Mr. Geo. McNeil, also connected with the boot and shoe trade, and occupying a high position in the American labour movement, is in favour of restriction, and thinks the country wants a rest from immigration, and that practically it ought to be suspended for some time.

REPORTS AND RESOLUTIONS OF TRADE UNIONS AND OTHER AMERICAN ASSOCIATIONS AS TO IMMIGRATION.

The resolution of the Knights of Labour as passed at the General Assembly of their Order in 1892 has already been quoted, and it may now be desirable to place on record the views officially expressed as to immigration by some of the other associations of working men in the United States. Some of these societies have indeed gone so far as to insert special clauses on the subject in their rules and regulations. Others have taken action in various ways.

The New York State branch of the American Federation of Labour, sitting at Albany, in January of the present year, received from its special Committee on Immigration the following report :—

“REPORT OF SPECIAL COMMITTEE ON EMIGRATION.

“WHEREAS the legislative measures proposed in favour of restriction or suspension of emigration seem to be especially advocated in the interest of the labouring people, and

"WHEREAS the time and necessity has thus arrived for labour to declare its position on this all important matter of public interest; therefore,

"RESOLVED that while endorsing every effort made in favour of the restriction of the artificial flow of emigration, incensed by avaricious steamship lines and corporations desirous of overcrowding the labour market of our country with cheap, foreign hands, in order to depreciate the price of labour; and while further approving most heartily of every step made in the direction of a stricter enforcement of present legal restrictive measures and the present alien contract labour law in particular; and while believing in the necessity of greater efficiency in the administration of the Emigration Department, we nevertheless hold that extreme radical measures of restriction would be contrary to the spirit of our times and the welfare of our country. Natural and wholesome emigration has been the source of unbounded benefit to our country, and our vast natural resources are such as would easily support many times our present population if the greedy hands of speculators and monopolists would not consign our lands and resources to idleness—we therefore recommend the following additional qualifications necessary for all emigrants to protect ourselves against an invasion of possible dangerous and undesirable elements—the victims of unjust and inhuman political and social systems of Europe and elsewhere:

"1. A primary school educational test in the native language of emigrants.

"2. Stricter enforcement of the present measures to guard against criminal and pauper elements, through a greater efficiency of our foreign consular service and Emigration Department.

"3. Punishment for violation of the Alien Contract Labour Law by imprisonment, as the wealthy violators of this law can easily afford to pay the price of detection.

"4. Steamship companies to be held responsible for a term of years for the character and nature of their passengers.

"5. Stricter civil and educational qualifications for naturalisation.

"In conclusion we wish to disapprove of any attempt to make use of the quarantine health laws to debar poor people from entrance, and exempt the wealthy when cholera or other diseases do not respect particular persons. And we wish to condemn the old know-nothing sentiment which uses the emigration question as a pretext. The same spirit attempts to rise from the dead through this blind clamour to again bid defiance to the irresistible tread of industrial and social progress.

"(Signed) ALEXANDER ROSENTHAL.
R. MODEST.
W. D. WILKINS.
HENRY WEISSMAN.
HENRY WHITE.

"Del. Corregan offered the following amendment to report of Committee.

"Resolved, that every emigrant landing on our shores shall declare his or her intention to become a citizen of the United States within one year after arrival. A copy to be sent to each representative in the United States Congress and Senate.

"Adopted."

UNION 4 OF THE BROTHERHOOD OF CARPENTERS AND JOINERS
OF AMERICA IN SEPTEMBER ISSUED THE FOLLOWING
APPEAL TO ALL CITIZENS WHO FAVOUR THE EXCLUSION
OF WORTHLESS IMMIGRATION TO THE UNITED STATES.

“WHEREAS the tide of immigration to the United States of the sturdy, intelligent, and liberty-loving races of northern and western Europe has perceptibly decreased in the past few years, and in its stead has come a constantly increasing influx of the servile and degraded hordes of southern and eastern Europe and western Asia, with their crime and disease breeding adjuncts of poverty, filth, and slavish willingness to work for almost nothing and to live on less, in this land of plenty; their willingness to be watched and guarded while at work, and to be numbered like convicts, as also their racial unfitness for, and inability to achieve self-government, as shown by their history of over two thousand years; and

“As it is self-evident that all persons and races strongly imbued with superstition, and a proneness to look up to and recognise some one as their natural master, to tell them when to come and go and what to do, thereby showing their lack of individuality, are unfit for American citizenship, as their immigration to our shores would only increase the large number of similar creatures already here in this country, who have been the cause, either directly or indirectly, of nearly all the corruption and other evils affecting the municipal state and National Governments, and who are ever-ready tools in the hands of plutocrats, demagogues, and scoundrels, to subvert our liberties and rob the toilers of the products of their labour, making our country the dumping ground for the human garbage of the world;

“Now, as the Declaration of Independence was the expression of the people in the thirteen Colonies, that they not only had the right, but were thoroughly capable and proposed to set up in Government affairs for themselves. Yet how have we carried out this idea? Except in the single instance of the Chinese Exclusion Act we have acted like the foolish man who warmed the frozen viper in his bosom, which afterwards bit him; or like the man who throws open his doors and invites tramps and criminals to partake of his hospitality and to manage his affairs, and is then amazed at the increase of vice and pauperism and the corruption of his own household.

“Now all sensible and patriotic citizens must see the great necessity of speedily restricting the immigration of all persons and races, except those of kindred blood and ideas, those who are easily assimilated, and who have shown their adaptability to freedom and self-government. Only those races who have evolved nearly all that is of value in modern civilization should be admitted to this country and to the rights of citizenship, for if history teaches any lesson it is the one that the mixture of diverse and opposing races begets sterility and confusion of blood, which was the cause of the decay and overthrow of all the great empires of ancient times; therefore be it

“Resolved, that we demand the passage by Congress of an Act prohibiting the immigration to the United States, or the naturalization of all persons, except natives or the descendants of natives of the British Islands, France, Holland, Switzerland, Norway, Sweden, Denmark, and the German States, and who shall be of good moral character, mentally and physically sound, and who are not imported under contract, or are liable to become public charges, and who shall have a passport, and also

a certificate from the American consul of the district or town in which said immigrant was born, or of the locality or places wherein they have lived for the ten years preceding their application for the passport, certifying to their eligibility; and no alien or immigrant, as above specified, shall have the right to vote for candidates for Congress or presidential electors, or other federal office, unless they have naturalization papers issued by a United States court, to which they shall be entitled after having resided continuously in the United States for the five years immediately preceding their application therefor;

“Also that the consular service in the countries above named and the force of inspectors in the American ports be increased, if necessary, sufficiently to carry said law into effect; and

“That the President be empowered, during the interim of the sessions of Congress, to suspend all immigration during times of great public danger, or when he deems it necessary, to prevent the introduction of contagious or epidemic diseases.

“And we ask the co-operation of all persons and organisations who favour these ideas to do all in their power to defeat all candidates for Congress in the coming elections who will not give a written pledge to use every effort, if elected, to pass an Act effectively carrying out the same.”

The seventh General Convention of the United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners, held at St. Louis in August 1892, adopted the following resolution:—

“That while we welcome to our shores all who come with the honest intention of becoming lawful citizens, we at the same time condemn the present system which allows the importation of destitute labourers and urge organised labour everywhere to secure the enactment of more stringent emigration laws.”

The following resolutions were adopted by the Cigar Makers' International Union of America at their Convention in Indianapolis in 1891, and are now printed as part of the constitution of the Union:—

“Whereas, It has been acknowledged by the cigar makers in convention assembled, that there exists an evil in the United States which demands the attention of all organised labour, and

“Whereas, This evil exists in the fact that the lowest class of mechanics and labourers are daily emigrating to the United States from all parts of Europe, and

“Whereas, Such class of emigration is jeopardising the moral and social conditions of the people of the United States, and

“Whereas, The cigar makers in convention assembled recognise the necessity of a greater restriction to emigration than exists at present; therefore be it

“Resolved, That the Convention of the C. M. I. U. of America recommend to the executive officers of the American Federation of Labour, the various States Federation of Labour and the Executive Officers of all Trades and Labour Unions to co-operate and demand of Congress and the Federal officers of the United States the absolute necessity of placing more restriction upon the present influx of such emigration; and be it further

“Resolved, That a copy of these resolutions be forwarded to all of the aforesaid labour organisations in convention assembled.”

The Junior Order of United American Mechanics, is a benefit society with 160,000 members, and calls itself a Patriotic Fraternity. In its declaration of principles it asserts:—

“That the constant landing upon our shores of the hordes of ignorant, vicious, and lawless criminals of the Old World should be viewed with alarm by the loyal and patriotic citizens of this country.

“We affirm a warm and hearty welcome to all immigrants who desire to better their condition and become a part and parcel of our nationality, but we have not one square inch of room for the Anarchist, the Socialist or Nihilist, or for any one who is not willing to bow allegiance to that flag which is powerful enough to shield and protect them as well as us, in the exercise of all civil and religious liberty.”

The handbook of the order contains the following note on Immigration Statistics:—

“The total immigration for six months ending December 31st, 1891, is 241,162, about one half of which is from Italy, Russia, Poland and Hungary—the very worst class of immigrants, illiterate and totally unfit for citizenship in the United States.”

Another society of the same title, but older than the preceding, though with only one-fourth the membership, has a similar opinion as to immigration.

The Patriotic Order of Sons of America with 50,000 members, makes in its handbook the following declarations on the subject of immigration:—

“Within a very recent period, we have witnessed the wholesale importation of cheap foreign labour, the dumping upon our shores of the paupers and criminals of other lands, the organisation in our chief cities of bands of ignorant, illiterate and unprincipled men, few of whom can speak or understand our language, and none of whom seem to understand that the liberty which America grants and holds out to all, is a liberty regulated by law.

* * * * *

“That we favour such change in our immigration laws as will tend to prevent the importation of cheap foreign labour and exclude anarchists and dynamiters who come here, not to settle down as law-abiding citizens, but to foment strife, to trample on our institutions, to overturn our customs, to conspire against lawfully-constituted authority, to assassinate officers of the law.”

The Annual Convention of the United Garment Workers of America in November 1892, passed the following resolutions:—

“Whereas, An organisation known as the United Hebrew Charities of New York City, supported partly by certain wealthy people, and assisted by the Baron Hirsch Fund, are im-

porting large numbers of poor persecuted and deceived working people from Europe, and

“Whereas, Upon the arrival here of these poor people, instead of being assisted in being directly self-supporting through proper colonising plans or other means, are placed by the agents of the aforesaid Hebrew charities in the dens of sweaters and so-called trade schools, and taught the rudiments of various sub-branches of the tailoring trade, and then cast upon the already demoralised and over-stocked labour market; and

“Whereas, The garment workers of this country are already engaged in a severe struggle for a living amid almost unbearable conditions and fierce competition against each other to the advantage of unscrupulous masters, therefore,

“Resolved, That we, the U. G. W. of A., in convention assembled, hereby condemn the misdirected philanthropy which, instead of improving the condition of the working people, only tends to plunge them into greater misery; and further

“Resolved, That when in the face of such results the above named charities continue their demoralising work, they raise grave doubts of their sincerity and honesty of purpose, and we recommend this matter to the coming convention of the American Federation of Labour, to further recommend the same to the consideration of the Congress of the United States.”

GENERAL OPINION.

The general opinion of the country is not so easily gathered. The opinions of leading public men and eminent economic thinkers is more easily gathered, but cannot be said to possess any representative value. In the exhaustive bibliography at page 373 all the literature on the subject whether individually or officially edited is set forth, and those who wish to carry their investigation further will find there a ready guide to all that has been written about immigration.

The Populist Party, a new but growing political section in the United States has the following as one of the planks in its platform :—

Resolved,—That we condemn the fallacy of protecting American labour under the present system, which opens our ports to the pauper and criminal classes of the world and crowds out our wage-earners, and we denounce the present ineffective law against contract labour, and demand the further restriction of undesirable emigration.”

Quite recently the workmen of the State of Michigan induced one of their representatives in the national legislature to introduce a Bill containing the following provision :—

TO PROTECT AMERICAN WORKING MEN.

“Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, that no

alien who is a non-resident of the United States shall work at any mechanical trade or in any manual labour within the borders thereof. Any contract to employ said alien in said trade or labour shall be void, and any alien who engages in trade or labour prohibited by this law shall be liable to a fine of one hundred dollars or imprisonment for ninety days, at the discretion of the court before which he may be convicted."

Several States have passed laws prohibiting aliens being employed upon public works and others have decided to tax all unnaturalised foreigners. The State of Pennsylvania in March last passed laws to this effect which may be seen in full as an Appendix to this Report, and which may be taken to represent the existence of a very strong feeling in the State as to the influx of foreigners.

Of more importance, however, as an index to public feeling, is the step taken by the Bureau of Labour and Industrial Statistics of the State of Wisconsin, to elicit the opinions of employers and employed in that State on the subject of immigration. During 1885-86, the bureau sent round to employers of labour in the State, queries as to their views on immigration. A large number of replies were received, a summary of which was published in the report for 1885-86. Wisconsin is an intensely foreign State, the population being largely German. In fact in 1890 of a total foreign-born population of 519,199, nearly 260,000 were Germans, 86,000 were Scandinavians, and 66,730 were natives of Great Britain and Ireland; the total population of the State, being 1,686,880. The feeling displayed in favour of restricting immigration is therefore singular. The report says, "this bureau has discovered that in the commercial and manufacturing centres at least, the supply of labour exceeds the demand." This is a state of things which the American workmen charge the employers with continually seeking to create, and the fact that so many employers express opinions so strongly against immigration, is a striking commentary upon this statement. The summary of opinions shows, that out of 756 firms there were 104, employing 5,728 people, in favour of restriction; 170 firms, employing 6,346 people, were in favour of the exclusion of socialists, anarchists, &c.; 46 firms, employing 2,928 persons, were in favour of exclusion of paupers and criminals; 70 firms, employing 4,059 persons, were in favour of total prohibition; 31 firms, employing 1,998 persons, were in favour of a property qualification; 9 firms, employing 220 persons, preferred an educational test, and 30 firms, with 1,320 employés, approved a character qualification; 63 firms, employing 2,667, answered "No," and 272 firms, employing 14,561 persons, sent no reply. The largest industry returning a negative answer was that of pork and beef packing. In the following report, 1887-88, is recorded the result of an attempt to elicit the opinions of working men individually on the same subject, the inquiry being confined to the one query. "Does immigration injure your trade? If so, in what manner

and to what extent? To this question 869 workmen replied. 428 answered "Yes"; 291 said "No," and 150 left the answer space blank. It is said by the bureau in commenting upon the result of the two inquiries, that they elicited much general discussion, and showed that the sentiment against immigration in Wisconsin was but little more emphatic than in the United States generally. "From a naked economic standpoint," says the report, "there are two sides to this question. That in the cities, at least, immigration does depress the wages of labour, rude and partially skilled workmen feeling it the most severely, cannot be denied." . . . "It is probable that the only way of dealing practically with the difficulty is to stop all immigration for a period of five or ten years. This American population can never become a homogeneous and harmonious social and political unit so long as unrestricted immigration shall continue." Some of the opinions of the working men themselves as sent into the Bureau are instructive, and may well be allowed to close this report. A Milwaukee boxmaker says, "To illustrate the effect of immigration upon our trade, I will say, that if we should demand an increase of wages, and, in order to secure it, strike for half a day, we should find the shop full of immigrants next morning."

A caulker, Milwaukee, is of opinion that immigration injures his trade "by overstocking shipyards with cheap labour."

A very large number of carpenters send replies, mostly affirming that immigration is destroying their trade, but one man says that immigration helps the trade because it causes a demand for his labour. Another supposes it injures all trades to some extent, but says philosophically, "Let all honest men come and have a fair chance." A currier considers it injures the wages of unskilled labour in tanneries "to the extent of from 10 to 15 per cent." Labourers are almost unanimous in the opinion that immigration reduces wages and increases the amount of idle time, but one says he thinks not. "Everybody has as much right to a home in this country as I have." Some of the correspondents of the Bureau are disposed to be humorous, and a machinist says, "Yes, immigration has flooded this country with inferior workmen, who care for nothing but sundown and whiskey." A millwright says, "Immigration has caused a decrease of 75 cents. per day in wages within the last ten years. In 1876 good workmen received \$3.50 per day and now \$2.75 is considered good pay." The general effect of most of the objections is that immigration is injurious because it floods the market with cheap and inferior labour.

Upon the facts and opinions presented in this report it is unnecessary to make any comment. It is certain that, in the opinion of a large number of American people, there has been in recent years a considerable influx of undesirable immigrants into

the country. It is equally clear that no definite popular movement for the further restriction, suspension, or prohibition of alien immigration has yet taken shape. There is a vast range of difference in American opinion on the question, ranging from the extreme view on one side that there is ample room and opportunity for all who come, to the opposite view on the other side that the country is overdone with immigration, and that the process ought to be suspended or abolished. With such a conflict of ideas prevailing on the subject, it is impossible to forecast the future policy of the Legislature in respect to it.

I am, &c.

Labour Department,
Board of Trade,
June 30, 1893.

(Signed) J. BURNETT,
Chief Labour Correspondent.

APPENDIX I.

No. 1.—STATEMENT FROM MISCELLANEOUS TABLES OF FOREIGN COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES, SHOWING THE NUMBER, SEX, and NATIONALITY OF IMMIGRANTS ARRIVED IN THE UNITED STATES DURING EACH YEAR ENDING JUNE 30, FROM 1883 TO 1892, INCLUSIVE.

[M. is used to designate "male," F. to designate "female,"]

Countries.	1883.		1884.		1885.		1886.		1887.		1888.		1889.		1890.		1891.		1892.		
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	
EUROPE.																					
Austria-Hungary:																					
Bohemia	2,379	2,583	4,338	3,901	3,212	3,140	2,220	2,094	2,454	2,125	2,200	1,918	1,608	1,477	2,331	2,154	6,297	5,461	4,626	3,913	
Hungary	8,907	2,353	11,239	8,559	6,254	3,129	9,361	3,059	10,721	4,535	11,969	3,891	7,896	3,101	16,589	5,473	20,560	7,866	27,463	9,773	
Other Austria (except Poland).	7,028	3,895	8,804	4,730	7,229	4,245	7,973	3,973	13,723	6,797	18,018	7,866	13,416	6,706	21,677	8,555	21,966	8,532	24,036	10,231	
Total	18,814	8,811	24,381	12,190	16,695	10,614	19,554	9,136	26,896	13,267	32,226	13,585	22,860	11,234	40,017	16,182	48,823	22,219	56,119	24,017	
Belgium	957	463	1,039	517	1,007	646	845	465	1,670	883	2,050	1,165	1,639	923	1,719	932	2,041	996	2,835	1,468	
Denmark	6,228	4,091	5,509	3,693	3,541	2,359	3,875	2,350	5,448	3,076	5,649	3,313	5,301	3,398	5,713	3,653	6,455	4,204	6,317	4,276	
France	3,247	1,374	2,293	1,315	2,271	1,224	2,169	1,149	3,212	1,822	4,524	2,100	3,789	2,129	3,893	2,722	4,087	2,683	3,961	2,870	
Germany	111,778	83,008	103,623	76,013	68,426	56,017	46,738	37,665	61,007	45,768	61,924	47,793	54,876	44,662	50,923	41,504	63,406	50,148	72,538	59,220	
Gibraltar	—	—	3	4	—	—	2	6	3	9	10	8	5	8	5	4	8	5	2	2	
Greece	58	15	34	3	154	18	95	9	305	8	763	14	149	9	464	60	1,040	65	591	24	
Italy	28,217	3,667	12,624	3,849	9,828	3,771	15,327	5,965	37,389	10,145	41,857	9,218	17,921	6,927	40,717	11,082	58,274	14,430	45,421	13,739	
Sardinia and Sicily	5	3	33	4	36	7	13	7	53	37	349	134	852	107	135	69	2,591	850	2,014	963	

No. 1.—continued.

[M. is used to designate "male," F. to designate "female."]

Countries.	1888.		1884.		1885.		1886.		1887.		1888.		1889.		1890.		1891.		1892.		
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	
EUROPE—cont.																					
Malta	—	—	1	—	1	3	4	3	1	—	3	—	—	—	—	1	—	6	—	1	—
Netherlands	3,122	2,127	2,569	1,629	1,649	1,040	1,462	822	2,708	1,798	3,487	2,328	3,794	2,666	2,655	1,671	3,184	2,022	4,377	2,883	
Norway	13,799	9,969	9,986	6,988	7,054	5,302	7,890	4,869	10,223	5,746	11,888	6,376	7,572	5,818	6,601	4,769	7,644	4,924	8,936	5,526	
Poland	1,465	546	3,354	1,152	2,139	946	2,852	1,087	4,150	1,978	4,133	1,693	3,191	1,731	7,613	3,460	18,064	9,533	23,141	11,158	
Portugal	146	30	411	290	292	148	178	65	70	40	14	9	34	23	109	49	513	405	1,717	1,111	
Roumania	37	40	131	107	449	354	314	180	1,087	968	688	503	443	450	260	287	472	485	514	464	
Russia (except Poland)	5,476	3,710	8,137	3,717	10,103	6,500	11,207	6,102	18,541	10,403	20,575	10,681	20,088	11,801	21,097	12,050	26,879	15,266	47,482	31,812	
Finland	549	174	539	297	377	178	348	143	1,529	293	1,850	381	1,373	454	1,666	785	3,747	1,534	3,527	1,572	
Spain	205	57	235	64	271	79	261	83	341	95	411	115	411	115	619	194	690	215	790	216	
Sweden	22,916	15,361	15,459	11,093	12,461	9,757	17,019	10,732	27,359	15,477	34,762	19,936	19,919	15,496	16,532	13,100	21,746	15,134	25,104	18,143	
Switzerland	8,165	4,586	5,835	3,551	3,680	2,215	2,902	1,903	3,283	1,931	5,040	2,697	4,525	2,545	4,406	2,387	4,275	2,536	4,675	2,733	
Turkey in Europe	52	34	138	12	110	28	132	44	157	49	161	46	202	50	171	35	224	41	162	65	
United Kingdom:																					
England	38,181	24,969	33,474	22,325	23,064	19,266	30,919	18,857	45,982	26,877	50,946	31,635	41,557	26,968	34,257	22,782	32,297	21,327	30,111	19,659	
Scotland	7,007	4,852	5,294	3,766	5,617	3,609	7,534	4,542	12,133	6,568	15,475	8,982	10,968	7,598	6,883	5,208	7,318	5,239	6,708	4,312	
Ireland	41,495	39,361	31,280	32,064	25,187	26,608	24,425	25,194	35,449	32,921	38,459	35,054	33,223	32,334	26,344	26,680	27,986	27,770	27,275	28,192	
Wales	987	610	508	393	668	459	614	413	1,211	600	1,037	617	732	449	384	266	278	146	473	284	
Total	87,670	70,422	70,546	58,748	59,566	49,942	63,542	49,006	94,775	66,973	105,917	76,288	86,210	67,389	67,818	54,036	67,529	54,482	64,567	52,947	

No. 1.—continued.

[M. is used to designate "male," F. to designate "female."]

Countries.	1883.		1884.		1885.		1886.		1887.		1888.		1889.		1890.		1891.		1892.	
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.
EUROPE—cont.																				
Azores	002	405	814	412	1,031	553	648	308	799	451	1,117	485	1,253	714	1,560	882	1,330	751	563	184
Greenland, Iceland, and the Faroe Islands.	27	9	144	110	7	4	27	18	65	61	5	—	3	2	6	7	8	11	4	1
Total Europe	313,835	208,752	267,923	185,758	201,178	161,905	197,420	138,100	301,463	181,366	339,233	194,898	256,139	178,051	274,670	171,010	343,246	302,589	374,378	234,094
BRITISH NORTH AMERICAN POSSESSIONS.																				
Quebec and Ontario.	50,755	22,685	32,826	18,302	18,584	11,935	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Manitoba	683	519	737	665	805	269	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Nova Scotia	4,864	4,400	2,613	2,786	2,715	2,691	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
New Brunswick	1,145	909	1,004	895	631	502	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Prince Edward Island	398	860	160	338	101	214	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
British Columbia	1,954	407	208	36	131	23	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Newfoundland and Labrador.	178	204	56	68	97	93	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	40,257	29,984	37,694	22,980	22,564	15,727	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Mexico	377	92	290	140	238	85	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 1—continued.

[M. is used to designate "male," F. to designate "female."]

Countries,	1888.		1884.		1885.		1886.		1887.		1888.		1889.		1890.		1891.		1892.	
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.
CENTRAL AMERICA.																				
British Honduras	3	—	13	—	1	—	2	1	4	—	—	—	3	4	4	1	4	3	14	7
Central American States	6	—	7	3	20	3	23	6	13	6	54	13	62	19	110	32	185	93	194	76
Total	9	—	20	3	21	3	25	7	17	6	54	13	65	23	114	33	189	96	208	83
Bermuda	24	6	25	4	36	8	13	1	5	—	12	3	19	2	107	71	134	93	95	71
WEST INDIES.																				
Antigua	3	3	3	2	3	5	3	2	1	2	3	2	—	1	6	6	5	3	3	—
Bahamas	137	113	321	290	314	345	22	26	14	2	73	26	7	7	16	11	23	23	102	57
Barbadoes	12	6	3	—	12	15	3	2	9	7	13	13	36	20	62	38	30	17	30	16
Cuba	397	85	1,038	435	1,175	469	1,524	502	2,691	943	2,994	1,049	3,011	1,170	1,486	637	1,903	709	735	316
Curaçoa	—	—	—	—	2	1	5	3	7	5	—	—	1	—	2	1	7	—	5	—
Haiti	6	—	1	—	2	—	8	6	4	1	14	7	21	4	45	17	29	10	27	9
Jamaica	9	1	15	5	11	11	24	28	14	9	31	16	44	36	60	51	52	60	80	49
Martinique	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2	—
Puerto Rico	9	2	20	13	7	2	6	3	18	5	49	10	20	4	25	6	47	12	44	13
St. Croix	13	7	9	6	8	8	10	10	9	13	3	3	5	4	13	11	16	18	4	—
St. Thomas	2	—	1	—	1	—	—	4	1	2	2	—	—	—	9	6	2	3	11	5

No. 1—continued.

[M. is used to designate "male," F. to designate "female,".]

Countries.	1883.		1884.		1885.		1886.		1887.		1888.		1889.		1890.		1891.		1892.		
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	
WEST INDIES—cont.																					
Trinidad	3	2	1	—	—	—	2	—	2	1	2	2	5	4	10	—	5	1	14	1	
All other	53	40	18	27	29	27	330	221	677	439	244	394	272	251	318	214	473	458	156	79	
Total	644	269	1,430	778	1,564	913	1,927	897	3,447	1,429	3,428	1,422	3,422	1,501	2,032	1,018	2,592	1,314	1,323	645	
SOUTH AMERICA.																					
Argentine Republic	—	—	6	—	8	1	4	—	4	—	5	4	10	4	13	2	16	5	44	15	
Brazil	14	3	15	13	8	1	15	6	13	8	9	4	23	8	26	9	35	22	56	23	
Chile	1	1	1	—	1	—	4	—	5	—	10	3	8	5	15	6	34	11	35	19	
Colombia	9	2	3	2	2	—	142	44	212	93	292	77	363	53	192	50	251	114	246	88	
Ecuador	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	5	1	13	6	13	2	22	5	
Guianas	10	4	2	4	3	4	2	2	2	—	8	—	7	1	8	—	15	3	22	4	
Peru	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	8	2	—	—	20	5	36	18	28	20	
Venezuela	14	12	11	6	11	3	9	8	18	2	29	12	20	12	57	15	52	20	33	8	
All other	7	—	1	—	—	—	4	6	4	1	4	1	11	6	1	—	15	2	7	3	
Total	55	22	40	25	35	9	190	66	239	107	336	104	337	90	345	93	467	197	495	185	
Total America*	41,366	30,363	39,409	23,930	24,458	16,745	3,145	831	3,728	1,542	3,830	1,572	3,843	1,616	2,618	1,215	3,392	1,700	2,020	884	

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 1—continued.

[M. is used to designate "male," F. to designate "female."]

Countries.	1883.		1884.		1885.		1886.		1887.		1888.		1889.		1890.		1891.		1892.	
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.
ASIA.																				
Arabia	8	3	69	3	14	1	21	—	2	—	40	11	139	27	184	42	259	98	151	40
Armenia	14	5	11	4	35	4	19	—	119	2	38	1	86	10	553	45	753	89	1,034	35
China	7,987	44	241	38	12	10	25	15	8	2	21	5	90	28	1,401	315	2,608	228	2,501	227
India	4	5	9	3	27	7	10	7	20	12	15	5	50	9	34	9	33	9	29	4
Japan	19	8	19	1	42	7	160	34	218	11	366	38	558	82	601	90	1,023	113	1,437	41
Persia	1	—	—	—	6	1	—	—	1	—	2	—	3	—	10	4	12	—	14	—
Turkey in Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	14	1	184	24	230	43	469	94	841	285	1,774	714	2,185	1,037
All other	14	1	88	24	26	6	11	—	11	1	19	9	—	—	23	11	—	—	5	2
Total	8,047	66	437	73	163	36	260	57	553	51	731	113	1,475	250	3,647	801	6,462	1,216	7,326	1,386
OCEANICA.																				
Australia	423	126	338	165	303	143	357	161	395	134	485	203	646	350	479	213	499	273	666	311
Hawaiian Islands	112	80	295	103	163	67	384	220	442	302	1,001	630	702	461	263	151	321	171	1,065	496
New Zealand	—	—	1	—	3	1	8	1	1	—	—	4	2	2	6	1	4	1	8	3
Society Islands	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
All other	1	—	—	—	—	—	0	1	3	7	9	—	29	4	17	7	23	9	2	2
Total	541	206	634	266	468	211	753	383	839	443	1,495	892	1,379	817	795	372	847	454	1,740	812
Total Asia and Oceania	8,588	272	1,071	339	630	247	1,013	440	1,402	405	2,226	1,004	2,854	1,067	4,442	1,173	7,309	1,670	9,075	2,198

No. 1—continued.
 [M. is used to designate "male," F. to designate "female."]

Countries.	1883.		1884.		1885.		1886.		1887.		1888.		1889.		1891.		1890.		1892.		
	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	M.	F.	
AFRICA.																					
Algeria	-	4	-	-	1	1	-	1	-	2	-	11	5	4	4	11	-	38	5	14	14
Egypt	23	18	3	2	14	-	31	5	-	5	-	5	-	27	6	9	2	31	9	23	4
Liberia	-	-	-	-	2	-	2	2	1	1	2	2	2	-	-	5	3	-	1	4	1
Morocco	-	-	-	-	-	-	4	-	2	2	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	5	4	1	1
South Africa	1	-	1	-	2	1	-	1	1	2	-	-	-	-	-	5	2	2	-	3	1
Canary Islands	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	2
Cape Verde Islands	4	7	35	11	49	19	35	31	11	3	19	4	87	19	86	14	3	-	207	73	73
All other	8	5	12	7	18	9	15	13	15	8	16	4	38	16	28	9	16	6	16	6	1
Total Africa	38	34	51	20	86	30	88	53	37	13	54	13	167	45	94	30	85	25	255	96	96
Born at sea	-	36	50	36	30	37	29	26	28	35	32	23	31	24	29	21	37	26	63	53	31
RECAPITULATION.																					
Europe	-	313,835	298,752	297,928	185,758	201,178	181,905	197,439	132,100	301,463	181,366	339,233	196,508	250,139	178,051	274,670	171,010	343,240	202,839	374,378	234,094
America*	-	41,366	30,363	39,409	29,980	24,458	16,745	2,145	881	3,738	1,642	8,530	1,573	3,943	1,616	2,618	1,215	3,382	1,700	2,020	884
Asia and Oceania	-	8,588	272	1,071	339	630	247	1,013	440	1,402	495	2,226	1,004	2,854	1,067	4,442	1,173	7,309	1,670	9,075	2,198
Born at sea	-	38	34	51	20	36	50	37	29	35	32	23	31	24	29	21	37	26	63	53	31
Total Immigrants	-	363,688	239,459	308,560	210,083	226,382	168,964	200,704	133,460	306,688	183,451	345,375	201,514	293,024	181,403	261,553	173,449	354,059	206,260	385,781	237,203

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

NO. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT OF THE SUPERINTENDENT OF IMMIGRATION FOR 1892, SHOWING THE PRINCIPAL OCCUPATIONS OF THE IMMIGRANTS OF THE SEVERAL NATIONALITIES ARRIVED IN THE UNITED STATES DURING EACH YEAR ENDING JUNE 30^v FROM 1875 TO 1890 INCLUSIVE.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal professional Occupations.</i>																
Clergymen :																
Belgium	7	6	4	3	4	1	2	6	2	5	5	7	12	11	9	12
France	32	43	44	53	63	18	69	54	28	19	12	10	9	32	19	31
Germany	58	133	102	69	50	37	45	47	54	47	59	47	41	45	48	57
England	77	51	66	49	48	71	65	117	60	55	70	93	63	129	101	161
Scotland	14	23	8	14	14	19	33	18	8	17	13	13	15	38	23	26
Ireland	69	79	61	65	88	70	61	69	63	38	42	40	65	58	70	78
Italy	9	7	8	12	10	1	13	16	4	11	6	7	4	7	2	18
Sweden and Norway	5	13	7	2	—	10	8	6	17	6	7	13	10	12	13	19
Russia and Poland	3	1	6	3	6	1	5	2	5	2	8	10	6	27	5	9
British North America	51	30	33	19	19	25	44	47	38	17	16	*	*	*	*	*
Other countries	21	31	34	30	18	16	42	36	30	14	21	29	49	49	48	80
Total	366	417	373	319	320	269	387	418	309	231	259	269	274	408	338	491

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal professional Occupations—</i> <i>cont.</i>																
Musicians :																
Austria-Hungary	27	16	12	33	11	66	24	93	20	68	29	19	56	47	49	67
Denmark	4	2	1	—	2	2	5	2	3	6	4	—	7	9	10	17
France	79	20	41	11	5	2	9	11	7	2	7	3	9	56	16	14
Germany	159	151	110	187	124	150	253	236	172	306	233	194	460	328	263	229
Great Britain and Ireland	33	47	16	27	19	52	27	34	37	41	28	44	46	51	60	84
Italy	129	135	100	104	134	42	93	129	64	105	45	77	73	57	53	106
Russia and Poland	4	1	4	3	4	3	3	13	3	7	17	10	12	11	22	18
Spain	—	6	2	—	1	—	4	1	—	3	—	1	2	2	4	4
Sweden and Norway	30	18	8	7	4	17	5	7	6	4	5	4	10	13	5	7
Switzerland	—	2	4	2	5	5	13	6	8	5	2	2	3	8	4	4
British North America	17	8	1	4	18	47	3	4	2	2	1	•	•	•	•	•
Other countries	18	15	21	18	14	13	11	7	12	6	8	13	11	17	14	28
Total	500	421	320	396	341	399	450	543	334	555	377	367	689	599	595	578

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal professional Occupations—</i> <i>cont.</i>																
Physicians and Surgeons:																
Austria-Hungary	5	14	4	8	6	7	6	3	3	5	7	6	15	16	3	9
Denmark	2	—	4	—	—	2	1	5	1	—	—	5	1	3	5	3
France	14	18	7	7	12	13	9	20	9	8	11	5	2	2	7	14
Germany	43	53	28	23	30	71	46	61	49	43	28	43	30	54	31	36
Great Britain and Ireland	60	68	42	28	45	64	53	69	39	52	54	56	88	109	114	123
Italy	1	2	1	4	—	4	10	8	5	6	5	4	6	2	7	7
Netherlands	3	1	—	1	1	1	2	1	2	1	3	1	—	4	4	2
Sweden and Norway	2	1	—	3	1	5	1	7	7	8	6	6	4	17	5	6
Switzerland	2	9	2	1	5	6	8	7	5	10	6	4	4	3	6	5
British North America	57	24	24	13	10	31	14	38	20	13	35	*	*	*	*	*
West Indies	14	4	5	4	4	4	9	4	2	2	3	16	18	18	11	8
Other countries	30	25	29	19	27	15	18	85	8	12	18	19	22	39	21	43
Total	233	200	146	111	141	223	177	308	150	160	176	165	190	327	214	261

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883 ^o .	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal professional Occupations—</i>																
<i>cont.</i>																
<i>Teachers:</i>																
Austria-Hungary	5	9	5	1	7	30	12	8	20	16	16	20	20	13	11	19
Denmark	1	4	3	—	3	1	2	8	5	13	11	5	6	11	8	6
France	47	98	32	21	43	6	36	46	19	23	35	18	28	29	38	60
Germany	98	69	61	45	44	65	117	197	216	174	153	114	158	109	89	78
Great Britain and Ireland	85	86	36	40	53	53	73	108	87	101	106	118	125	158	151	224
Italy	2	—	5	3	4	17	5	7	14	16	9	12	15	7	7	16
Netherlands	—	1	—	3	—	—	3	6	1	6	7	5	3	2	4	5
Sweden and Norway	20	5	1	3	2	1	5	9	15	21	11	16	13	14	20	17
Switzerland	4	11	5	7	18	6	32	25	26	17	21	12	16	6	14	21
Russia and Poland	6	6	12	5	6	—	6	17	2	15	17	22	25	16	20	20
British North America	100	3	16	67	14	22	53	42	39	18	11	*	*	*	*	*
Other countries	10	9	9	4	9	10	4	6	10	25	11	11	17	18	12	13
Total	578	301	185	199	203	211	348	479	454	445	408	353	406	383	374	484

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal skilled Occupations.</i>																
Bakers :																
Austria-Hungary	18	20	15	21	34	56	65	64	56	72	48	55	84	99	82	149
Belgium	4	2	—	1	3	5	8	2	11	10	9	13	15	15	13	14
Denmark	6	3	2	5	8	21	30	25	24	24	11	18	25	34	45	44
France	58	93	48	33	31	23	39	41	52	44	44	28	40	36	47	47
Germany	309	250	233	211	329	734	1,464	1,576	1,829	1,320	902	632	693	790	866	867
Great Britain and Ireland	174	127	94	50	78	233	290	315	316	241	266	264	373	465	394	287
Italy	20	12	12	11	14	17	40	63	61	30	19	38	79	22	49	113
Netherlands	9	1	2	4	4	11	8	26	27	15	26	12	11	33	27	17
Russia and Poland	6	6	6	9	7	8	10	44	12	20	28	40	60	77	74	81
Sweden and Norway	20	87	15	43	33	102	53	116	92	43	25	52	97	101	90	35
Switzerland	9	9	12	11	21	46	180	131	124	110	71	42	60	52	60	65
British North America	92	31	46	38	26	91	41	13	6	10	3	*	*	*	*	*
Other countries	5	19	22	22	48	30	36	37	21	32	23	20	32	13	21	8
Total	730	640	507	464	636	1,377	2,264	2,453	2,331	1,971	1,465	1,200	1,569	1,737	1,768	1,727

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal skilled Occupations—cont.</i>																
Blacksmiths:																
Austria-Hungary	40	35	22	41	36	113	147	113	92	85	94	83	192	123	211	192
Belgium	1	1	—	—	3	2	2	2	4	9	10	6	16	14	13	8
Denmark	15	14	7	21	36	58	74	80	88	84	58	80	117	77	107	88
France	15	8	45	44	14	7	16	25	7	30	18	13	33	23	34	16
Germany	204	180	235	171	253	745	1,510	1,759	1,253	1,307	874	552	657	707	755	665
Great Britain and Ireland	275	285	177	147	243	590	556	475	501	419	367	365	653	1,067	658	461
Italy	10	15	13	8	13	7	33	67	80	33	19	36	65	45	30	89
Netherlands	5	6	1	—	2	7	12	38	22	34	19	5	23	21	12	13
Russia and Poland	8	4	13	7	14	22	27	47	20	54	64	90	163	164	133	118
Sweden and Norway	70	48	30	43	103	289	356	282	211	120	78	123	256	247	190	79
British North America	389	202	269	165	130	374	789	1,169	383	346	176	•	•	•	•	•
Other countries	35	18	35	2	64	92	164	132	141	97	42	67	81	69	63	63
Total	1,267	816	787	673	911	2,311	3,986	4,099	2,804	2,568	1,519	1,450	2,280	2,577	2,185	1,792

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal skilled Occupations—cont.</i>																
Butchers:																
Austria-Hungary	43	23	29	40	35	54	92	80	40	86	68	73	154	132	72	120
Belgium	4	1	2	3	2	4	6	4	8	8	3	8	5	23	9	10
Denmark	3	2	2	2	2	6	21	19	24	18	17	17	14	57	20	33
France	20	24	35	21	26	13	33	30	31	38	27	28	39	63	49	45
Germany	249	201	212	355	306	576	1,337	1,628	1,371	1,446	832	654	942	888	772	703
Great Britain and Ireland	170	157	104	84	132	273	176	273	289	217	247	183	310	359	417	316
Italy	—	3	2	6	7	8	10	22	22	7	9	26	42	68	12	32
Russia and Poland	7	5	10	6	7	12	18	36	24	62	31	75	107	124	67	101
Sweden and Norway	4	13	4	15	29	43	43	44	54	26	25	31	59	56	54	17
Switzerland	20	15	18	22	55	54	146	120	163	88	93	53	67	57	69	43
British North America	27	42	41	54	57	57	61	29	11	19	3	*	*	*	*	*
Other countries	35	85	30	37	52	38	55	84	65	44	36	42	50	42	59	32
Total	582	521	480	645	710	1,138	1,508	2,269	2,102	2,069	1,391	1,190	1,689	1,869	1,600	1,452

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.*	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal skilled Occupations—cont.</i>																
Carpenters and joiners:																
Austria-Hungary	96	62	68	55	68	150	166	394	243	300	147	148	230	248	160	298
Belgium	5	1	1	8	4	14	10	16	18	27	23	19	30	38	27	17
Denmark	28	35	24	34	59	103	132	146	197	168	93	151	223	163	155	152
France	49	161	27	21	115	84	54	66	78	40	53	83	53	79	53	60
Germany	568	501	366	485	637	1,422	3,092	4,123	3,850	3,555	1,993	1,277	1,504	1,637	1,332	1,293
Great Britain and Ireland	1,197	713	505	482	827	1,987	1,569	1,044	1,576	1,232	910	1,214	1,798	2,199	1,655	1,663
Italy	26	20	25	42	54	43	93	173	220	96	68	134	192	91	88	179
Netherlands	13	12	5	6	13	23	97	138	59	71	42	40	60	57	66	57
Russia and Poland	54	24	25	12	8	39	47	216	43	85	135	132	327	229	204	216
Sweden and Norway	140	139	141	122	391	602	761	1,018	603	332	190	363	678	772	459	294
Switzerland	21	24	35	44	69	145	308	348	379	238	116	82	68	63	90	47
British North America	1,085	865	352	522	431	3,404	4,402	4,148	1,360	1,071	663	•	•	•	•	•
Other countries	71	65	66	43	63	57	60	70	77	61	64	85	147	87	84	110
Total	3,383	2,631	1,730	1,876	2,759	8,234	11,481	11,900	8,632	7,216	4,368	3,678	5,205	5,683	4,373	3,776

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal skilled Occupations—cont.</i>																
Clerks :																
Austria-Hungary	-	38	46	29	38	72	123	73	95	69	91	98	88	157	165	117
Belgium	-	6	13	4	10	6	5	9	12	6	20	18	11	19	29	11
Denmark	-	16	11	19	11	15	44	70	112	105	78	52	91	110	115	137
France	-	46	70	84	49	72	48	77	72	111	130	122	93	104	327	118
Germany	-	252	288	326	331	415	638	828	869	963	883	748	647	625	508	584
England	-	500	412	291	374	416	742	848	790	789	1,082	1,054	905	1,017	1,062	1,453
Scotland	-	113	48	80	53	100	297	192	273	176	147	212	296	313	404	251
Ireland	-	149	120	97	112	137	314	289	306	279	343	387	390	442	366	428
Italy	-	8	13	20	18	14	10	21	40	32	32	37	22	34	24	38
Netherlands	-	5	5	2	22	8	13	11	23	6	20	17	14	16	21	14
Russia and Poland	-	9	11	12	5	30	40	15	91	29	59	95	87	123	128	95
Spain	-	12	17	16	14	15	9	4	6	6	13	11	16	17	37	11
Sweden and Norway	-	11	23	19	29	56	118	116	136	257	175	167	148	240	352	170
Switzerland	-	9	25	27	31	34	54	95	63	118	74	73	56	64	78	42
British North America	-	91	109	87	133	175	203	338	370	352	301	189	*	*	*	*
West Indies	-	40	36	84	32	33	43	28	31	20	22	47	54	14	49	40

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal skilled Occupations—cont.</i>																
<i>Clerks—cont.</i>																
Australia	56	85	73	39	77	119	144	72	37	28	29	30	31	29	26	37
Other countries	53	58	33	48	49	40	31	44	82	70	57	79	68	93	91	107
Total	1,414	1,385	1,253	1,340	1,724	2,860	3,159	3,412	3,357	3,518	3,413	3,927	3,314	3,760	4,005	3,663
<i>Dressmakers:</i>																
Austria-Hungary	—	4	—	1	1	—	3	3	2	10	3	2	11	52	43	19
Denmark	1	2	—	—	2	2	3	7	8	3	6	1	5	5	9	32
France	55	28	16	33	63	17	31	55	59	62	40	40	50	90	82	115
Germany	26	32	33	23	30	44	83	204	209	133	36	53	109	101	207	163
Great Britain and Ireland	88	80	58	61	69	124	115	99	162	210	212	185	194	335	356	377
Italy	3	2	6	10	10	6	18	44	41	30	25	23	8	25	54	147
Sweden and Norway	5	7	2	1	4	18	19	16	17	20	23	20	38	70	87	95
Switzerland	2	9	—	25	36	38	49	116	117	75	45	18	31	49	51	74
British North America	31	34	76	22	65	70	75	109	51	18	19	•	•	•	•	•
Other countries	5	20	33	3	7	19	2	14	20	48	12	19	33	37	26	109
Total	216	218	259	179	287	338	398	607	686	609	421	363	479	764	915	1,131

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal skilled Occupations—cont.</i>																
Engineers:																
Austria-Hungary	6	20	10	8	7	8	17	19	25	18	7	20	24	18	16	27
Belgium	—	5	9	4	2	1	4	4	10	9	11	7	21	9	11	17
Denmark	4	5	6	4	7	10	26	27	24	13	10	14	11	20	34	24
France	15	43	27	13	35	28	30	40	27	42	20	20	29	33	29	44
Germany	56	84	121	86	84	174	275	272	327	201	105	121	137	96	110	123
England	305	207	144	109	194	602	358	435	405	397	278	329	496	597	586	512
Scotland	75	53	62	55	108	241	176	210	80	84	85	141	311	423	230	157
Ireland	37	29	27	14	29	76	42	37	31	57	29	43	71	69	62	45
Italy	8	11	2	9	11	3	3	12	17	11	9	16	8	7	5	11
Netherlands	1	4	—	2	—	4	3	2	5	6	11	5	11	19	10	17
Russia and Poland	2	11	17	3	2	7	7	34	5	10	11	7	16	20	19	14
Spain	5	8	13	1	5	3	2	3	1	2	1	3	2	1	3	5
Sweden and Norway	6	18	7	7	72	131	106	72	56	54	26	22	75	152	70	53
Switzerland	3	7	8	15	22	20	52	52	41	41	14	18	13	11	13	17
British North America	22	44	51	12	47	111	104	62	15	10	85	*	*	*	*	*
West Indies	7	4	4	7	2	6	5	2	3	1	3	18	14	2	1	5

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1886.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal skilled Occupations—cont.</i>																
<i>Engineers—cont.</i>																
Other countries - - - - -	0	4	7	6	3	4	6	16	7	6	5	14	12	43	40	34
Total	538	562	515	355	630	1,329	1,216	1,209	1,079	962	770	798	1,241	1,225	1,240	1,106
<i>Mechanics, not specified:</i>																
Austria-Hungary - - - - -	5	3	-	1	6	7	27	18	60	38	24	63	14	44	23	25
Belgium - - - - -	1	1	1	-	-	3	7	10	12	18	8	5	11	14	6	4
Denmark - - - - -	2	1	-	11	12	3	8	42	13	32	24	18	12	25	17	22
France - - - - -	30	35	22	8	14	38	45	74	68	42	30	50	30	49	26	58
Germany - - - - -	75	34	24	82	70	351	720	602	487	444	259	192	163	193	112	132
England - - - - -	210	160	98	106	270	887	1,194	1,709	725	742	768	741	1,011	1,479	1,163	966
Scotland - - - - -	17	6	5	15	28	124	136	179	140	99	140	200	312	361	247	300
Ireland - - - - -	51	43	29	35	66	268	183	347	178	163	221	162	278	283	227	162
Italy - - - - -	12	37	7	5	39	10	161	250	195	56	45	64	106	28	29	57
Netherlands - - - - -	7	-	-	2	-	4	43	37	9	4	8	9	10	22	5	13
Russia and Poland - - - - -	1	-	2	-	2	28	71	73	26	22	30	28	67	176	210	155
Sweden and Norway - - - - -	0	26	14	33	72	380	256	285	209	248	158	394	268	311	295	306

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal skilled Occupations—cont.</i>																
Mechanics, not specified— <i>cont.</i>																
Switzerland	6	19	11	9	12	64	151	120	113	38	31	20	17	27	14	7
British North America	44	21	46	66	187	1,129	1,087	587	1,891	571	309	*	*	*	*	*
Other countries	2	18	9	10	8	13	20	32	16	17	15	25	25	24	19	40
Total	471	404	268	343	786	3,309	4,109	4,325	4,156	2,534	2,019	1,886	2,432	3,066	2,391	2,227
Miners:																
Austria-Hungary	36	38	24	23	20	41	48	103	228	104	70	407	595	150	109	738
Belgium	4	1	3	8	5	15	43	43	49	15	32	43	172	286	104	85
France	30	20	30	14	26	15	48	91	38	41	28	55	152	206	183	92
Germany	163	91	73	51	76	320	655	1,090	755	398	163	163	518	270	254	327
England	1,955	1,005	667	651	1,169	2,446	1,626	2,290	1,628	1,704	1,361	1,493	2,346	2,698	2,478	1,194
Scotland	344	113	64	73	465	620	1,082	1,312	541	339	277	346	793	1,365	752	194
Ireland	297	107	100	96	114	348	236	398	510	496	264	173	258	251	270	153
Italy	79	27	14	32	34	40	132	354	448	200	181	343	425	347	767	374
Russia and Poland	255	162	198	50	66	253	20	44	16	16	6	30	127	99	94	123
Sweden and Norway	468	160	139	358	358	1,245	793	476	295	358	404	299	431	496	339	242

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal skilled Occupations—cont.</i>																
Miners—cont.																
Switzerland	4	2	1	2	9	1	12	40	31	17	17	39	27	36	93	72
British North America	232	337	133	71	82	593	378	102	89	114	36	•	•	•	•	•
Other countries	217	174	224	140	164	149	181	142	145	82	101	190	100	97	62	151
Total	4,055	2,237	1,070	1,578	2,383	6,086	5,204	6,483	4,743	3,794	2,940	3,481	5,945	6,264	5,605	3,745
Shoemakers:																
Austria-Hungary	115	57	44	64	57	122	215	164	125	152	140	137	155	232	149	253
Belgium	2	4	19	4	6	16	5	10	17	5	15	10	19	15	6	6
Denmark	13	17	5	5	15	28	34	79	77	46	28	20	50	58	60	52
France	20	137	54	73	17	11	34	45	39	24	29	17	19	00	31	31
Germany	436	253	250	239	311	680	2,190	2,187	1,969	1,711	965	654	882	997	770	666
England	224	96	64	74	146	152	161	204	156	135	136	98	189	290	171	138
Scotland	33	47	16	16	29	40	46	07	29	25	26	44	44	77	59	28
Ireland	110	111	29	35	64	103	85	111	133	91	118	91	102	155	123	79
Italy	33	30	18	26	30	39	157	256	244	237	239	246	453	162	294	468
Netherlands	8	7	2	3	5	4	13	20	9	16	9	13	10	40	11	11

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal skilled Occupations—cont.</i>																
Shoemakers—cont.																
Russia and Poland	31	15	23	14	22	53	73	108	38	127	152	191	283	169	286	330
Sweden and Norway	33	35	36	62	139	151	242	337	178	131	80	113	150	188	108	75
Switzerland	16	15	17	22	36	39	178	129	155	91	50	24	39	34	55	42
British North America	158	29	40	94	189	345	486	561	63	74	144	*	*	*	*	*
Asia and Oceania	—	30	—	—	—	35	30	31	20	33	18	33	25	4	10	59
Other countries	27	15	63	46	53	30	18	17	20	3	11	8	27	28	12	14
Total	1,265	898	680	777	1,119	1,849	3,907	4,366	3,293	2,931	2,150	1,681	2,897	2,499	2,065	2,232
Gardeners:																
Austria-Hungary	5	4	3	11	3	6	17	8	25	12	14	7	16	35	23	49
Belgium	32	7	3	—	1	1	4	—	8	5	3	11	3	2	3	2
Denmark	6	3	2	—	18	7	7	20	30	18	12	18	26	17	24	41
France	25	73	32	7	21	10	18	21	31	15	21	22	20	40	55	33
Germany	127	67	103	77	83	164	634	507	524	465	292	217	221	309	321	276
Great Britain and Ireland	162	103	110	55	70	110	148	154	195	190	169	185	250	431	356	259
Italy	6	23	20	13	19	12	22	85	64	95	22	13	12	23	13	53

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities:	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal skilled Occupations—cont.</i>																
<i>Gardeners—cont.</i>																
Netherlands	4	2	—	—	—	1	22	31	6	9	10	6	8	6	9	14
Russia and Poland	2	2	15	—	—	1	8	7	2	5	3	3	7	24	24	15
Sweden and Norway	17	14	—	30	15	20	20	14	32	14	17	13	23	22	27	16
Switzerland	4	19	7	6	18	27	47	41	53	46	25	20	24	30	21	16
British North America	—	91	34	40	3	1	4	6	—	—	—	•	•	•	•	•
Other countries	9	13	2	—	9	8	6	23	11	13	61	8	3	15	25	14
Total #	399	421	331	239	200	377	927	917	581	887	699	523	613	952	901	768
<i>Machinists:</i>																
Austria-Hungary	6	2	5	1	2	4	3	3	—	1	4	2	4	8	5	3
Belgium	—	3	—	—	1	—	1	—	2	1	1	3	5	3	5	1
Denmark	—	6	—	8	2	6	4	5	4	17	7	1	3	2	4	6
France	—	8	15	4	4	1	11	4	6	7	3	4	1	5	3	3
Germany	—	34	18	21	22	40	141	59	41	59	54	36	39	78	50	23
Great Britain and Ireland	—	93	202	198	92	237	197	182	103	122	175	122	139	225	176	178
Sweden and Norway	—	15	9	6	13	87	64	18	14	9	9	7	15	21	32	26

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal skilled Occupations—cont.</i>																
<i>Machinists—cont.</i>																
Switzerland	1	3	1	2	2	1	17	4	7	—	7	3	6	3	—	—
British North America	180	82	37	28	62	208	176	73	10	9	96	•	•	•	•	•
Other Countries	23	14	5	16	8	8	27	27	4	7	10	24	23	54	29	39
Total	475	201	292	284	208	592	641	375	191	232	366	202	234	399	285	274
<i>Mariners:</i>																
Austria-Hungary	23	17	10	28	7	22	48	29	49	83	55	138	100	97	108	233
Denmark	29	17	25	14	20	26	64	66	39	43	40	51	67	119	84	98
France	112	83	35	5	12	9	4	8	32	4	6	7	6	19	12	30
Germany	190	98	132	84	113	144	217	263	253	252	171	156	135	216	177	193
England	188	119	117	87	103	168	136	156	129	144	146	171	182	277	244	280
Scotland	49	114	29	21	27	25	27	37	42	25	30	51	63	91	70	64
Ireland	102	54	29	27	45	40	37	33	48	37	75	51	43	53	75	56
Italy	26	16	27	10	26	33	136	190	253	166	85	134	94	101	111	137
Netherlands	18	9	13	4	4	5	12	9	15	15	14	7	15	66	19	39
Portugal	247	32	143	4	54	18	10	—	11	14	10	13	4	1	—	1

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal skilled Occupations—cont.</i>																
<i>Mariners—cont.</i>																
Spain	12	12	8	2	6	2	11	3	3	4	3	7	12	22	6	10
Sweden and Norway	124	113	64	114	70	162	227	351	479	451	369	627	1,456	1,221	669	269
British North America	658	215	429	261	286	609	540	624	332	113	174	•	•	•	•	•
West Indies	109	192	147	99	34	159	66	94	64	319	164	139	403	101	108	209
Azores and Cape Verde Islands	76	53	96	53	54	22	8	11	33	120	61	198	53	12	93	107
Other Countries	93	75	25	68	44	14	27	47	42	72	74	53	77	135	122	109
Total	2,056	1,224	1,329	871	305	1,438	1,589	1,911	1,844	1,742	1,477	1,803	2,708	2,532	1,898	2,185
<i>Masons :</i>																
Austria-Hungary	63	39	38	48	30	59	76	72	77	72	41	52	60	116	56	82
Belgium	6	1	2	—	1	5	5	5	5	11	13	12	8	28	10	13
Denmark	14	5	6	6	14	23	35	65	33	35	37	32	79	101	51	46
France	133	20	87	9	14	13	29	10	37	15	24	8	23	50	29	22
Germany	635	133	223	168	160	451	1,334	1,603	1,204	1,062	577	377	409	721	431	404
Great Britain and Ireland	907	565	256	256	390	994	984	1,524	1,013	784	710	1,636	1,549	2,454	1,618	1,094
Italy	114	42	19	17	30	29	97	258	246	162	96	173	356	189	220	307

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal skilled Occupations—cont.</i>																
Masons—cont.																
Netherlands	4	1	2	5	1	4	19	20	9	10	13	5	10	21	15	5
Russia and Poland	18	47	5	—	2	4	13	26	5	19	35	20	58	89	68	72
Sweden and Norway	223	77	78	37	47	149	217	150	109	65	33	96	162	291	162	183
Switzerland	14	5	11	19	9	33	100	166	72	30	32	21	30	27	62	30
British North America	480	762	574	86	149	254	259	369	133	292	270	*	*	*	*	*
Other Countries	39	16	2	21	24	5	35	41	16	5	12	3	30	36	27	51
Total	2,650	1,713	1,303	642	871	2,033	3,203	4,279	2,959	2,562	1,898	1,835	2,774	4,223	2,795	2,349
<i>Tailors:</i>																
Austria-Hungary	140	96	47	67	86	251	298	196	216	354	185	315	509	409	338	577
Belgium	7	5	2	8	4	5	14	1	9	9	9	10	11	12	11	10
Denmark	4	6	6	5	13	25	29	43	42	32	23	33	61	45	60	36
France	98	47	44	20	26	26	44	38	33	38	35	19	31	48	42	51
Germany	497	295	215	231	295	695	1,374	1,935	1,797	1,506	855	729	979	1,190	952	854
England	233	128	87	98	142	262	233	254	216	223	202	201	350	300	394	287
Scotland	28	20	14	13	23	28	36	39	53	43	41	61	85	153	154	103

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal skilled Occupations—cont.</i>																
<i>Tailors—cont.</i>																
Ireland	-	68	40	41	75	125	163	120	124	121	101	68	83	87	140	81
Italy	-	26	16	19	45	54	156	303	207	148	117	213	219	139	169	347
Netherlands	-	8	12	4	2	7	22	54	26	18	18	13	11	15	18	20
Russia and Poland	-	74	73	59	122	83	298	335	131	531	419	702	1,086	770	1,240	1,360
Sweden and Norway	-	79	71	36	50	82	263	206	202	122	119	177	240	238	191	143
Switzerland	-	17	16	11	12	37	53	94	69	73	34	32	37	29	47	35
British North America	-	102	66	66	99	105	197	110	50	67	23
Other Countries	-	9	40	19	31	44	30	39	30	32	42	49	67	60	53	75
Total	-	1,403	969	668	815	1,062	3,106	3,748	3,235	3,317	2,228	2,682	3,709	3,495	3,609	3,879
<i>Tobacco Manufacturers and Dealers:</i>																
Belgium	-	3	15	-	3	-	11	6	11	16	14	13	30	12	25	39
Germany	-	199	124	156	75	263	810	539	270	395	197	118	142	85	108	95
Great Britain and Ireland	-	51	19	17	12	13	45	29	38	77	33	44	64	42	27	19
Russia and Poland	-	22	8	5	5	2	25	74	19	58	63	79	143	55	32	48

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities,	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal skilled Occupations—cont.</i>																
<i>Tobacco Manufacturers and Dealers—cont.</i>																
Cuba	234	128	163	75	345	187	715	330	292	891	1,006	857	1,711	1,971	2,070	908
Other West Indies	2	—	1	8	—	12	3	10	4	5	9	18	19	6	20	15
Other Countries	201	102	127	56	38	38	75	57	41	62	38	31	48	110	47	45
Total	713	384	425	317	478	515	1,684	1,045	675	1,506	1,360	1,160	2,157	2,281	2,332	1,169
<i>Weavers :</i>																
Austria-Hungary	76-	37	26	29	33	60	81	65	105	49	41	24	30	45	17	42
France	18	7	16	7	6	15	47	63	57	24	26	16	48	15	18	22
Germany	188	124	113	90	130	377	682	631	726	497	249	167	245	210	180	133
England	247	102	98	107	236	690	491	404	426	553	409	488	683	789	760	578
Scotland	60	38	26	23	39	165	185	110	68	50	79	137	155	242	174	134
Ireland	71	42	30	17	28	82	81	300	96	113	122	84	93	295	92	86
Greece	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	12
Italy	3	5	3	1	2	15	15	15	29	15	22	36	150	7	7	40
Russia and Poland	6	—	3	—	1	3	9	4	1	15	9	13	17	14	18	59

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal skilled Occupations—cont.</i>																
<i>Weavers—cont.</i>																
Switzerland	7	4	7	3	22	61	68	28	64	23	27	16	20	19	4	8
Other Countries	100	35	32	15	18	31	40	23	117	45	22	18	25	20	23	20
Total	770	454	354	202	515	1,499	1,689	1,643	1,679	1,389	1,006	989	1,472	1,455	1,293	1,154
<i>Principal miscellaneous Occupations.</i>																
<i>Farmers:</i>																
Austria-Hungary	464	383	450	393	400	1,000	1,203	1,823	1,831	1,467	1,013	943	2,222	2,087	2,127	2,913
Belgium	29	20	19	30	60	106	231	172	166	191	113	113	163	203	239	196
Denmark	274	213	238	463	715	1,099	1,041	1,403	1,280	1,451	810	841	1,298	886	1,324	1,281
France	305	321	374	192	279	274	613	712	458	380	372	287	612	703	942	509
Germany	5,050	3,492	3,101	3,255	4,105	9,432	19,529	23,593	16,961	18,755	11,125	7,679	9,637	8,601	8,060	8,469
England	1,580	1,410	1,206	990	1,136	2,678	2,475	2,917	2,631	1,907	1,442	1,332	2,285	2,511	2,003	2,475
Scotland	423	216	221	283	305	606	639	887	425	356	344	486	646	638	475	401
Ireland	985	514	524	586	634	2,507	1,631	1,603	1,929	1,527	1,456	1,068	1,878	2,332	2,106	1,525
Greece	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	31	—	3	—	—	4	39	18	26
Italy	234	249	244	452	505	1,552	1,812	3,549	3,052	2,140	1,145	2,019	5,617	1,632	2,495	4,441
Netherlands	142	83	24	51	87	624	1,370	911	570	572	391	403	732	632	862	667

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal miscellaneous Occupations</i>																
—cont.																
<i>Farmers—cont.</i>																
Russia and Poland	1,005	614	1,063	486	738	456	490	730	269	477	874	637	1,283	1,369	1,903	2,223
Spain and Portugal	-	13	13	156	10	-	10	5	138	164	103	48	61	69	57	49
Sweden and Norway	971	1,650	1,223	1,296	1,969	7,012	6,274	6,600	3,339	2,897	1,766	2,751	3,434	5,638	3,191	2,162
Switzerland	-	253	248	278	593	1,160	2,027	2,204	2,050	1,464	1,004	661	749	1,426	1,755	1,487
British North America	-	4,162	4,940	4,066	5,656	7,915	18,086	14,340	4,998	8,351	5,449	*	*	*	*	*
Asia	-	291	8	40	-	61	8	-	3	45	29	22	22	119	216	166
West Indies	-	33	16	29	25	48	34	7	23	95	54	34	54	53	80	41
Azores	-	74	70	78	260	88	78	43	21	2	70	73	42	122	76	102
Other Countries	-	145	100	129	121	311	117	156	94	36	29	43	141	45	53	101
Total	16,447	14,536	13,188	14,843	19,907	47,204	58,023	61,888	39,043	42,050	27,585	20,000	30,432	29,335	25,962	29,296
<i>Labourers:</i>																
Austria-Hungary:	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Bohemia	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	920	965	1,576	1,220	883	818	1,002	675	1,203
Hungary	84	96	55	61	50	1,376	2,073	4,650	6,874	8,769	4,362	7,371	7,639	9,154	6,145	12,391
Other Austria	769	676	636	630	741	1,909	3,318	2,741	2,964	4,581	3,839	4,424	6,711	11,714	7,347	13,613

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal miscellaneous Occupations</i>																
<i>—cont.</i>																
<i>Labourers—cont.</i>																
Belgium	61	37	68	17	69	137	231	113	128	216	218	186	369	447	496	468
Denmark	409	218	276	307	743	1,090	2,361	2,863	1,992	1,303	1,003	1,400	1,910	2,517	1,661	2,163
France	1,117	452	408	444	326	442	531	426	541	337	452	470	559	658	601	777
Germany	4,881	2,316	2,550	3,226	4,554	12,202	36,060	36,104	25,586	25,761	18,496	12,453	19,063	20,416	15,021	15,131
England	6,974	2,539	2,705	2,484	4,258	12,936	14,054	20,649	12,482	11,453	10,167	11,292	19,300	16,784	12,902	10,666
Scotland	565	301	189	243	321	1,331	2,017	2,197	1,710	1,111	1,383	1,547	2,254	2,592	1,731	1,231
Ireland	9,900	4,305	3,184	3,987	5,572	25,306	26,070	27,816	26,835	19,704	16,411	16,544	24,684	24,798	22,015	18,194
Greece	1	—	10	2	5	12	2	60	24	7	60	66	195	575	59	294
Italy	1,354	880	884	1,374	2,172	3,911	5,909	15,631	19,236	8,714	4,539	7,270	19,661	32,231	9,715	27,180
Netherlands	140	92	90	65	62	215	972	1,229	722	444	294	229	585	1,026	1,003	580
Poland	200	163	122	154	112	791	1,715	2,103	916	2,007	1,266	1,766	2,628	1,190	2,056	5,937
Portugal	2	4	—	65	131	47	42	7	—	208	155	68	4	—	20	64
Roumania	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	—	27	109	93	384	341	134	79
Russia, except Poland	642	318	335	198	237	982	1,178	5,889	2,584	4,113	5,809	4,613	9,419	13,276	10,605	11,356
Spain	45	34	41	14	29	19	64	62	25	28	77	33	34	41	14	102
Sweden and Norway	2,075	1,701	1,468	2,133	5,707	18,900	22,217	34,291	17,610	11,713	9,970	14,769	23,642	28,024	15,740	14,629
Switzerland	222	95	200	214	337	481	621	442	1,021	769	661	569	683	1,485	972	1,022

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal miscellaneous Occupations—</i>																
<i>cont.</i>																
<i>Labourers—cont.</i>																
Other Europe	6	1	10	3	5	113	43	73	42	47	25	29	71	30	66	61
British North America	892	923	1,243	2,275	1,816	13,338	15,677	12,201	5,042	5,517	3,449	*	*	*	*	*
Mexico	163	133	69	58	74	33	17	18	41	50	25	*	*	*	*	*
China	15,287	21,902	10,281	8,296	8,984	5,530	11,466	38,701	7,801	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Other Asia	25	36	—	1	—	5	3	3	11	68	41	38	142	170	403	1,086
Africa	9	2	—	—	1	—	5	10	16	1	14	30	11	7	33	1
Central and South America	1	6	—	3	2	17	5	3	5	6	12	74	92	105	129	57
West Indies	28	27	20	26	30	40	12	21	9	32	51	57	26	72	17	11
Azores	651	391	455	276	453	258	570	724	802	648	846	361	645	811	940	1,113
Other islands of the Atlantic	3	4	1	1	—	1	20	22	40	18	18	7	—	19	6	33
Australia	250	340	180	109	105	—	123	139	47	62	67	30	94	146	304	146
Hawaiian Islands	121	55	—	—	—	—	—	—	30	188	69	232	225	672	489	165
Total	46,877	33,847	25,482	26,656	36,897	105,012	147,816	209,605	136,071	106,478	83,068	86,853	140,988	176,273	111,800	139,365
<i>Merchant Dealers:</i>																
Austria-Hungary	218	242	178	220	280	618	668	405	397	457	387	399	647	514	448	315
Belgium	30	23	25	15	16	31	38	28	42	27	35	24	53	50	46	38

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal miscellaneous Occupations—</i> <i>cont.</i>																
Merchant Dealers— <i>cont.</i>																
Denmark - - - - -	26	17	21	23	34	61	40	54	89	60	69	54	64	85	65	42
France - - - - -	316	293	245	207	342	316	340	405	247	183	157	155	194	184	169	268
Germany - - - - -	1,850	1,744	1,647	1,698	1,824	2,631	3,768	3,885	3,466	2,550	2,315	1,950	1,932	1,913	1,894	1,414
England - - - - -	894	806	765	561	625	913	1,020	1,217	723	643	683	821	1,086	1,143	1,066	1,214
Scotland - - - - -	237	202	173	210	277	304	432	449	292	161	150	260	373	351	272	254
Ireland - - - - -	186	191	182	165	183	315	311	300	238	193	176	210	248	328	276	229
Greece - - - - -	7	4	5	4	4	1	4	3	2	3	11	1	65	31	7	8
Italy - - - - -	78	84	108	100	133	164	204	189	108	184	107	143	241	123	169	122
Netherlands - - - - -	17	22	10	29	28	42	87	79	41	69	42	61	103	100	103	129
Russia and Poland - - - - -	121	111	100	141	154	509	394	797	399	686	582	912	1,194	747	892	377
Spain and Portugal - - - - -	166	141	177	180	132	158	85	84	59	56	43	75	76	68	123	210
Sweden and Norway - - - - -	19	36	27	23	46	111	125	113	120	100	86	113	195	224	105	85
Switzerland - - - - -	92	115	92	99	150	184	260	213	238	130	89	92	122	125	71	98
Other Europe - - - - -	10	13	3	5	1	69	19	22	10	55	112	31	81	64	70	62
British North America - - - - -	142	135	180	318	417	807	609	852	674	569	539	•	•	•	•	•
Mexico - - - - -	45	35	37	47	37	38	22	44	44	49	35	•	•	•	•	•
China - - - - -	3	8	2	—	5	3	8	38	73	256	—	14	4	25	89	1,221

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal miscellaneous Occupations—</i> <i>cont.</i>																
Merchant Dealers— <i>cont.</i>																
Other Asia - - - - -	5	5	4	1	3	5	7	12	17	19	50	37	133	108	162	123
Central and South America - -	26	32	17	39	24	18	26	21	15	11	13	41	51	108	72	148
West Indies - - - - -	159	114	134	101	112	184	85	74	55	45	75	321	469	480	351	275
Azores and other islands of the At- lantic. - - - - -	7	9	5	3	2	23	10	9	6	7	7	2	7	7	8	86
Oceania - - - - -	51	48	40	28	52	—	134	73	59	40	43	40	58	63	57	51
Other Countries - - - - -	1	—	2	—	—	3	1	—	3	—	9	1	2	6	3	8
Total - - - - -	4,706	4,519	4,239	4,217	4,861	7,508	8,766	9,375	7,449	6,522	5,870	5,733	7,418	6,847	6,508	6,707
Servants:																
Austria-Hungary—																
Bohemia - - - - -	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	34	51	79	77	74	58	149	126	171
Hungary - - - - -	5	6	3	—	1	17	35	15	47	101	92	172	316	214	227	529
Other Austria - - - - -	68	47	49	22	38	43	237	93	136	169	132	203	393	543	375	693
Belgium - - - - -	12	18	4	7	10	27	19	15	20	19	19	27	23	53	64	41
Denmark - - - - -	92	38	40	65	119	232	307	324	333	417	362	459	462	337	621	568
France - - - - -	283	244	150	137	149	99	101	151	131	135	118	120	152	203	235	471
Germany - - - - -	928	634	414	459	470	989	2,157	2,634	3,357	2,944	2,132	2,128	3,532	3,841	3,369	3,414

* Included in "Other Austria."

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal miscellaneous Occupations—</i> <i>cont.</i>																
<i>Servants—cont.</i>																
England	1,904	863	628	505	770	1,948	1,752	2,021	2,404	2,778	2,500	2,400	3,070	3,467	3,400	3,071
Scotland	303	238	144	170	207	671	734	993	1,001	816	709	946	1,542	1,436	1,490	1,028
Ireland	5,295	2,791	1,942	2,150	2,578	10,211	7,976	8,857	12,293	10,001	9,026	8,739	11,390	8,993	11,490	10,113
Italy	109	93	105	84	111	113	486	450	334	207	115	363	597	232	1,137	1,186
Netherlands	34	9	2	1	4	4	25	22	29	45	30	22	52	186	179	124
Russia and Poland	39	87	64	23	24	54	202	566	172	144	167	334	747	1,061	1,137	1,382
Spain and Portugal	16	39	25	38	72	11	12	8	8	106	62	35	9	18	25	50
Sweden and Norway	544	505	360	415	817	1,810	2,761	3,525	2,937	2,735	2,309	3,750	4,638	5,991	4,806	4,802
Switzerland	66	44	45	41	52	82	136	252	295	219	150	154	200	206	392	389
Other Europe	4	3	3	1	1	1	6	1	1	2	10	3	107	29	29	9
British North America	606	681	1,166	1,857	1,638	2,196	2,199	2,562	3,506	2,807	1,725	*	*	*	*	*
Mexico	7	8	3	5	6	1	3	1	4	—	1	*	*	*	*	*
Central America	—	1	—	4	—	—	1	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	2	3
South America	—	5	5	—	3	1	3	3	2	3	—	1	—	4	8	6
West Indies	35	78	25	27	27	15	18	24	23	28	14	23	24	52	68	60

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal miscellaneous Occupations—</i>																
<i>cont.</i>																
Servants— <i>cont.</i>	99	66	68	77	364	48	149	335	412	309	436	183	332	290	422	456
Azores and other islands of the Atlantic.	7	14	1	6	3	7	12	13	1	3	—	27	60	1	25	18
Asia	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Other Countries	3	1	3	—	—	—	1	1	1	1	2	7	6	2	3	2
Total	10,579	6,403	5,158	6,157	6,804	18,380	19,342	23,010	27,988	24,249	30,213	20,198	27,510	27,310	30,220	28,625

RECAPITULATION.

Total professional:																
Austria-Hungary	64	61	39	63	40	144	60	145	102	109	83	74	137	126	113	161
Belgium	22	20	17	11	10	9	9	27	17	30	26	29	36	42	51	38
Denmark	16	16	26	6	16	10	33	30	27	30	31	28	37	61	47	54
France	346	468	283	156	242	97	268	199	223	107	129	82	141	199	175	250
Germany	528	584	416	456	383	455	880	885	857	876	751	554	838	779	675	602
England	428	359	332	218	267	316	470	543	414	383	396	529	655	1,032	762	964
Scotland	131	101	69	39	47	59	93	100	55	61	72	111	138	246	209	191
Ireland	129	136	89	102	127	135	130	134	139	113	116	129	156	201	232	184
Italy	166	170	195	145	213	148	232	324	201	223	156	205	307	136	137	239
Netherlands	14	11	18	16	13	8	10	14	15	15	25	29	32	24	33	40
Russia and Poland	22	23	42	18	27	15	23	69	30	37	62	67	73	112	80	89

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.
 RECAPITULATION—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal miscellaneous Occupations—</i>																
Total professional—cont.	15	48	27	13	18	43	13	18	7	8	7	12	8	9	18	30
Spain and Portugal	-	48	63	21	29	54	67	60	87	59	62	60	81	127	90	82
Sweden and Norway	-	41	28	30	51	43	141	124	94	80	64	46	68	61	83	73
Switzerland	-	5	18	6	3	19	1	3	6	3	5	4	17	8	13	13
Other Europe	-	235	113	133	85	179	240	192	140	73	78	•	•	•	•	•
British North America	-	8	9	14	7	2	5	—	7	4	6	•	•	•	•	•
Mexico	-	21	25	28	17	9	21	18	9	9	8	30	88	104	65	45
West Indies	-	18	5	6	6	5	12	—	6	5	—	10	13	22	23	42
Central and South America	-	23	36	28	38	20	43	105	8	54	17	57	56	66	44	115
Asia and Oceania	-	4	2	1	1	3	1	2	4	5	3	5	1	5	5	4
Other Countries, Islands, &c.	-	2,426	1,855	1,510	1,639	1,773	2,313	2,162	2,450	2,284	2,007	2,078	2,882	3,260	2,815	3,226
Total	-	2,400	1,855	1,510	1,639	1,773	2,313	2,162	2,450	2,284	2,007	2,078	2,882	3,260	2,815	3,226
Total skilled:																
Austria-Hungary:																
Bohemia	+	+	+	+	+	+	+	346	406	505	385	376	351	191	114	268
Hungary	-	69	52	86	84	375	298	237	260	470	226	598	717	627	297	1,093
Other Austria	-	613	438	521	553	1,060	1,401	1,219	1,208	1,109	772	1,012	1,772	1,831	1,485	2,071
Belgium	-	164	173	61	68	138	219	181	274	209	254	264	526	625	415	484

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.
 † Included in "Other Austria."

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.
 RECAPITULATION—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal miscellaneous Occupations—</i>																
Total skilled—cont.																
Denmark	401	232	177	184	275	532	731	967	1,046	861	613	745	1,088	1,111	968	1,080
France	1,956	2,000	1,702	697	876	628	886	943	943	830	794	658	957	1,033	1,191	1,100
Germany	6,605	4,351	4,261	4,177	4,665	10,877	24,080	26,527	25,190	22,125	12,990	9,295	11,219	12,829	10,926	10,332
England	8,093	4,951	3,335	3,187	4,766	10,584	9,526	11,545	9,634	9,615	8,125	8,355	11,948	15,356	13,221	10,320
Scotland	1,690	1,246	1,263	690	1,516	3,260	3,382	4,659	2,343	1,885	1,094	2,186	5,394	2,818	4,690	2,761
Ireland	2,593	1,662	1,326	923	1,210	3,204	2,692	4,485	5,000	4,710	2,805	3,186	2,959	3,600	3,395	2,524
Greece	5	2	2	4	5	2	7	26	10	6	25	7	11	27	31	40
Italy	492	437	504	322	437	513	1,502	2,653	2,630	1,776	1,391	2,003	2,925	1,591	2,322	3,059
Netherlands	112	96	47	69	54	139	332	591	259	282	250	189	261	406	276	314
Russia and Poland	606	429	598	290	351	800	684	1,454	556	1,392	1,451	2,046	3,529	2,984	3,290	3,400
Spain and Portugal	461	260	774	151	150	97	80	32	81	146	115	74	106	186	107	80
Sweden and Norway	1,222	1,454	981	1,180	1,781	4,368	4,171	4,688	4,144	2,900	2,126	2,750	4,789	5,413	3,522	2,677
Switzerland	214	287	315	355	591	1,122	2,588	2,241	2,244	1,563	1,046	740	790	822	921	732
Other Europe	27	27	22	13	16	23	13	21	5	33	76	76	217	119	61	71
British North America	6,093	4,485	4,088	2,642	2,697	11,037	12,214	8,580	5,077	3,270	2,443	*	*	*	*	*
Mexico	131	164	151	171	242	191	144	163	222	129	118	*	*	*	*	*
West Indies	514	408	435	342	484	518	916	563	451	1,268	1,370	1,269	2,351	2,331	2,433	1,388

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.
 RECAPITULATION—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal miscellaneous Occupations—</i>																
Total skilled—cont.																
Central and South America	39	22	10	26	2	20	16	10	14	11	8	32	63	57	80	57
Asia and Oceania	452	481	411	369	402	400	560	407	334	256	238	387	342	301	427	582
Africa	1	4	—	2	3	—	1	2	1	5	1	2	1	7	4	2
Islands of the Atlantic	235	268	193	120	74	41	64	124	63	185	111	262	134	110	278	245
Total	33,803	24,200	21,006	16,531	21,362	49,929	66,457	72,694	62,505	55,061	39,617	56,522	52,463	59,965	50,457	44,540
Total Miscellaneous:																
Austria-Hungary:																
Bohemia	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	1,347	1,473	2,190	1,692	1,254	1,302	1,464	1,107	1,699
Hungary	217	221	115	182	187	1,967	3,231	5,199	7,277	9,445	4,768	7,917	8,563	10,006	6,788	14,429
Other Austria	1,481	1,536	1,282	1,175	1,449	3,079	5,184	4,298	4,082	5,752	4,794	5,589	9,066	14,062	9,735	16,910
Belgium	182	204	174	100	181	319	564	314	374	465	400	305	636	780	850	776
Denmark	819	645	626	913	1,630	3,125	3,751	5,200	4,270	3,222	2,271	2,794	3,782	3,912	3,718	4,187
France	2,984	2,666	1,600	1,511	1,335	1,315	1,913	1,932	1,545	1,200	1,284	1,105	1,763	2,180	2,241	2,412
Germany	14,633	9,572	8,674	9,700	11,666	26,120	63,002	67,432	51,282	51,638	35,143	24,916	34,885	35,733	30,941	29,885
England	12,194	6,951	5,754	5,102	7,308	19,106	20,474	27,772	18,551	17,687	13,611	17,324	25,736	25,480	20,469	18,889
Scotland	1,773	1,182	919	984	1,287	3,193	4,134	4,922	3,630	2,632	2,734	3,470	4,907	5,418	4,519	3,921
Ireland	16,692	8,116	6,073	7,196	9,306	38,560	36,386	38,867	41,565	31,746	27,452	27,613	36,556	37,200	36,436	30,436

• Included in "Other Austria."

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &C.—continued.
 RECAPITULATION—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal miscellaneous Occupations—</i>																
<i>Total Miscellaneous—cont.</i>																
Greece	10	9	16	6	10	13	7	95	27	15	96	67	265	647	89	352
Italy	1,828	1,415	1,485	2,055	2,969	5,820	8,459	20,361	23,146	8,492	6,314	9,992	26,332	34,497	13,813	33,451
Netherlands	360	224	150	181	186	908	2,478	2,293	1,384	1,145	784	739	1,492	1,963	2,227	1,559
Russia and Poland	2,047	1,738	1,988	1,024	1,388	2,852	4,045	9,673	4,565	7,934	7,453	9,136	15,770	18,228	17,040	21,642
Spain and Portugal	271	264	388	490	379	267	251	180	245	637	453	277	213	218	280	538
Sweden and Norway	8,792	4,559	3,697	4,006	8,689	29,016	32,276	44,457	24,157	17,426	14,219	21,462	32,128	40,139	24,100	21,836
Switzerland	719	563	674	702	1,197	1,937	3,270	3,297	3,851	2,761	2,019	1,579	1,833	3,383	3,298	3,178
Other Europe	29	31	24	67	16	291	75	58	68	170	280	210	736	561	394	250
British North America	7,260	9,003	10,230	12,779	12,986	43,438	42,004	31,934	14,827	17,571	11,817	*	*	*	*	*
Mexico	277	222	150	151	181	118	66	108	120	123	92	*	*	*	*	*
West Indies	423	312	301	305	237	326	217	243	203	280	295	488	707	737	573	487
Central and South America	56	58	34	64	31	53	45	36	32	29	35	144	159	205	252	296
Asia and Oceania	16,142	22,559	10,641	8,676	9,293	5,312	11,916	39,319	8,116	661	300	504	868	1,540	2,182	3,523
Africa	11	11	5	1	2	7	9	15	24	1	26	40	25	35	52	40
Islands of the Atlantic	946	524	650	436	1,103	417	825	1,149	1,255	994	1,381	626	1,027	1,266	1,490	1,767
Total	84,546	72,275	55,950	57,806	73,033	188,109	244,492	310,501	216,049	184,195	141,702	137,651	210,751	239,644	182,394	211,756

* Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.
 RECAPITULATION—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal miscellaneous Occupations—</i>																
cont.																
No occupation or occupation not stated (mainly children and women):																
Austria-Hungary:																
Bohemia	•	•	•	•	•	•	•	4,002	3,561	5,459	4,202	2,674	2,913	2,468	1,554	2,350
Hungary	449	380	200	373	348	1,978	3,266	3,450	3,687	4,900	4,371	3,892	5,049	5,130	3,848	6,210
Other Austria	4,441	3,646	3,270	2,750	3,302	8,604	14,505	7,377	5,599	6,024	5,056	5,314	9,405	9,897	8,832	10,228
Belgium	277	127	124	182	253	706	974	870	783	612	973	642	1,355	1,708	1,243	1,573
Denmark	1,420	754	866	1,002	1,553	2,900	4,602	5,421	4,976	5,019	3,185	2,658	3,607	3,878	3,960	4,145
France	3,635	2,808	2,271	1,795	2,262	2,273	2,100	2,390	2,105	1,471	1,368	1,415	2,173	2,442	2,311	2,325
Germany	26,603	17,480	15,947	14,080	17,888	47,186	122,278	155,786	117,457	105,037	75,536	49,658	59,923	60,370	56,990	51,098
England	19,880	12,348	9,695	10,141	12,361	36,624	35,738	44,194	36,148	29,503	24,353	24,091	36,240	42,366	35,244	27,216
Scotland	3,716	2,053	1,881	1,789	2,375	6,128	7,539	9,256	5,831	4,482	4,426	5,341	8,290	10,975	9,078	5,228
Ireland	18,548	9,661	7,081	7,711	9,370	20,707	33,134	32,946	34,682	27,315	21,532	19,769	26,669	32,512	25,504	19,890
Greece	•	•	5	3	6	6	5	4	33	16	51	50	37	107	35	129
Italy	1,054	888	1,159	1,060	2,140	5,846	5,148	8,821	5,815	6,019	5,781	9,115	18,055	15,454	9,685	15,234
Netherlands	751	524	376	342	500	2,283	5,777	6,649	3,581	2,756	1,630	1,357	2,721	3,462	3,924	2,413
Russia and Poland	6,306	3,509	4,509	2,254	3,226	3,524	5,903	10,394	6,769	7,862	11,277	10,490	17,522	17,968	15,428	21,540
Spain and Portugal	617	417	707	463	302	242	311	190	105	210	215	219	219	186	178	323
Sweden and Norway	5,890	4,715	4,835	4,042	7,847	25,643	36,011	44,503	33,227	23,141	13,197	16,229	22,107	27,283	21,665	16,407
Switzerland	865	603	669	721	1,322	3,004	5,294	5,182	6,582	4,982	2,766	2,440	2,523	3,471	2,798	2,660

* Included in "Other Austria."

No. 2.—STATEMENT FROM ANNUAL REPORT, &c.—continued.
 RECAPITULATION—continued.

Principal Occupations and Nationalities.	1875.	1876.	1877.	1878.	1879.	1880.	1881.	1882.	1883.	1884.	1885.	1886.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.
<i>Principal miscellaneous Occupations—</i> <i>cont.</i>																
No occupation or occupation not stated (mainly children and women)— <i>cont.</i>																
Other Europe	39	100	35	102	32	143	79	90	123	444	595	440	1,420	732	697	415
British North America	10,318	8,748	7,735	10,014	15,500	45,052	70,383	57,589	50,197	39,870	23,953	†	†	†	†	†
Mexico	186	237	135	129	126	181	110	95	120	174	107	†	†	†	†	†
West Indies	812	553	629	344	338	498	527	467	240	651	804	948	1,730	1,708	1,852	1,201
Central and South America	52	73	45	42	39	54	66	65	54	43	25	92	159	163	159	190
Asia and Oceania	1,128	1,193	468	676	705	561	652	688	402	439	213	505	620	1,207	1,268	1,452
Africa	21	23	10	8	7	11	16	14	23	6	17	12	5	28	22	16
Islands of the Atlantic	226	215	283	177	59	101	208	214	104	130	305	143	118	263	340	669
Born at sea	55	23	21	13	31	60	*99	99	74	86	67	55	63	57	55	50
Total	106,723	71,111	63,316	62,622	81,772	217,446	355,670	402,855	325,318	277,052	211,730	157,952	224,073	243,900	208,761	195,770
Totals:																
Professional	2,426	2,400	1,885	1,510	1,639	1,773	2,812	2,992	2,450	2,284	2,097	2,073	2,882	3,360	2,315	3,236
Skilled	33,803	24,200	21,006	16,531	21,362	49,929	66,457	72,664	62,505	55,061	39,317	36,522	52,403	59,985	50,457	44,540
Miscellaneous	84,546	72,275	55,650	57,806	73,053	188,109	244,402	310,501	215,040	184,195	141,702	137,651	210,751	239,644	182,294	211,756
No occupation and occupation not stated.	106,723	71,111	63,316	62,622	81,772	217,446	355,670	402,855	325,318	277,052	211,730	157,952	224,063	243,900	208,761	195,770
Total	227,468	169,986	141,837	135,469	177,823	457,537	669,431	788,992	605,322	518,392	395,346	354,203	490,109	546,889	444,427	455,302

* Of these, 13 picked up at sea.

† Immigrants from the British North American Possessions and Mexico not included since July 1, 1885.

APPENDIX II.—FOREIGN-BORN POPULATION IN THE UNITED STATES,
DISTRIBUTED ACCORDING TO PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES OF BIRTH,
1850-1890.

Statement from Census Bulletin No. 31, showing the foreign-born population of the United States as a whole, distributed according to principal countries of birth, for each Census since 1850 :—

Country of Birth.	1890.	1880.	1870.	1860.	1850.
Total - - - - -	9,240,547	6,679,943	5,567,229	4,138,697	2,244,602
Canada and Newfoundland - - -	980,938	717,157	493,464	249,070	147,711
Mexico - - - - -	77,853	68,309	42,435	27,466	13,317
South America - - - - -	5,006	4,566	3,565	3,263	1,543
Cuba and West Indies - - - - -	23,256	16,401	11,570	7,353	5,772
Ireland - - - - -	1,871,509	1,834,571	1,855,827	1,611,304	961,719
England* - - - - -	909,092	664,100	555,046	433,494	278,675
Scotland - - - - -	242,231	170,136	140,835	108,518	70,550
Wales - - - - -	100,079	83,302	74,533	45,703	29,868
Germany - - - - -	2,784,894	1,966,742	1,690,533	1,276,075	583,774†
Austria‡ - - - - -	123,271	38,663	30,508	25,061	946
Holland - - - - -	81,828	58,090	46,802	23,281	9,848
Belgium - - - - -	22,630	15,335	12,553	9,072	1,313
Switzerland - - - - -	104,069	88,621	75,153	53,327	13,358
Norway - - - - -	322,665	181,729	114,246	43,995	12,678
Sweden - - - - -	475,041	194,337	97,332	13,625	3,559
Denmark - - - - -	132,543	64,196	30,107	9,902	1,538
Russia - - - - -	182,644	35,722	4,644	3,100	1,414
Hungary - - - - -	62,435	11,526	3,737	—	—
Bohemia - - - - -	118,106	85,361	40,289	—	—
Poland - - - - -	147,440	48,557	14,436	7,298	—
France - - - - -	113,174	106,971	116,402	109,870	54,069
Italy - - - - -	182,580	44,230	17,157	10,518	3,645
Spain - - - - -	6,185	5,121	3,764	4,244	3,113
Portugal - - - - -	15,996	8,133	4,542	4,116	1,274
China - - - - -	106,688	104,468	63,042	35,565	758
Other foreign countries - - - - -	54,385	43,244	24,707	12,397	43,860

* Includes Great Britain, not specified.

† Includes 10,549 persons born in Prussia.

‡ Returned in 1860 as one of the German States.

In the above table the total foreign-born population of 1850 is taken from page xxxviii of the United States Census Report for that Census, which differs from that given on page xxxvii of the same report. The total foreign-born population of 1860 is ascertained by

combining the numbers of foreign-born by counties in each State, as shown by the United States Census report for that Census. These totals for some States do not agree with the totals of the nativities of the foreign-born population given in other tables of that report.

The whole number of foreign-born returned under the Census of 1850 was 2,244,602. According to the Census of 1860 the number of persons of foreign birth in the United States was 4,138,697, the increase during the decade from 1850 to 1860 being 1,894,095, or 84.38 per cent. For the decade from 1860 to 1870 there was an increase in foreign-born of 1,428,532, or 34.52 per cent., the total foreign-born for the Census of 1870 being 5,567,229. In 1880 the foreign-born numbered 6,679,943, showing an increase from 1870 to 1880 of 1,112,714, or 19.99 per cent. During the decade from 1880 to 1890 the foreign-born increased 2,569,604, or 38.47 per cent., the whole number of foreign-born returned in 1890 being 9,249,547.

Year	Foreign-born	Percentage of total population
1850	2,244,602	10.1
1860	4,138,697	14.5
1870	5,567,229	16.2
1880	6,679,943	16.8
1890	9,249,547	19.3

U. S. CENSUS BUREAU, 1890. THE FOREIGN-BORN IN THE UNITED STATES, 1850-1890.

APPENDIX III.—Showing NATIONALITY AND RELIGION OF RECIPIENTS
OF RELIEF FROM THE NEW YORK ASSOCIATION FOR IMPROVING
THE CONDITION OF THE POOR DURING THE SIX YEARS 1887-
92.

Nationality.	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.
American	537	2,074	1,382	1,516	2,024	1,800
Irish-American, parent or parents born in United States.	—	—	—	—	1,800	1,430
German-American, parent or parents born in United States.	—	—	—	—	1,001	1,200
Irish	953	1,928	1,243	1,200	1,504	1,210
German	818	1,680	1,162	1,011	1,200	1,515
Prussian	—	4	3	8	—	—
English	180	287	363	347	595	606
Italian	32	80	62	148	102	353
Swedish	11	30	41	47	52	199
Scotch	34	113	93	173	84	98
Bohemian	22	55	34	35	17	62
French	50	89	67	150	51	61
Alsace	—	—	—	18	4	—
Canadian	2	29	14	144	49	53
Swiss	6	21	19	44	65	49
Russian	9	23	60	41	46	24
Austrian	1	6	5	19	9	14
Hungarian	5	11	11	24	18	13
Norwegian	4	7	2	16	9	12
Polish	7	21	19	37	37	12
Welsh	2	15	21	22	8	11
Spanish	3	21	12	28	6	11
Cuban	7	17	4	—	—	—
Danish	5	13	15	21	17	7
West Indian	—	—	—	5	5	6
Greek	—	6	—	3	—	—
Belgian	—	3	1	—	—	5
East Indian	—	—	—	9	—	4
Syrian	—	—	—	17	3	4
Mexican	—	—	—	—	3	—
South American	—	—	—	1	—	3
Portuguese	—	—	1	—	5	3
Armenian	—	—	1	—	—	—
Hollanders	—	5	—	—	—	2
Arabian	—	—	1	3	—	—
Roumanian	—	2	2	—	—	—
Turkish	—	2	—	2	—	—
North American Indian	—	—	—	—	—	2

RELIGION.

	1887.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.
Protestant - - - - -	1,403	2,981	2,104	2,339	4,611	4,531
Roman Catholic - - - - -	1,242	2,743	1,752	2,224	3,350	3,621
Hebrew - - - - -	63	147	219	191	117	192
Not stated - - - - -	—	203	563	394	225	245
Total - - - - -	2,708	6,579	4,638	5,178	8,233	8,589

APPENDIX IV.—STATEMENT SHOWING NATIVITY and PARENTAGE OF UNITED STATES PRISONERS IN 1890, FROM CENSUS BULLETIN, No. 352.

1. ONE PARENT FOREIGN.

The number of white prisoners born in the United States who had one native parent and one parent foreign-born is 2,881 (2,729 men and 152 women).

Of these 2,881 there are 1,176 (1,114 men and 62 women) with American fathers and 1,705 (1,615 men and 90 women) with American mothers.

Both these groups are combined in the following statement. The first column of figures shows the number of foreign-born parents in the aggregate and of each nationality, the second that of foreign-born fathers, the third that of foreign-born mothers.

BIRTHPLACE OF FOREIGN FATHERS OR FOREIGN MOTHERS.

Birthplace of Foreign Parents.	Total.	Fathers.		Mothers.		Birthplace of Foreign Parents.	Total.	Fathers.		Mothers.	
		Fathers.	Mothers.	Fathers.	Mothers.			Fathers.	Mothers.		
Total - - -	2,881	1,705	1,176	Italy - - -	5	3	2				
				Jamaica - - -	1	1	—				
Algiers - - -	2	—	2	Jerusalem - - -	1	—	1				
Australia - - -	9	4	5	Mexico - - -	41	27	14				
Austria - - -	4	1	3	Norway - - -	5	5	—				
Bohemia - - -	4	4	—	Poland - - -	1	1	—				
Canada, English -	278	141	137	Portugal - - -	2	2	—				
Canada, French -	14	8	6	Prussia - - -	5	4	1				
Chile - - -	2	—	2	Russia - - -	3	3	—				
Cuba - - -	4	2	2	Scotland - - -	191	123	68				
Denmark - - -	3	2	1	South America -	2	1	1				
East Indies - - -	1	1	—	Spain - - -	22	15	7				
England - - -	449	298	151	Sweden - - -	7	7	—				
France - - -	91	59	32	Switzerland - -	10	9	1				
Germany - - -	394	266	123	Wales - - -	35	23	12				
Holland - - -	5	2	3	West Indies - -	2	—	2				
Ireland - - -	1,276	687	589	At sea - - -	12	6	6				

2. BOTH PARENTS FOREIGN.

The number of white prisoners born in the United States, but having both parents foreign-born, is 12,601 (11,766 men and 835 women). Of these 12,601 there are 11,327 (10,574 men and 753 women) whose parents were of the same nationality, and 1,274 (1,192 men and 82 women) whose parents were of different nationalities.

The 11,327 who compose the first of these two groups are distributed by nationalities as follows:—

BIRTHPLACE OF FOREIGN PARENTS.

Countries.	Total.	Men.	Women.	Countries.	Total.	Men.	Women.
Total . . .	11,327	10,574	753	Both parents born in—			
Both parents born in—				Holland . . .	13	13	—
Arabia . . .	1	1	—	Hungary . . .	1	1	—
Australia . . .	6	6	—	India . . .	1	1	—
Austria . . .	16	16	—	Ireland . . .	7,985	7,359	576
Bavaria . . .	1	1	—	Italy . . .	33	32	1
Belgium . . .	5	4	1	Jamaica . . .	1	1	—
Bohemia . . .	5	5	—	Mexico . . .	114	114	—
Canada, English . . .	293	271	22	Norway . . .	31	31	—
Canada, French . . .	48	47	1	Poland . . .	19	19	—
Chile . . .	2	2	—	Portugal . . .	7	7	—
Cuba . . .	2	2	—	Prussia . . .	5	5	—
Denmark . . .	6	6	—	Russia . . .	16	16	—
East Indies . . .	1	1	—	Scandinavia . . .	4	4	—
Egypt . . .	1	1	—	Scotland . . .	240	223	17
England . . .	590	546	44	Spain . . .	4	4	—
Fiji islands . . .	1	1	—	Sweden . . .	32	30	2
Finland . . .	2	2	—	Switzerland . . .	25	25	—
France . . .	107	104	3	Wales . . .	46	44	2
Germany . . .	1,709	1,625	84	Western islands . . .	3	3	—
				West Indies . . .	1	1	—

3. ANALYSIS OF

Nationalities.	Total.	Birthplace						
		Eng-land.	Ireland.	Scot-land.	Wales.	Ger-many.	France.	Italy.
Total - - -	1,274	288	341	196	22	159	89	10
Africa - - -	2	1	—	—	—	—	—	—
Australia - - -	6	—	2	—	—	1	—	2
Austria - - -	3	2	—	—	—	1	—	—
Bavaria - - -	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Belgium - - -	2	—	1	—	—	—	1	—
Bohemia - - -	1	—	1	—	—	—	—	—
Canada, English - - -	134	27	70	12	—	8	8	—
Canada, French - - -	7	1	2	—	—	—	3	—
Denmark - - -	3	1	1	—	—	—	1	—
England - - -	226	—	118	46	7	23	13	2
France - - -	79	16	19	7	2	25	—	1
Germany - - -	113	22	25	10	1	—	27	—
Greece - - -	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Holland - - -	8	1	—	—	—	3	2	1
Ireland - - -	484	171	—	118	10	79	25	4
Italy - - -	4	—	—	—	—	1	2	—
Mexico - - -	3	—	1	1	—	1	—	—
Norway - - -	2	1	—	—	—	—	—	—
Portugal - - -	1	—	1	—	—	—	—	—
Prussia - - -	2	—	—	—	—	—	1	—
Russia - - -	2	—	—	—	—	2	—	—
Scandinavia - - -	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Scotland - - -	159	36	92	—	2	10	3	—
South America - - -	1	—	—	—	—	—	1	—
Spain - - -	9	2	2	1	—	1	2	—
Sweden - - -	1	—	1	—	—	—	—	—
Switzerland - - -	6	—	—	—	—	4	—	—
Wales - - -	14	7	5	1	—	—	—	—

Birthplace of Mothers.

3. ANALYSIS OF

Nationalities.	Birthplace							
	Azore islands.	Ba- varia.	Bel- gium.	Brazil.	China.	Cuba.	Corsica.	Hol- land.
Total - - -	1	2	2	1	3	5	1	8
Africa - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Australia - - -	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	-
Austria - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Bavaria - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Belgium - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Bohemia - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Canada, English - - -	-	-	-	-	-	1	-	1
Canada, French - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Denmark - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
England - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
France - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Germany - - -	-	1	1	1	-	1	-	6
Greece - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Holland - - -	-	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
Ireland - - -	1	-	1	-	2	2	-	-
Italy - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Mexico - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Norway - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Portugal - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Prussia - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Russia - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Scandinavia - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Scotland - - -	-	-	-	-	-	1	1	-
South America - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Spain - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Sweden - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Switzerland - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1
Wales - - -	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-

Birthplace of Mothers—continued.

MIXED PARENTAGE—*continued.**of Fathers—continued*

Poland.	Portugal.	Prussia.	Russia.	At Sea.	Spain.	Switzer- land.	Turkey.	New Zealand.
2	2	4	3	3	10	9	1	1
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	1	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	1	1	1	1	3	—	—	—
2	—	1	2	—	1	5	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	1	1	—	1	3	2	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	2	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	—

APPENDIX V.

STATE OF NEW YORK AND FACTORY INSPECTION.

COPY OF ACT AS SUPPLIED TO FACTORY OCCUPIERS BY THE
DEPARTMENT.

1. "FACTORY INSPECTION LAW.

" PASSED MAY 18, 1886; AMENDED MAY 25, 1887; AMENDED JUNE 15, 1889; AMENDED MAY 21, 1890; AMENDED MAY 18, 1892; AMENDED MARCH 22, 1893.

" CHAPTER 409, LAWS OF 1886 (AS AMENDED BY CHAPTER 173, LAWS OF 1893).

" AN ACT to Regulate the employment of Women and Children in Manufacturing Establishments, and to provide for the appointment of Inspectors to enforce the same.

" *The People of the State of New York, represented in Senate and Assembly do enact as follows:*

" **Section 1.** No person under eighteen years of age and no woman under twenty-one years of age, employed in any manufacturing establishment, shall be required, permitted or suffered to work therein more than sixty hours in any one week, or more than ten hours in any one day, unless for the purpose of making a shorter work day on the last day of the week, nor more hours in any one week than will make an average of ten hours per day for the whole number of days in which such person or such woman shall so work during such week; and in no case shall any person under eighteen years of age, or any woman under twenty-one years of age, work in any such establishment after nine o'clock in the evening or before six o'clock in the morning of any day. Every person, firm, corporation, or company employing any person under eighteen years of age, or any woman under twenty-one years of age, in any manufacturing establishment, shall post and keep posted in a conspicuous place in every room where such help is employed, a printed notice stating the number hours of labour per day required of such persons for each day of the week and the number of hours of labour exacted or permitted to be performed by such persons shall not exceed the number of hours of labour so posted as being required. The time of beginning and ending the day's labour shall be the time stated in such notice; provided, that such women under twenty-one and persons under eighteen years of age may begin after the time set for beginning and stop before the time set in such notice for the stopping of the day's labour; but they shall not be permitted or required to perform any labour before the time stated on the notices as the time for beginning the day's labour, nor after the time stated upon the notices as the hour for ending the day's labour. The terms of the notice stating the hours of labour required shall not be changed after the beginning of labour on the first day of the week without the consent of the Factory Inspector, Assistant Factory Inspector, or a Deputy Factory Inspector. When, in order to make a shorter work day on the last day of the week, women

under twenty-one and youths under eighteen years of age are to be required, permitted or suffered to work more than ten hours in any one day, in a manufacturing establishment, it shall be the duty of the proprietor, agent, foreman, superintendent or other person employing such persons to notify the Factory Inspector, Assistant Factory Inspector, or a Deputy Factory Inspector, in charge of the district, in writing, of such intention, stating the number of hours of labour per day which it is proposed to permit or require, and the date upon which the necessity for such lengthened day's labour shall cease, and also again forward such notification when it shall actually have ceased. A record of the amount of overtime so worked, and of the days upon which it was performed, with the names of the employes who were thus required or permitted to work more than ten hours in any one day, shall be kept in the office of the manufacturing establishment and produced upon the demand of any officer appointed to enforce the provisions of this Act.

“ § 2. No child under fourteen years of age shall be employed in any manufacturing establishment within this State. It shall be the duty of every person employing children to keep a register, in which shall be recorded the name, birthplace, age and place of residence of every person employed by him under the age of sixteen years; and it shall be unlawful for any proprietor, agent, foreman or other person in or connected with a manufacturing establishment to hire or employ any child under the age of sixteen years to work therein without there is first provided and placed on file in the office an affidavit made by the parent or guardian, stating the age, date and place of birth of said child; if said child have no parent or guardian, then such affidavit shall be made by the child, which affidavit shall be kept on file by the employer, and which said register and affidavit shall be produced for inspection on demand made by the Inspector, Assistant Inspector, or any of the deputies appointed under this Act. There shall be posted conspicuously in every room where children under sixteen years of age are employed, a list of their names with their ages respectively. No child under the age of sixteen years shall be employed in any manufacturing establishment who cannot read and write simple sentences in the English language, except during the vacation of the public schools in the city or town where such minor lives. The Factory Inspector, Assistant Inspector, and Deputy Inspectors shall have power to demand a certificate of physical fitness from some regular physician, in the case of children who may seem physically unable to perform the labour at which they may be employed, and shall have power to prohibit the employment of any minor that cannot obtain such a certificate.

“ § 3. No person, firm or corporation shall employ or permit any child under the age of fifteen years to have the care, custody, management of or to operate any elevator or shall employ or permit any person under the age of eighteen years to have the care, custody, management or operation of any elevator running at a speed of over two hundred feet a minute.

“ § 4. It shall be the duty of the owner, agent, or lessee of any manufacturing establishment where there is any elevator, hoisting-shaft, or well-hole, to cause the same to be properly and substantially enclosed or secured, if in the opinion of the Factory Inspector, or of the Assistant Factory Inspector, or a Deputy Factory Inspector unless disapproved by the Factory Inspector, it is necessary to protect the lives or limbs of those employed in such establishment. It shall also be the duty of the owner, agent or lessee of each of such establishments to provide or cause to be provided, if, in the opinion of the Inspector, the safety of persons

in or about the premises should require it, such proper trap, or automatic doors, so fastened in or at all elevator ways as to form a substantial surface when closed, and so constructed as to open and close by action of the elevator in its passage, either ascending or descending, but the requirements of this section shall not apply to passenger elevators that are closed on all sides. The Factory Inspector, Assistant Factory Inspector and Deputy Factory Inspectors, may inspect the cables, gearing or other apparatus of elevators in manufacturing establishments, and require that the same be kept in a safe condition.

“ § 5. Proper and substantial hand-rails shall be provided on all stairways in manufacturing establishments, and where, in the opinion of the Factory Inspector, or of the Assistant Factory Inspector or Deputy Factory Inspector, unless disapproved by the Factory Inspector, it is necessary, the steps of said stairs in all such establishments shall be substantially covered with rubber, securely fastened thereon, for the better safety of persons employed in said establishments. The stairs shall be properly screened at the sides and bottom, and all doors leading in or to such factory shall be so constructed as to open outwardly where practicable, and shall be neither locked, bolted nor fastened during working hours.

“ § 6. If, in the opinion of the Factory Inspector, or of the Assistant Factory Inspector, or of a Deputy Factory Inspector, it is necessary to insure the safety of the persons employed in any manufacturing establishment, three or more stories in height, one or more fire-escapes, as may be deemed by the Factory Inspector as necessary and sufficient therefor, shall be provided on the outside of such establishment, connecting with each floor above the first, well fastened and secured and of sufficient strength, each of which fire-escapes shall have landings or balconies, not less than six feet in length and three feet in width, guarded by iron railings not less than three feet in height, and embracing at least two windows at each story and connecting with the interior by easily accessible and unobstructed openings, and the balconies or landings shall be connected by iron stairs, not less than eighteen inches wide, the steps not to be less than six inches tread, placed at a proper slant, and protected by a well secured hand-rail on both sides with a twelve inch wide drop-ladder from the lower platform reaching to the ground. Any other plan or style of fire-escape shall be sufficient, if approved by the Factory Inspector, but if not so approved, the Factory Inspector may notify the owner, proprietor or lessee of such establishment or of the building in which such establishment is conducted, or the agent or superintendent or either of them, in writing, that any such other plan or style of fire-escape is not sufficient, and may by an order in writing, served in like manner, require one or more fire-escapes, as he shall deem necessary and sufficient, to be provided for such establishment, at such locations and of such plan and style as shall be specified in such written order. Within twenty days after the service of such order, the number of fire-escapes required in such order for such establishment shall be provided therefor, each of which shall be either of the plan and style and in accordance with the specifications in said order required, or of the plan and style in this section above described and declared to be sufficient. The windows or doors to each fire-escape shall be of sufficient size and be located as far as possible consistent with accessibility, from the stairways and elevator hatchways or openings, and the ladder thereon shall extend to the roof. Stationary stairs or ladders shall be provided on the inside of such establishment from the upper story to the roof, as a means of escape in case of fire.

“ § 7. It shall be the duty of the owner, agent, superintendent or other person having charge of such manufacturing establishment, or of any floor or part thereof, to report in writing to the Factory Inspector all accidents or injury done to any person in such factory, within forty-eight hours of the time of the accident, stating as fully as possible the extent and cause of such injury, and the place where the injured person has been sent, with such other information relative thereto as may be required by the Factory Inspector. The Factory Inspector or Assistant Factory Inspector and Deputy Factory Inspectors under the supervision of the Factory Inspector, are hereby authorized and empowered to fully investigate the causes of such accidents, and to require such precautions to be taken as will, in their judgment, prevent the recurrence of similar accidents.

“ § 8. It shall be the duty of the owner of any manufacturing establishment, or his agents, superintendent or other person in charge of the same, to furnish and supply, or cause to be furnished and supplied therein, in the discretion of the Factory Inspector, or of the Assistant Factory Inspector, or of a Deputy Factory Inspector, unless disapproved by the Factory Inspector, where machinery is used, belt shifters or other safe mechanical contrivances, for the purpose of throwing on or off belts or pulleys; and wherever possible machinery therein shall be provided with loose pulleys; all vats, pans, saws, planers, cogs, gearing, belting, shafting, set-screws, and machinery of every description therein shall be properly guarded, and no person shall remove or make ineffective any safeguard around or attached to any planer, saw, belting, shafting or other machinery, or around any vat or pan, while the same is in use, unless for the purpose of immediately making repairs thereto, and all such safeguards shall be promptly replaced. By attaching thereto a notice to that effect, the use of any machinery may be prohibited by the Factory Inspector, Assistant Factory Inspector or by a Deputy Factory Inspector, unless such notice is disapproved by the Factory Inspector, should such machinery be regarded as dangerous. Such notice must be signed by the Inspector who issues it, and shall only be removed after the required safeguards are provided, and the unsafe or dangerous machine shall not be used in the meantime. Exhaust fans of sufficient power shall be provided for the purpose of carrying off dust from emery wheels and grindstones, and dust-creating machinery therein. No person under eighteen years of age and no woman under twenty-one years of age shall be allowed to clean machinery while in motion.

“ § 9. A suitable and proper wash-room and water-closets shall be provided in each manufacturing establishment, and such water-closets shall be properly screened and ventilated and be kept at all times in a clean condition, and if women or girls are employed in any such establishment, the water-closets used by them shall have separate approaches and be separate and apart from those used by men. All water-closets shall be kept free of obscene writing and marking. A dressing-room shall be provided for women and girls, when required by the Factory Inspector, in any manufacturing establishment in which women and girls are employed.

“ § 10. Not less than sixty minutes shall be allowed for the noon-day meals in any manufacturing establishment in this State. The Factory Inspector, his Assistant or any of his deputies, may, for good cause shown, issue a written permit in special cases, allowing a shorter meal time at noon. Such permit must be conspicuously posted in the main entrance of the establishment, and may be revoked at any time the Factory Inspector deems necessary. Where employes are permitted

or required to work overtime after six o'clock in the evening, for a longer period than one hour, they shall be allowed at least twenty minutes after six o'clock to obtain a lunch.

“§ 11. The walls and ceilings of each work-room in every manufacturing establishment shall be lime-washed or painted when in the opinion of the Factory Inspector, Assistant Factory Inspector or of a Deputy Factory Inspector, unless disapproved of by the Factory Inspector, it shall be conducive to the health or cleanliness of the persons working therein.

“§ 12. Any officer of the Factory Inspection Department, or other competent person designated for such purpose by the Factory Inspector shall inspect any building used as a workshop or manufacturing establishment or anything attached thereto, located therein or connected therewith outside of the cities of New York and Brooklyn, which has been represented to be unsafe or dangerous to life or limb. If it appears upon such inspection that the building or anything attached thereto, located therein or connected therewith is unsafe or dangerous to life or limb, the Factory Inspector shall order the same to be removed or rendered safe and secure, and if such notification be not complied with within a reasonable time, he shall prosecute whoever may be responsible for such delinquency.

“§ 13. No room or apartment in any tenement or dwelling-house, shall be used, except by the immediate members of the family living therein, for the manufacture of coats, vests, trousers, knee-pants, overalls, cloaks, hats, caps, suspenders, jerseys, blouses, waists, waist-bands underwear, neck-wear, furs, fur trimmings, fur garments, shirts, purses, feathers, artificial flowers, cigarettes, or cigars. No person, firm or corporation shall hire or employ any person to work in any room or apartment, in any rear building or building in the rear of a tenement or dwelling-house at making in whole or in part any of the articles mentioned in this section, without first obtaining a written permit from the Factory Inspector, his Assistant, or one of his Deputies, stating the maximum number of persons allowed to be employed therein. Such permit shall not be granted until an inspection of such premises is made by the Factory Inspector, his Assistant, or one of his Deputies, and may be revoked by the Factory Inspector, at any time the health of the community or of those so employed may require it. It shall be framed and posted in a conspicuous place in the room or in one of the rooms to which it relates. Every person, firm, company or corporation, contracting for the manufacture of any of the articles mentioned in this section, or giving out the incomplete material from which they or any of them are to be made, or to be only or partially finished, shall keep a written register of the names and addresses of all persons to whom such work is given to be made, or with whom they may have contracted to do the same. Such register shall be produced for inspection and a copy thereof shall be furnished on demand made by the Factory Inspector, his Assistant, or one of his Deputies. No person shall knowingly sell or expose for sale any of the articles mentioned in this section which were made in any dwelling-house, tenement-house, or building in the rear of a tenement or dwelling-house, without the permit required by this section; and any officer appointed to enforce the provisions of this Act who shall find any of such articles made in violation of the provisions hereof, shall conspicuously affix to such article a label containing the words “tenement made” printed in Small Pica capital letters on a tag not less than two inches in length; and such officer shall notify the person owning or alleged to own such articles that he has so labelled them. No person

shall remove or deface any tag or label so affixed. When any article mentioned in this section is found by the Factory Inspector, his Assistant, or any of his Deputies, to be made under unclean or unhealthy conditions, he shall affix thereto the label prescribed by this section, and shall immediately notify the local board of health, whose duty it shall be to disinfect the same and thereupon remove such label.

“ § 14. Not less than two hundred and fifty cubic feet of air space shall be allowed for each person in any work-room where persons are employed during the hours between six o'clock in the morning and six o'clock in the evening, and not less than four hundred cubic feet of air space shall be provided for each person in any work-room where persons are employed between six o'clock in the evening and six o'clock in the morning. By a written permit the Factory Inspector, Assistant Factory Inspector, or a Deputy Factory Inspector, with the consent of the Factory Inspector, may allow persons to be employed in a room where there are less than four hundred cubic feet of air space for each person employed between six o'clock in the evening and six o'clock in the morning provided such room is lighted by electricity at all times during such hours while persons are employed therein. There shall be sufficient means of ventilation provided in each work-room of every manufacturing establishment, and the Factory Inspector, Assistant Factory Inspector and Deputy Factory Inspectors, under the direction of the Factory Inspector, shall notify the owner, agent or lessee, in writing, to provide or cause to be provided ample and proper means of ventilating such work-room, and shall prosecute such owner, agent or lessee if such notification be not complied with within twenty days of the service of such notice.

§ 15. Upon the expiration of the term of office of the present Factory Inspector, and upon the expiration of the term of office of each of his successors, the Governor shall, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, appoint a Factory Inspector; and upon the expiration of the term of office of the present Assistant Factory Inspector, and upon the expiration of the term of office of each of his successors, the Governor shall, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, appoint an Assistant Factory Inspector. Each Factory Inspector and Assistant Factory Inspector shall hold over and continue in office, after the expiration of his term of office, until his successor shall be appointed and qualified. The Factory Inspector is hereby authorized to appoint, from time to time, not exceeding twenty-four persons to be Deputy Factory Inspectors, not more than ten of whom shall be women, and he shall have power to remove the same at any time. The term of office of the Factory Inspector and of the Assistant Factory Inspector shall be three years each. Annual salaries shall be paid in equal monthly instalments, as follows: To the Factory Inspector, three thousand dollars; to the Assistant Factory Inspector, two thousand five hundred dollars; to each Deputy Factory Inspector, one thousand two hundred dollars. All necessary travelling and other expenses incurred by the Factory Inspector, Assistant Factory Inspector and the Deputy Factory Inspectors in the discharge of their duties shall be paid monthly by the Treasurer, upon the warrant of the Comptroller, issued upon proper vouchers therefor. A sub-office may be opened in the city of New York. The reasonable necessary travelling and other expenses of the Deputy Factory Inspectors while engaged in the performance of their duties shall be paid upon vouchers approved by the Factory Inspector and audited by the Comptroller.

“ § 16. It shall be the duty of the Factory Inspector and the Assistant Factory Inspector, and of each of the Deputy Factory Inspectors under

the supervision and direction of the Factory Inspector, to cause this Act to be enforced, and to cause all violaters of this Act to be prosecuted, and for that purpose they and each of them are hereby empowered to visit and inspect at all reasonable hours, and as often as shall be practicable and necessary, all manufacturing establishments in this State. It shall be unlawful for any person to interfere with, obstruct or hinder, by force or otherwise, any officer appointed to enforce the provisions of this Act, while in the performance of his or her duties, or to refuse to properly answer questions asked by such officer with reference to any of the provisions hereof. The Factory Inspector may divide the State into districts and assign one or more Deputy Factory Inspectors to each district and transfer them from one district to another as the best interests of the State may, in his judgment, require. Any Deputy Factory Inspector may be appointed to act as Clerk in the Main Office of the Factory Inspector, which shall be furnished in the Capitol and set apart for the use of the Factory Inspector. The Assistant Factory Inspector and Deputy Factory Inspectors shall make reports to the Factory Inspector from time to time, as may be required by the Factory Inspector, and the Factory Inspector shall make an annual report to the Legislature during the month of January of each year. The Factory Inspector, Assistant Factory Inspector and each Deputy Factory Inspector shall have the same powers as a Notary Public to administer oaths and take affidavits in matters connected with the enforcement of the provisions of this act.

“§ 17. The District Attorney of any county of this State is hereby authorized upon the request of the Factory Inspector, Assistant Factory Inspector, or of a Deputy Factory Inspector, or of any other person of full age, to commence and prosecute to termination before any Recorder, Police Justice, or court of record, in the name of the people of the State, actions or proceedings against any person or persons reported to him to have violated the provisions of this act.

“§ 18. The words “manufacturing establishment” wherever used in this Act, shall be construed to mean any mill, factory or workshop where one or more persons are employed at labour.

“§ 19. A copy of this Act shall be conspicuously posted and kept posted in each work-room of every manufacturing establishment in this State.

“§ 20. Any person who violates or omits to comply with any of the provisions of this act, or who suffers or permits any child to be employed in violation of its provisions, shall be guilty of a misdemeanor, and on conviction, shall be punished by a fine of not less than twenty nor more than fifty dollars for a first offence, and not less than fifty nor more than one hundred dollars for a second offence or imprisonment for not more than ten days, and for a third offence a fine of not less than two hundred and fifty dollars and not more than thirty days' imprisonment.

“§ 21. All Acts and parts of Acts inconsistent with the provisions of this Act are hereby repealed.

“§ 22. This Act shall take effect immediately.

JAMES CONNOLLY,
Factory Inspector.

JOHN FRANEX,
Assistant Factory Inspector.

General Office at State Capitol,
Albany, N.Y.

APPENDIX VI.

1.—COPIES of NOTICES, &c. which may be given under the
Factory Inspection Law.

State of New York.
Office of Factory Inspector,
Albany, _____ 189

You are reported to this Department as being engaged in the manufacture of one or more of the articles mentioned in the subjoined section of chap. 409 of the Laws of 1886, as amended by chap. 173 of the Laws of 1893. Please furnish *at once* to the factory inspector, upon the blanks herewith supplied, the names and addresses of all persons with whom you may have contracted for the making of, or wholly or partially finishing, cutting, altering, or repairing any of the articles mentioned therein, outside of your immediate premises, or procuring the same to be done, and the names and addresses of all persons to whom you give out the incomplete materials from which any of such articles are made.

You are also notified to hereafter *keep on file in your office* a full and complete register of the names and addresses of all persons to whom such work is given to be wholly or partially made up, or with whom you may have contracted to do the same. Such register must be produced for inspection promptly on demand made by any officer of this department, and a copy thereof must be furnished to him should it be demanded.

You are hereby cautioned against permitting any of your goods to be made up in any unclean or unhealthy place, or contrary to the provisions of the law. Any infringement of the statute in this respect will be prosecuted without further notice, and if necessary the goods will be labelled and ordered to be disinfected.

Respectfully,

JAMES CONNOLLY,
Factory Inspector.

REGULATIONS UPON THE MANUFACTURE OF CLOTHING, PURSES,
FEATHERS, ARTIFICIAL FLOWERS, CIGARETTES OR CIGARS, IN
TENEMENTS, DWELLINGS AND REAR BUILDINGS, AND BY CON-
TRACTORS.

Section 13. No room or apartment in any tenement or dwelling-house, shall be used, except by the immediate members of the family living therein, for the manufacture of coats, vests, trousers, knee-pants, overalls, cloaks, hats, caps, suspenders, jerseys, blouses, waists, waistbands, underwear, neck-ware, furs, fur trimming, fur garments, shirts,

purses, feathers, artificial flowers, cigarettes, or cigars. No person, firm, or corporation shall hire or employ any person to work in any room or apartment, in any rear building or building in the rear of a tenement or dwelling-house at making in whole or in part any of the articles mentioned in this section, without first obtaining a written permit from the factory inspector, his assistant, or one of his deputies, stating the maximum number of persons allowed to be employed therein. Such permit shall not be granted until an inspection of such premises is made by the factory inspector, his assistant, or one of his deputies, and may be revoked by the factory inspector at any time the health of the community or of those so employed may require it. It shall be framed and posted in a conspicuous place in the room or in one of the rooms to which it relates. Every person, firm, company, or corporation contracting for the manufacture of any of the articles mentioned in this section, or giving out the incomplete material from which they or any of them are to be made, or to be wholly or partially finished, shall keep a written register of the names and addresses of all persons to whom such work is given to be made, or with whom they may have contracted to do the same. Such register shall be produced for inspection and a copy thereof shall be furnished on demand made by the factory inspector, his assistant, or one of his deputies. No person shall knowingly sell or expose for sale any of the articles mentioned in this section which were made in any dwelling-house, tenement-house, or building in the rear of a tenement or dwelling-house, without the permit required by this section; and any officer appointed to enforce the provisions of this Act who shall find any of such articles made in violation of the provisions hereof, shall conspicuously affix to such article a label containing the words "tenement made" printed in small pica capital letters on a tag not less than two inches in length; and such officer shall notify the person owning or alleged to own such articles that he so labelled them. No person shall remove or deface any tag or label so affixed. When any article mentioned in this section is found by the factory inspector, his assistant, or any of his deputies, to be made under unclean or unhealthy conditions, he shall affix thereto the label prescribed by this section and shall immediately notify the local board of health whose duty it shall be to disinfect the same and thereupon remove such label.—[*Sec. 13, chap. 409, Laws of 1886, as amended by chap. 173, Laws of 1893.*]

Section 15. It shall be the duty of the factory inspector and the assistant factory inspector, and of each of the deputy factory inspectors under the supervision and direction of the factory inspector, to cause this Act to be enforced, and to cause all violators of this Act to be prosecuted, and for that purpose they and each of them are hereby empowered to visit and inspect at all reasonable hours, and as often as shall be practicable and necessary, all manufacturing establishments in this State. It shall be unlawful for any person to interfere with, obstruct, or hinder, by force or otherwise, any officer appointed to enforce the provisions of this Act, while in the performance of his or her duties, or to refuse to properly answer questions asked by such officer with reference to any of the provisions hereof. * * * The factory inspector, assistant factory inspector, and each deputy factory inspector shall have the same powers as a Notary Public to administer oaths and take affidavits in matters connected with the enforcement of the provisions of this Act.

Section 20. Any person who violates or omits to comply with any of the provisions of this Act, or who suffers or permits any child to be

employed in violation of its provisions, shall be guilty of a misdemeanour, and on conviction shall be punished by a fine of no less than 20 nor more than 50 dollars for a first offence, and not less than 50 nor more than 100 dollars for a second offence, or imprisonment for not more than 10 days, and for a third offence a fine of not less than 250 dollars and not more than 30 days' imprisonment.—[*Chap. 409, Laws of 1886, as amended by chap. 173, Laws of 1893.*]

2. State of New York,
Office of Factory Inspector,
Albany _____ 189 .

M _____

You are hereby notified to comply with section six of chapter 409 of the Laws of 1886, as amended by chapters 462 of the Laws of 1887, 560 of the Laws of 1889, 398 of the Laws of 1890, and 673 of the Laws of 1892 (a copy of which is herewith enclosed) by providing _____ outside iron fire-escape on the building now used for manufacturing purposes and known as No. _____ Street, in the _____ of _____ County of _____ and occupied by _____

such fire-escape to consist of iron balconies _____ feet wide, taking in _____ windows _____

at _____ stories, and connecting said balconies by iron stairs, and provided with an iron drop-ladder to lead from the balcony at _____ story to _____ all to be constructed as follows:

BRACKETS must not be less than $1\frac{1}{2} \times 1\frac{3}{4}$ inches wrought-iron, placed edgewise, or $1\frac{3}{4}$ -inch angle iron, $\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick, well braced and not more than 3 feet apart, and the braces to brackets must not be less than 1 inch square wrought-iron, and must extend two-thirds of the width of the respective brackets or balconies. In all cases the brackets must go through the wall, and be turned down 3 inches, or be provided with screw nuts and washers, not less than 5 inches square and $\frac{1}{2}$ inch thick. The part going through the wall shall not be less than 1 inch diameter.

TOP RAILS.—The top rail of balcony must by $1\frac{3}{4}$ -inch \times $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch wrought-iron, or $1\frac{1}{2}$ -inch angle iron, $\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick, and in all cases must go through the walls, and be secured by nuts and 4-inch square washers, at least $\frac{3}{8}$ inch thick, and no top rail shall be connected at angles by the use of cast-iron.

BOTTOM RAILS.—Bottom rails must be $1\frac{1}{4}$ -inch \times $\frac{3}{8}$ -inch wrought-iron, or $1\frac{1}{2}$ -inch angle iron, $\frac{1}{4}$ inch thick, well leaded into the wall. In frame buildings the top rails must go through the studding and be secured on the inside by washers and nuts, as in the case of brackets.

FILLING-IN BARS.—The filling-in bars must not be less than $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch

round or square wrought-iron, placed not more than 6 inches from centres, and well riveted to the top and bottom rails.

STAIRS.—The stairs, in all cases, must properly incline and be not less than 18 inches wide, and constructed of $\frac{1}{4} \times 4$ -inch wrought-iron sides or strings. Steps must be not more than 12 or less than 9 inches apart, and may be of cast-iron of the same width of strings, or $\frac{5}{8}$ -inch round iron, double rungs, and well riveted to the strings. The stairs must be secured to a bracket on top and rest on and be secured to a bracket or extra cross bar at the bottom. All stairs must have a $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch hand rail of wrought-iron on both sides, well braced.

FLOORS.—The flooring of balconies must be of wrought-iron $1\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{3}{8}$ -inch slats, placed not over $1\frac{1}{4}$ inches apart, and secured to iron battens, $1\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{3}{8}$ -inch, not over 3 feet apart, and riveted at the intersection. The openings for stairways in all balconies shall not be less than 20 inches wide and 36 inches long, and have no covers.

DROP LADDERS.—Drop ladders from lower balconies, where required, shall not be less than 12 inches wide, and shall be made of $1\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{3}{8}$ -inch sides and $\frac{5}{8}$ -inch rungs of wrought-iron. A 24-inch wide ladder shall extend from the upper balcony to 30 inches above the roof. In no case shall the ends of balconies extend more than 9 inches over the brackets.

THE HEIGHT OF RAILING around balconies shall not be less than 3 feet.

If such fire-escape _____ not erected within *Twenty* days from the date of this notice *Criminal* proceedings will be commenced against you forthwith. (See Section 21.)

Factory Inspector.

No Fire Escape will be approved by the Inspectors if not in accordance with the above specifications.

Please notify me when you have complied, so that you may be placed on record accordingly.

A Certificate will be given if the Fire Escape is properly constructed.

3.

State of New York,
Office of Factory Inspector,
Albany _____ 189 .

M _____

You are hereby notified to comply with the provisions of Chapter 409 of the Laws of 1886, as amended by Chapters 462 of the Laws of 1887, 560 of the Laws of 1889, 398 of the Laws of 1890, and 673 of the Laws of 1892 (a copy of which is herewith enclosed), by immediately stopping the further use, as a workshop, of the _____ floor of the premises known as No. _____ Street, in the _____ of _____ County of _____ said room or apartment being located in _____

[State whether tenement or dwelling house, or building in rear thereof.]

and in which persons are employed and engaged in manufacturing without first having obtained a permit from the Factory Inspector, Assistant Factory Inspector, or a Deputy Factory Inspector, _____

as required by said laws of the State of New York, and if this notice is not complied with within _____ days from the date hereof, legal proceedings will be commenced against you forthwith. (See Section 21.)

Factory Inspector.

Please notify the Inspector when you have complied, that you may be placed on record accordingly.

4. _____ State of New York,
 Office of Factory Inspector,
 Albany, _____ 189 .

M _____

You are hereby notified that an inspection of the premises occupied by you as a _____ on the _____ floor of the _____ known as No. _____ Street, _____ County of _____, there situate, has been made by an officer of this Department, who reports that you are violating the provisions of Chapter 409 of the Laws of 1886, as amended by Chapters 462 of the Laws of 1887, 560 of the Laws of 1889, 398 of the Laws of 1890, and 673 of the Laws of 1892 (a copy of which is herewith enclosed), in that you _____

THEREFORE, if the requirements of said statute are not complied with by you within _____ days of the date of this notice, criminal proceedings will be commenced against you forthwith. (See Section 21.)

Factory Inspector.

Please notify the Inspector when you have complied, that you may be placed on record accordingly.

No. _____

Page _____

5. REGISTER

OF PERSONS ENGAGED IN THE MANUFACTURE OF

[State what goods or articles are partially made.]

for the _____ of No. _____

[Person, firm, company, or corporation's full name.]

Street, _____

[Name of city or town.]

Dated _____ N. Y. _____ 189 .

[Kept on file in conformity with the provisions of chapter 409 of the Laws of 1886, as amended by chapter 173 of the Laws of 1893, for the information of the Factory Inspector's Department.]

Date of Contract or Engagement.	Names of Contractors or Persons to whom Work has been given out.	ADDRESS.		REMARKS.
		Street Number.	City, Town, or Village.	

6. WORKSHOP PERMIT.

STATE OF NEW YORK.

OFFICE OF

DEPUTY FACTORY INSPECTOR.

To whom it may concern :

THIS IS TO CERTIFY, That I have inspected the premises occupied by
 in the _____ room _____ building, situate at
 No. _____ Street,
 in the _____ of _____ County of _____
 and find that the same are not occupied for domestic or residence
 purposes, and to be in a healthy condition, suitable for the employment
 of not more than _____ persons at any one time.

THEREFORE, Permission is hereby granted the said _____

to occupy the above described premises and employ therein not more
 than _____ persons, between the hours of 6 A.M. and 6 P.M.,
 and not more than _____ persons, between 6 P.M. and 6 A.M.,
 in the manufacture of _____

Given according to the provisions of Chapter 409 of the Laws of 1886,
as amended by Chapter 673 of the Laws of 1892, in the _____ of
_____ County of _____ this _____
day of _____ 189 _____

No. _____ *Factory Inspector.*

Here follows Statement of Legal Regulations Relating to Factories
and Workshops.

APPENDIX VII.

COPY OF STATE OF MASSACHUSETTS MANUFACTURE OF CLOTHING
ACT as supplied to Factory Occupiers by the Inspection
Department.

IN THE SERVICE OF THE COMMONWEALTH.

OFFICE OF THE
CHIEF OF THE DISTRICT POLICE.

DEPARTMENT OF INSPECTION OF FACTORIES, WORKSHOPS, AND PUBLIC
BUILDINGS,

COMMONWEALTH BUILDING.

Boston, Mass., June 11, 1892.

*To whom it may concern. Attention is called to the following
Act:—*

[CHAPTER 357, ACTS OF 1891, AS AMENDED BY CHAPTER
296, ACTS OF 1892.]

AN ACT TO PREVENT THE MANUFACTURE AND SALE OF CLOTHING MADE
IN UNHEALTHY PLACES.

SECTION 1. Whenever any house, room or place use as a dwelling, is
also used for the purpose of carrying on any process of making, altering,
repairing or finishing for sale any ready-made coats, vests, trousers,
overcoats or any wearing apparel of any description whatsoever intended
for sale, it shall, within the meaning of this Act, be deemed a workshop;
provided, however, that the exercise of such work in a private house
or private room, by the family dwelling therein or by any of them, shall
not of itself constitute such house or room a workshop within this
definition; every such workshop shall be kept in a cleanly state and
shall be subject to the provisions of this section, and each of said
garments made, altered, repaired or finished for sale in any of such
workshops, shall be subject to the inspection and examination of the
inspectors of the district police, ~~for the purpose of ascertaining whether~~

said garments, or any of them, or any part or parts thereof, are in cleanly condition and free from vermin and every matter of an infectious and contagious nature; and every person so occupying or having control of any workshop as aforesaid shall, within fourteen days from the passage of this Act or from the time of beginning work in any workshop as aforesaid, notify the chief of the district police or the special inspector appointed for that purpose, of the location of such workshop, the nature of the work there carried on and the number of persons therein employed; and every person finishing said garments or articles of wearing apparel in any room or place used as a dwelling as aforesaid shall, before beginning such work, procure a license approved by the chief of the district police, upon the recommendation of the inspectors especially appointed for the enforcement of the provisions of this Act.

SECTION 2. If said inspector finds evidence of infectious disease present in any workshop, or in goods manufactured or in process of manufacture therein, he shall report the same to the chief of the district police, who shall then notify the state board of health to examine said workshop and the materials used therein, and if said board shall find said shop in an unhealthy condition, or the clothing and materials used therein to be unfit for use, said board shall issue such order or orders as the public safety make require.

SECTION 3. Whenever it shall be reported to said inspector, or to the chief of the district police, or to the state board of health, or either of them, that ready-made coats, vests, trousers, overcoats or any wearing apparel as mentioned in section one of this Act, are being shipped to this Commonwealth, having previously been manufactured in whole or in part under unhealthy conditions, said inspector shall examine said goods and the condition of their manufacture, and if upon such examination said goods or any of them are found to contain vermin, or to have been made in improper places or under unhealthy conditions, he shall make report thereof to the state board of health, which board shall thereupon make such order or orders as the safety of the public shall require.

SECTION 4. Whoever knowingly sells or exposes for sale any ready-made coats, vests, trousers, overcoats or any wearing apparel, which have been made in a tenement house used as a workshop, as specified in section one of this act, shall have affixed to each of said garments a tag or label, not less than two inches in length and one inch in width, upon which shall be legibly printed or written, the words "tenement made" and the name of the state and the city or town where said garment or garments were made.

SECTION 5. No person shall sell or expose for sale any of said garments without a tag or label, as aforesaid, affixed thereto, nor shall sell or expose for sale any of said garments with a tag or label in any manner false or fraudulent, nor shall wilfully remove, alter or destroy any such tag or label upon any of said garments when exposed for sale.

SECTION 6. The governor of the Commonwealth is hereby authorised to appoint two additional members of the inspection department of the district police force qualified to perform the duties of the members of such department.

SECTION 7. Whoever violates any of the provisions of this Act shall forfeit for each offence not less than fifty dollars nor more than one hundred dollars. [*Approved May 28, 1891.*]

Respectfully,

RUFUS R. WADE,
Chief Mass. District Police.

APPENDIX VIII.

I. FORMS USED UNDER THE ACT.

COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS.

OFFICE OF THE CHIEF OF THE DISTRICT POLICE,
COMMONWEALTH BUILDING.DEPARTMENT OF INSPECTION OF TENEMENT HOUSE
WORKROOMS.

Boston, _____ 189 .

*This certifies that _____
has made application for a license for the purpose of finishing ready-
made coats, vests, trousers, overcoats or wearing apparel of any descrip-
tion whatsoever intended for sale, in the _____
of the building located _____*

*Pending the granting or refusal of such license this acknowledgment
has for the period of thirty days only the same effect as such license.*

_____ 189 . License No. _____

Inspector.

Approved:

RUFUS R. WADE,
Chief Inspector.

2. COMMONWEALTH OF MASSACHUSETTS.

OFFICE OF THE CHIEF OF THE DISTRICT POLICE,
COMMONWEALTH BUILDING.DEPARTMENT OF INSPECTION OF TENEMENT HOUSE
WORKROOMS.

LICENSE NO. _____ Boston, _____ 189 .

*This certifies that _____
has been granted a license this day for the purpose of finishing ready-
made coats, vests, trousers, overcoats or wearing apparel of any descrip-
tion whatsoever intended for sale, in the _____
of the building located _____*

*Said license will be revoked if the following conditions are not
strictly complied with:—*

1st. Absolute cleanliness of apartments and surroundings.

2d. No room or rooms used as sleeping apartments shall be used for
the purpose of finishing any articles of wearing apparel intended for
sale, nor shall any of such articles of wearing apparel while in process
of finishing be allowed to remain therein.

3d. In case of removal, or in case of any contagious or infectious
disease in the family of the person holding a license, or in any family

residing in the same building, notice must be at once sent to the inspector of the district.

4th. No person or persons not members of the family shall be employed in finishing any such articles of wearing apparel intended for sale.

Approved:

RUFUS R. WADE,
Chief Inspector.

Inspector.

APPENDIX IX.

LEGISLATURE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

LEGISLATION AFFECTING ALIENS.

FILE OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

No. 45.

Session of 1893.

MR. NICKELL, IN PLACE, January 19, 1893.

MR. KIPP, JUDICIARY, GENERAL, January 27, 1893.

AS REPORTED FROM COMMITTEE AND AMENDED ON SECOND READING,
IN H. R., March 22, 1893.

Strike out in [] insert in *italic*

AN ACT

Prohibiting the employment of any but American citizens in the erection enlargement *or* improvement [or maintenance] of institutions *or public buildings or public works* to which State funds are appropriated except as provided herein.

Section 1 *Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania in General Assembly met and it is hereby enacted by the authority of the same* That none but American citizens shall be employed in any capacity in the erection enlargement *or* improvement [or maintenance] of any hospital asylum school home college penitentiary reformatory or institution by whatsoever name known public buildings or public works for or to which State funds are appropriated *Provided* [women or girls] apprentices to a profession or trade shall not be subject to the provisions of this Act.

[Section 2 The State Treasurer is directed to withhold any funds so appropriated until the person or persons legally authorized to receive and receipt for them shall sign and have attested by a person empowered to administer oaths an agreement that the provisions of this Act will be complied with which agreement shall be filed with the receipt.]

Section 2 *The person or persons who may be by law empowered for and in the name of the Commonwealth to enter into contracts for the erection enlargement or improvement of any public building or public work are directed to insert in all such contracts a stipulation or covenant that will give like effect to the provisions of the Act as have other specifications.*

Section 3. *The State Treasurer is directed to withhold any funds so appropriated until the person or persons legally authorised to receive and receipt for them shall sign and have attested by a person empowered to administer oaths an agreement that the provisions of this Act have been or will be complied with which agreement shall be filed with the receipt.*

LEGISLATURE OF PENNSYLVANIA.

FILE OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES.

No. 127.

Session of 1893.

MR. KANE IN PLACE, January 25, 1893.

MR. THORNTON, JUDICIARY, LOCAL, February 3, 1893.

AS AMENDED ON THIRD READING IN H. R., March 28, 1893.

Strike out in [] insert in *Italic*.

AN ACT

Providing for the licensing of unnaturalized male persons twenty-one years of age or over who reside or are employed within this Commonwealth.

Section 1 *Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania in General Assembly met, and it is hereby enacted by the authority of the same* That from and after the first day of January one thousand eight hundred and ninety-four each unnaturalized male person within this Commonwealth who has attained the age of twenty-one years shall be required to obtain a license annually from the commissioners of the county in which such unnaturalized person resides or is employed for which said person shall pay the sum of three dollars each license to date from the first day of January in the year for which it is granted Where the person licensed resides or is employed in a city or borough [one-third of] the amount shall be paid for the use of the city or borough [one-third for the use of the county and one-third for the use of the common schools] in townships one-third shall be paid for the maintenance of roads one-third for the use of the county and one-third for the use of the common schools.

Section 2 That the provisions of this Act may be fully enforced it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Commonwealth to prepare a license blank or form and transmit a copy of the same to the commis-

sioners of each county in this Commonwealth on or before the first day of December one thousand eight hundred and ninety-three The commissioners of the several counties shall provide and furnish yearly to the collectors of taxes in their respective counties a sufficient number of said forms bound in book form with stubs attached, each form or blank to bear a fac simile of the signatures of the commissioners Collectors bonds to the county may be increased to such amounts as the commissioners shall designate, and said collectors shall be authorised by the commissioners to issue licenses in their respective districts on receipt of the amounts fixed by the first section of this Act Collectors shall record on each stub the number of the license and the name of the person to whom it is issued and shall pay the moneys thus collected to the respective treasurers or authorities entitled thereto after deducting his commission which is hereby fixed at five per centum on all moneys received for licenses and make such returns and settlements for the same as is now provided by law for the collection of taxes *Provided That where a city and county are co-extensive said license shall be granted and fees collected by the city treasurer in the same manner and on same terms and conditions as other city money is now collected.*

Section 3 It shall not be lawful for any person firm company association or corporation to hire or retain in his her or their employ within this Commonwealth from and after the first day of July in each year any unnaturalized male person twenty-one years of age or over who is not licensed for said year as provided by the first and second sections of this Act Any person firm company association or corporation hiring or retaining in his her or their employ within the Commonwealth from and after the first day of July in each year any unnaturalized male person twenty-one years of age or over who is not licensed for said year shall pay the tax collector of the district in which such unlicensed person is employed the sum of three dollars for each such person and said collector shall issue a license for each person paid for Should any person firm company association or corporation hiring or retaining in his her or their employ within this Commonwealth after the first day of July such unlicensed person or persons neglect or refuse to make such payment the same shall be collected from said employer as other taxes are *Provided That a license granted by the commissioners of one county is good in any other county in this Commonwealth during the year for which it is granted Provided also That the provisions of this Act shall not apply to any unnaturalized person owning real estate or other taxable property valued for taxable purposes at or above five hundred dollars and situated in the county in which he may reside or be employed.*

Section 4 Any person *who shall neglect or refuse to perform the duties herein imposed or who shall issue or procure a license except as provided by this Act or who shall alter the date of a license or misrepresent his age with intent to evade the provisions of this Act shall be guilty of a misdemeanor and on conviction thereof shall be sentenced to pay a fine of fifty dollars and to undergo imprisonment in the county jail for a period not exceeding three months.*

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