Migration in the 19th Century - Key Concepts

A. Demographic factors
1. Changes in food production and improved medicine and sanitation lead to a rise in global population
2. New modes of transportation makes relocation to cities easier

B. Reasons for migration
1. Voluntary, in search of labor
2. Coerced or semicoerced labor migration
   - Slavery
   - Chinese and Indian indentured servitude
   - Convict labor
3. Temporary or seasonal migrants return to their homeland

C. Consequences of and reactions to migration
1. Labor was mostly physical in nature, therefore most migrants were male.
2. Migrants created often ethnic enclaves, transferring their culture to a different part of the world.
3. Ethnic and racial prejudice leads to governments trying to regulate migration.
Migration

1. What were the main causes for a rapid population growth in North America and Europe in the 19th century?
2. What were the main causes for population growth in Africa in the 19th century?
3. Explain how a better food supply could lead to population growth in Europe.
4. Explain the phenomenon of rapid urbanization in Europe: Why did it happen? What were the living conditions like? What happened that led to better standards of living in many European cities?
5. Why did people emigrate from Europe? (push factors)
6. Where did Europeans emigrate to? Why? (pull factors)
7. What cultural impacts did that have?
8. What were the causes for population growth in many Asian countries?
9. What led to an even bigger increase in population in Japan?
10. Why did many Asians emigrate to other countries? (push factors)
11. Where did many Asians go to? Why? (pull factors) What role did indentured servants play in Asian migration?
12. How did some countries react to Asian immigration? What cultural impact did Asian migrants have?

Instructions for the Map

1. Create arrows on the map showing the flow of immigrants. Where do they come from? Where do they go to? How many emigrate between 1850 and 1930? (European migration to the Americas, Australia, South Africa, Asian migration to SE Asia, Africa, Pacific Islands, Americas)
2. Write the push factors that led to people to migrate on the continent they came from.
3. Write the pull factors that caused people to immigrate to a continent on that continent.
4. Write the cultural impact immigration had on that continent.
5. Write the laws the US and Australia passed in reaction to increased Asian immigration.
1864–1871 German unification
1867 Discovery of South African diamonds; increase in importation of Indian laborers
1868–1912 Meiji period in Japan
1869 Completion of the Suez Canal
1875ff. Explosion of European imperialism in Africa
1876 Promulgation of Ottoman constitution, guaranteeing individual freedoms, setting up parliament
1876–1911 Porfirio Díaz president in Mexico
1877–1878 Russo-Turkish War; independence gained by new Balkan nations
1878ff. Expansion of British, French interior expeditions in West Africa
1879–1907 European alliance system
1880s Russia begins to industrialize
1880ff. Growing commercialization of Latin American economy
1885 Formation of Indian National Congress
1885–1886 British takeover of much of Burma
1886 Discovery of South African gold and development of railway; steel industry begun in India
1888 Slavery abolished in Brazil
1894–1895 Sino-Japanese War
1896ff. Rise of Young Turk movement
1896–1899 Revolt against Spain in the Philippines
1898 Formation of Marxist Social Democratic Party in Russia; Spanish-American War; acquisition of Puerto Rico by United States; protectorate over Cuba
1899–1901 Boxer Rebellion in China
1899–1902 Boer War
1914 World War I

---

 POPULATING THE EARTH

*Explosion, Migration, and New Controls*

The period 1750–1914 witnessed a nearly vertical rise in population, encompassing most areas of the world, though to different degrees. Asian populations almost doubled. European populations nearly tripled. (Those in Russia quadrupled.) African population growth was more modest, at 30 percent, but still extremely rapid by any prior standard. American populations increased ninefold. The global rate, finally, was over 110 percent. Only Pacific Oceania fell back, due to the final major impact of contact on virgin soil populations; but even here, vigorous growth resumed after 1850.

There were several causes of this unprecedented increase. Prior population growth, particularly in Europe and China, played a vital role: There were more potential parents available, so increased numbers of children almost inevitably resulted from trends already in place by 1750 or 1800. Surges in the Americas reflected the end of the virgin soil epidemics, which freed populations to enjoy highly fertile agricultural lands, with resultant high birthrates. Whites in the British colonies of North America married earlier than their European counterparts and had more children, seen as vital sources of labor. Massive immigration added to the growth in the colonies. African increases reflect the end of the slave trade and the clear impact of adoption of American foods, particularly corn.

Population growth, particularly where it was most concentrated, inevitably pushed to new patterns of migration, as in earlier historical periods. African migration now virtually ceased, with the international slave trade curtailed early in the 19th century (except for considerable, if traditional, sale to the Middle East). European migrations accelerated, however,
and they were joined by new levels of Asian migration as well. Asian migration added to the global relocations of peoples that had begun in the early modern period, though specific patterns differed from European streams because of different immigrant attitudes and, particularly, new efforts at racial restriction.

Two other developments were particularly novel, though they both involved European populations (or European immigrants to places such as the United States) primarily at this point. First, medical and public health interventions began to add to population growth potential, particularly in urban areas. Second, the sheer level of expansion prompted new attention to growth as a problem, both socially and within family contexts, and to new methods of population control. These two innovations were particularly associated with the Industrial Revolution.

### European Patterns

Because of industrialization, but also because of a vast increase in agricultural output, without which industrialization would have been impossible, West Europeans by the latter half of the 19th century enjoyed higher standards of living and longer, healthier lives than most of the world’s peoples. European populations increased enormously, colonizing and populating three continents in addition to Europe, as well as part of the tip of South Africa and miscellaneous islands around the world. This vast population increase drastically altered the ethnic and cultural distribution of the world’s peoples. The change also ushered in what some scholars call the *demographic transition*, a shift from high to low mortality but also from high to low fertility. The latter effect in Western society, visible by the end of the 19th century in a limitation of family size, resulted from reactions to high population growth and mechanization alike, in a new effort to assert control over the demographic forces that had been unleashed during the early modern centuries.

In Europe as a whole, population rose from 188 million in 1800 to 400 million in 1900. The continued expansion was quite general. Certain regions, even whole countries, experienced an unusually rapid rise. Britain and Germany approximately tripled their population during the 19th century, after an even faster rate of increase in the late 18th century. France barely doubled its population between 1700 and 1900. Obviously, differences in degree must be noted. Distinctions in date are equally important. The population boom in West and Central Europe was most intense between 1750 and 1850. The factors promoting this boom touched eastern and southern Europe in a more limited way, and it was the period after 1850 that saw the most significant increase in these regions, with the spread of Western techniques of midwifery and vaccination playing a leading role. Some areas, such as Italy and the Balkans, even increased their rate of growth after 1870. By 1900, virtually every area of Europe had contributed
to the tremendous surge of population, but each major region was at a different stage of demographic change.

Improvements in food supply continued trends that had started in the late 17th century. New lands were put under cultivation, while the use of crops of American origin, particularly the potato, continued to expand. Setbacks did occur. Regional agricultural failures were the most common cause of economic recessions until 1830, and they could lead to localized famines as well. A major potato blight in 1846–1847 led to the deaths of several million persons in Ireland and the emigration of many more, and Ireland never recovered the population levels the potato had sustained to that point. Bad grain harvests at the same time led to increased hardship throughout much of Europe.

After 1850, however, the expansion of foods more regularly kept pace with population growth, though the poorer classes remained malnourished. Two developments were crucial. First, the application of science and new technology to agriculture increased. Led by German universities, increasing research was devoted to improving seeds, developing chemical fertilizers, and advancing livestock. After 1861, with the development of landgrant universities in the United States that had huge agricultural programs, American agronomic research added to this mix. Mechanization included the use of horse-drawn harvesters and seed drills, many developed initially in the United States. It also included mechanical cream separators and other food-processing devices that improved supply. The second development involved industrially based transportation. With trains and steam shipping, it became possible to move foods to needy regions within western Europe quickly. Famine (as opposed to malnutrition) became a thing of the past. Many West European countries, headed by Britain, began also to import increasing amounts of food, not only from eastern Europe, a traditional source, but also from the Americas and Australia–New Zealand. Steam shipping, which improved speed and capacity, as well as new procedures for canning and refrigerating foods (particularly after 1870), was fundamental to these developments.

Europe's population growth included one additional innovation by the 19th century: It combined with rapid urbanization. More and more West Europeans moved from countryside to city, and big cities (both capitals, such as Paris, and industrial centers such as Manchester and Düsseldorf) grew most rapidly of all. By 1850, over half of all the people in England lived in cities, a first in human history. In one sense, this pattern seems inevitable: Growing numbers of people pressed available resources on the land, even when farm work was combined with a bit of manufacturing, so people crowded into cities seeking work or other resources. Traditionally, however, death rates in cities surpassed those in the countryside by a large margin; cities had maintained population size only through steady in-migration. Thus rapid urbanization should have reduced overall population growth, but by the middle of the 19th century this was no longer the case. Urban death rates remained high, particularly in the lower-class slums, but they began to decline rapidly. The greater reliability of food supplies was a factor here. Even more important were the gains in urban sanitation, as well as measures such as inspection of housing. Reformers, including enlightened doctors, began to study the causes of high death rates and to urge remediation. Even before the discovery of germs, beliefs that disease spread by "miasmas" prompted attention to sewers and open garbage; Edwin Chadwick led an exemplary urban crusade for underground sewers in England in the 1830s. Gradually, public health provisions began to cut into customary urban mortality rates. By 1900, in some parts of western Europe, life expectancy in the cities began to surpass that of the rural areas. Industrial societies had figured out ways to combine large and growing cities with population growth—a development that would soon spread to other parts of the world.

Public health measures early on were particularly directed at epidemic disease. New levels of contacts with southern Asia, particularly India, brought major cholera epidemics—a disease with which Europeans had had no experience. Vulnerability was increased by polluted urban water supplies. In one epidemic in the 1830s (which ultimately reached the United States), Paris grave diggers fled, letting bodies pile up in the streets, and English mobs attacked hospitals. Other epidemics hit in 1848 and 1852–1854. Medical reaction then began to be effective, in the form of improved sanitation and water supply measures. By the 1880s, only Russia, the Mediterranean, and a few southern United States cities remained susceptible. By this point, understanding of the germ theory led not only to sanitary controls but also to new advice about protecting the purity of infant foods and the importance of sterile procedures in childbirth and in hospitals. Europe and the
The Long 19th Century, 1750–1914

United States did not become disease-free—tuberculosis was a major problem, for example—but mortality rates began to decline rapidly, particularly in urban areas. Rapid changes in death-rate patterns began to surpass shifts in food supply as a source of population growth in the industrial regions.

The unprecedented increase in population, combined with urbanization, was the most important feature of demographic change, but it was not the only one. In the century and a half after 1780, Europe sent 40 million people to the two Americas, Australia, Asiatic Russia, and other areas. Emigration was one of the clearest expressions of the turmoil that increasing population brought to European society. In the first generations of demographic rise, economic opportunities failed to keep pace with the population. Emigration was most intense when population grew most rapidly, and it tended to decline once industrialization developed sufficiently to absorb most of the increase. Britain and Ireland supplied most of the emigrants at first, reflecting the intensity of population pressure in the two islands. In the Irish case this was tragically amplified by the huge potato famine, caused by plant disease, in 1846–1847. The agricultural crisis of the 1840s convinced many German peasants that the land could no longer support them, and a wave of German emigration ensued. Eastern and southern Europe provided most of their emigrants at the end of the 19th century. By 1914, 17 million people had emigrated from Britain and Ireland, 4 million from Austria-Hungary, 2.5 million from Russia, and 10 million from Italy. Only a few countries, such as France, largely escaped the movement. Between 1846 and 1932, Britain and Ireland sent out 18 million migrants; Spain and Portugal, 6.5 million; Italy, 11 million; Poland and Russia, 2.9 million.

Europe's population explosion thus continued—indeed, redefined—the rebalancing of peoples among key regions of the world that the Columbian exchange had begun. European immigration fueled the rapid westward expansion of the United States, and a bit later the same pattern emerged in Canada. It provided new peoples for Latin America, particularly in Argentina, Uruguay, Chile, and, to an extent, Brazil, among other things replacing the previous stream of African slaves. Argentina and Uruguay alone received 7.1 million European immigrants. From the 1780s on, the European migration populated Australia, pushing back the Aborigines, who were also decimated by disease. In most of these regions, in effect, Europe exported itself, creating new societies strongly European in people and culture. Smaller, though significant, European enclaves also entered southern Africa, Algeria, and a few other regions, where they long served as powerful minorities.

Recipients of European Migration: Rebalancing the Peoples of the World
(estimates for 1846–1932, in millions)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>34.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Argentina and Uruguay</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Canada</td>
<td>5.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brazil</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia and New Zealand</td>
<td>3.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Asian Patterns

Asian population growth rates were slower than those of Europe, but they operated from a much higher initial base and generated ever more concentrated numbers. The resultant levels could cause massive hardship and unrest, with peasants pressed against the limits of available land supply. Many scholars believe that the sheer burden and expense of dealing with larger populations restricted Chinese flexibility in the 19th century, limiting resources available for economic initiatives.

Japanese populations began to increase rapidly after the 1860s, because of the importation of agricultural methods from the West as well as government encouragement to more intensive rice growing. Agricultural research figured high on the agendas of expanding Japanese universities. Japan was also quick to adopt urban public health measures, of the sort pioneered in western Europe. The result was an end to the long period of relative population stability in the islands. New populations provided labor for industrialization. They also helped spur Japanese imperialism.

Asian population growth inevitably prompted new patterns of migration, though the numbers involved were lower than those of Europe, if only because major receiving territories lay in European hands. Significant numbers of Chinese and Japanese immigrated to Pacific island territories and also to European agricultural holdings and mining regions in Southeast Asia. It was Chinese immigrants, for example, who provided the labor
for the growing tin mines of 19th-century Malaysia—mines that were responding to rising European demand for raw materials. By the 1860s, tens of thousands of Chinese immigrants were involved, often through contract labor. Large numbers of Asians also immigrated to the western United States and to the Pacific areas of Latin America. They were sometimes specifically recruited, for example, by American railroad builders. A number of patterns of indenture developed, for instance, Indian workers being moved to various British colonies, including territories in Africa and in the Caribbean.

Asian migration was often restricted by racist reactions. Australian and United States policies limited entry. Asian movement was also limited by intense cultural attachments to the native land—which included efforts to send bodies back for burial after death. Another problem, common in other immigration histories, involved disproportionate recruitment of males, which for a time limited marriage and reproduction opportunities. Nevertheless, substantial and durable Asian minorities did develop in a number of new areas in addition to more familiar centers, such as the southeast, in Asia itself. And the flow to Southeast Asia was itself substantial, particularly from China.

Gaining precise figures on the Asian migrations is difficult because some immigration occurred illegally, after restrictive laws were passed in places such as Canada, Australia, and the United States, and also because there were high rates of return to Asia. Overall levels did not match the European outflow, but they were high enough to establish the significant immigrant minorities in many parts of the world. During the 1890s, for example, 190,000 Indians emigrated outside Asia, often as part of indentured labor contracts and especially to the Caribbean. Overall, between 1846 and 1933, 1,194,000 Indians emigrated. In the same period, 518,000 Japanese emigrated; 246,000 left during the 1890s alone. By the early 20th century there were about 22,000 Japanese in Canada and 111,000 in the United States (plus another 44,000 in Hawaii). Chinese figures were higher still, reflecting the greater population pressure. In the 1870s, before restrictive laws and when railroad companies were actively recruiting, more than 100,000 Chinese came to the United States. Prior to that, in the 1850s and 1860s, more than 5,000 a year were indentured to Cuba, operating under long-term labor contracts. By 1922, 8 million Chinese were living abroad.

The largest numbers were in Thailand (1.5 million), Indonesia (2.8 million), and Malaya (with half a million). But 62,000 were in the United States, with another 24,000 in Hawaii; 45,000 were in Peru; and 43,000 were in Canada.

Birth Control and the Demographic Transition

While the population themes of the long 19th century involved unprecedented growth and resultant pressures, including migration, a final reaction emerged in western Europe and in the United States, Canada, and Australia during the period. Important in these societies at the time, it would have still wider consequences later on. A growing number of people began to reduce the number of children they had, below any levels that had been common for large populations before.

Birth control was not a new human phenomenon. Families that practice no restraint whatsoever—marrying by puberty and continuing maximum, procreative sexual activity throughout the years until menopause—will average 16 to 18 children. (This is called the Hutterite formula, named for a religious group in Canada that did precisely this for some generations in the 19th and early 20th centuries.) No large society has ever maintained these levels. By marrying after puberty, limiting conception by prolonging breast-feeding, and aborting or practicing infanticide, agricultural societies usually kept births to half the maximum or a bit less. And some people, from very early civilization, also attempted artificial birth control by using animal bladders as condoms or by introducing potions or magic formulas to avoid unwanted pregnancies (though none of these methods was very reliable).

By the 19th century, however, this common set of restraints was not enough. While infant deaths remained high, improvements in food allowed more children to survive, which added pressure to family life. More important still, the economic utility of children shifted. Beginning with the middle classes and spreading gradually to workers, and more gradually still to rural families, children's labor began to decline in utility. Machines replaced many children; laws, though only slowly enforced, restricted their work. At the same time, new adult expectations and, again, new laws began to press for greater school attendance, and this not only restricted work but
also cost money for appropriate clothing and supplies. Children began to
turn from assets to financial liabilities, and as families realized this, they re-
acted by seeking new limitations on births.
Specific dates for the changes vary. The United States, which had
higher-than-average birthrates in the colonial period because of ample
space and labor needs, began to cut birthrates in the 1790s. France, in-
creasingly a nation of peasant landholders, did likewise, to protect property
against too-numerous heirs. Britain and Germany chimed in a bit later.
Generally, the middle classes led the way, because they first cut back on
using their children for work and also had high expectations about the edu-
cation or property they owed the children they begot. But some worker
groups sought to protect themselves early on through new birth control, as
did American farm owners. By the late 19th century, many voluntary
groups, including labor organizations, pushed for lower birthrates in order
to protect living standards and (sometimes) the health of mothers. Some of
these groups were called Malthusians, the name derived from the views of a
late-18th-century British moralist and economist, Thomas Malthus, who
had warned that the poor tended to reproduce faster than their means al-
lowed because of rampant sexual appetites, thus assuring perpetual
poverty. Thanks to various pressures, by 1900 birthrates in the industrial
countries, though somewhat varied, were dropping to an average of three
to four children per family, in some cases less than half of what had pre-
vailed a century before.
Most of the new birthrate reduction was initially accomplished
through sexual abstinence, for reliable artificial methods were lacking, un-
known, or disapproved by the moral standards of the time. As late as the
1890s, American middle-class families went through prolonged periods of
sexual abstinence when they absolutely could not risk a child. But abor-
tions spread as well, particularly among urban workers, even though new
laws and moral codes were directed against them. In the 1890s, as many as
25 percent of Berlin working-class wives had had at least one abortion.
Gradually, also, knowledge of new devices, particularly condoms and di-
aphrags (known as pessaries in the 19th century), spread as well. These
devices became far cheaper and more reliable with the vulcanization of
rubber in the 1830s, though use spread slowly because of hesitations about
facilitating purely recreational sex.

A development as novel but also as private as the new levels of birth
control inevitably sparks historical debate. Literally millions of ordinary
people changed their habits, and so the course of population history. Some
historians have argued that women took the lead, eager to protect their
own health and to enhance the care available to children who were born.
In some cases, women may have concealed the use of birth-control devices
from their husbands (particularly diaphragms, or pessaries). Women in the
American South seem to have argued on the basis of the pain and danger
of childbirth. With a new emphasis on marital love, these arguments ap-
pealed to husbands in a way that had not been the case in the 18th century
(when men tended to dismiss women's suffering more casually). There is
ample evidence that more education for women correlated with higher
rates of birth control, by whatever method. Class differences figure into the
equation as well. Middle-class people cut birthrates in part to be sure of
providing adequate education and job or marriage support for the children
they did have. Recently, Wally Seccombe has argued that working-class
people cut their birthrates simply because surviving in an urban economy
was so difficult, given low wages and frequent periods of unemployment.
Here, then, similar actions occurred for somewhat different reasons. Did
families begin to value children more and cut birthrates as a means of doing
better by each child, or did this relationship work the other way around?
How did lower birthrates affect family life? One historian has argued that
many European men around 1900 were profoundly disoriented by the new
restrictions on this traditional proof of masculinity, maybe to the point of
seeking other demonstrations of virility, such as war. By 1900 also, many
children were growing up with few or no siblings around them, which
changed the experience of childhood dramatically — making it more lonely
and individualized, among other things. The ramifications of the new pop-
ulation regime are still being analyzed, and the findings relate to develop-
ments elsewhere in the world after 1900.
Birthrate reduction was accompanied, particularly in the forty years
after 1880s, by a rapid reduction of infant and child mortality through-
out the industrialized regions. Many families found their attachment to
individual children growing precisely because the sheer numbers of chil-
dren declined. They were eager to reduce traditional infant death levels.
At the same time, many governments, worried about birthrate declines
particularly for military reasons—the size of future armies seemed jeopardized—pressed for lower death rates as well, as did many doctors and humanitarians. The introduction after the discovery of germs of more sterile procedures in deliveries, in addition to general improvements in living standards and sanitation, did the trick. By 1920, over nine children of ten born would live to adulthood in Western Europe and the United States, an unprecedented figure. Not only contagious diseases but also traditional infant killers such as diarrhea were cut back through improved sanitation (water quality was particularly important), parental attention, and medical care.

The combination of birthrate reduction and child-death reduction added up to a major demographic transition in the Western world, producing a population pattern different from that of all past societies. Average life expectancy at birth zoomed forward. Populations grew older on average, since even though far fewer children were being born, more were living into later adulthood. The transition was not easy, quite apart from the sexual restraints often required. Many parents worried that they were doing something wrong by innovating—men questioned their manhood, women their devotion to mothering. Societies where birthrates fell fastest, such as France, were consumed with a national anxiety about military decline in the face of more populous neighbors, such as Germany. Western leaders generally began to note the relative drop in European populations, particularly compared to the rapidly expanding Asian societies—the source of dire warnings about the “Yellow Peril” around 1900. In fact, Western populations still expanded for a while, on the strength of previous gains that had increased the number of available parents; but there was no question, by 1900, that Western populations were now the slowest-growing in the world.

**Conclusion**

The modern population story was hardly over in 1914. World War I confirmed key portions of the modern framework: Societies could now “afford” massive death rates in war, given the size of populations overall. While wartime deaths caused disruption and cultural shock for the European belligerents, prewar population levels were quickly recovered. And, though there was an important international influenza outbreak right after World War I, there were no huge disease consequences of the war itself; public health procedures and medical care, applied to armies, meant that most dying resulted from combat, not from the epidemics that once had accompanied armies on the move.

At the end of the long 19th century, however, in the world as a whole, it was public health and the continued expansion of food production, not the Western demographic transition, that set the stage for the immediate future. With populations in many areas already rising, further innovation merely increased the potential for explosive growth. The result, examined in chapter 22, became one of the major themes of the 20th century, and one of the century’s major challenges to the world’s future.
Using the documents, analyze the main features, including causes and consequences, of the system of indentured servitude that developed as part of global economic changes in the nineteenth and into the twentieth centuries. What additional kind of document(s) would help assess the historical significance of indentured servitude in this period?

Historical Background: Indentured servitude, employed in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries to recruit labor from western Europe for North America, was revived in the nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, particularly after the success of antislavery movements in the 1800’s.
**Document 1**

Source: Herman Merivale, British Undersecretary of the Colonies, 1850’s.

Indentured laborers are not voluntary immigrants in the ordinary sense, led by spontaneous desire of bettering their conditions; they are not slaves, seized by violence, brought over in fetters, and working under the lash. They have been raised, not without effort, like recruits for the military service.

**Document 2**

Source: Editorial in the Natal Mercury, Itongati, South Africa, on the visit of Sir George Grey, British colonial governor, June 6, 1855.

A clause was introduced at the public meeting setting forth the necessity of an “importation of foreign labor” for the exigencies of our tropical industry, more especially of the sugar enterprise; unfortunately that clause was struck out by the Town Council.

Next year, the quantity of labor that will be required to bring to a profitable result the large and increasing sugar cultivation now going on will be great beyond the possibility of its being supplied by our own natives, no matter how vigorous and how successful may be the measures of Government in the meantime for the better development of native industry. Every succeeding year, the demand for labor will increase in an almost geometrical ratio. In the island of Mauritius, there are not more than 60,000 acres under sugar cultivation, and for this small area—producing however, upwards of 100,000 tons of sugar annually,—not fewer than 60,000 laborers are required.
Document 3

PRINCIPAL OVERSEAS INDENTURED MIGRATIONS, 1834-1919

[Map showing migration routes from countries like Japan, China, Trinidad, Guianas, South Africa, and others to destinations like Hawaii, Fiji, Pacific Islanders, and Mauritius.]
Document 4


SELECTED INTERCONTINENTAL FLOWS OF INDENTURED OR CONTRACT LABOR, NINETEENTH AND EARLY TWENTIETH CENTURY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Origins</th>
<th>Destinations</th>
<th>Totals (rounded)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>India to</td>
<td>British Guiana</td>
<td>239,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Trinidad</td>
<td>150,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other Caribbean</td>
<td>130,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Suriname (Dutch Guiana)</td>
<td>34,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mauritius</td>
<td>455,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fiji</td>
<td>61,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>South Africa</td>
<td>153,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>China to</td>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>117,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>138,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other Caribbean</td>
<td>24,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Hawaii</td>
<td>34,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japan to</td>
<td>Hawaii</td>
<td>65,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>18,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Document 5

Source: Newly arrived Asian Indian indentured laborers awaiting assignment to work on sugar plantations, Suriname (Dutch Guiana), 1885.

Photo and print collection of the Koninklijk Instituut voor Taal-, Land- en Volkenkunde, Leiden. Julius Eduard Muller, photographer.

Source: Asian Indian laborers harvesting sugar cane and European supervisor, Suriname (Dutch Guiana), 1920.

Photo and print collection of the Koninklijk Instituut voor Taal-, Land- en Volkenkunde, Leiden. Julius Eduard Muller, photographer.

Copyright © 2003 by College Entrance Examination Board. All rights reserved.
Available to AP professionals at apcentral.collegeboard.com and to students and parents at www.collegeboard.com/apstudents.

GO ON TO THE NEXT PAGE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Former Slaves</th>
<th>Asian Indians</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1835</td>
<td>36,500</td>
<td>24,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1837</td>
<td>32,700</td>
<td>19,900</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1846</td>
<td>28,100</td>
<td>21,200</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1848</td>
<td>28,200</td>
<td>21,700</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1851</td>
<td>26,700</td>
<td>21,700</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2003 AP® WORLD HISTORY FREE-RESPONSE QUESTIONS

Document 7

Source: British Guiana Indenture Agreement, 1895.

CONDITIONS OF SERVICE AND TERMS OF AGREEMENT WHICH THE RECRUITER IS AUTHORIZED TO OFFER ON BEHALF OF THE AGENT TO INTENDING EMIGRANTS.

Period of Service: Five years from date of allotment

Nature of Labor: Work in connection with the cultivation of the soil or the manufacture of the produce on any plantation.

Number of Days on which the Emigrant is Required to Labor in Each Week: Every day, except Sundays and authorized holidays.

Number of Hours in each Day during which Emigrant is Required to Labor without Extra Remuneration: Seven hours in the fields or ten hours in the factory buildings.

Monthly or Daily Wages or Task Work Rates.

Able-bodied adult of and above sixteen years of age, shall be paid one shilling for each day’s work. Adult males, not able bodied, or minors (10-16), or females shall be paid 2/3’s of a shilling for each day’s work.

Condition as to Return Passage.

The emigrant on completing a continuous residence of ten years in British Guiana, and becoming entitled to a certificate of exemption from labor, shall, with family, if any, be provided with a free return passage back to Calcutta. After completing a continuous residence of five years and becoming entitled to a certificate of exemption from labor, the emigrant may return to India at his own cost. Blankets and warm clothing are supplied gratis on leaving India but not for the return voyage.

Other Conditions.

Rations shall be provided for the emigrant and family, if any, by the employer for three calendar months following the date of allotment, according to the scale sanctioned by the Government of British Guiana.

A suitable dwelling shall be assigned to the emigrant and family, if any, free of rent, and shall be kept in good repair by the employer; medicines, comforts, medical attendance, hospital accommodation and appropriate diet when sick shall be provided free of cost.

I agree to accept the person named on the face of this form on the above conditions.

Recruiter for British Guiana.
Document 8


Office of the Protector of Immigrants
Ramana, Indentured to T.T. Poynton states:
I complain that I am not allowed proper time to eat my meals during the day. I have to
commence work at about 5:30 in the morning and finish off about 8:30 p.m. daily. I work
on Sundays up to 2 o’clock.

I am overworked and the wages paid me is not sufficient.

Whenever I stop away for a day in a month, it is deducted from my pay and I am told by my
master that I will have to make up these days at the expiration of my indenture.

Ramana, X
(His Mark)

Document 9

Source: Statistics from various official government records.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SHARE OF TOTAL POPULATION IN SELECTED TERRITORIES DERIVING FROM INDENTURED MIGRATION</th>
<th>1920-1921</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asian Indians in Mauritius</td>
<td>71%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian Indians in Trinidad</td>
<td>33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian Indians in British Guiana</td>
<td>42%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian Indians in Fiji</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese in Hawaii</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese in Hawaii</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

END OF PART A