HANDBOOK FOR IMMIGRANTS.

PART I.

GENERAL DIRECTIONS.

CAUTION.

THERE can hardly be a more serious act than a change of country. To emigrate is to take a step, of which neither the most hopeful nor the most thoughtful can correctly foresee the full consequences, for good or for evil. It means nothing less than to part for years, if not forever, with home, relations, and friends; to break up old and dear habits; to live among strangers in a strange land; to recommence, often from the very beginning, the struggle of life.

The first question, then, for any one proposing to remove from his country to another is this: "Am I, or are those whom I propose to take with me, in a condition to emigrate?" In order to arrive at a proper answer, he will do well, —

1. To inform himself as fully as possible in regard to the United States, and the chances of improving his circumstances by removing thither. This book has been compiled with the purpose of furnishing the information which he needs. If he has friends in the United States in whom he has confidence, and who are in condition to give him trustworthy advice, let him by all means apply directly to them, and be guided by their experience.

2. Not to take counsel of his hopes only, or, in other words, not merely to think of the higher wages, cheaper lands, better food, and other advantages which he expects to find on the other side of the Atlantic, but also of what he will give up in the old country, of the expense and trouble of the journey, of the uncertainty of finding a better home, of the much greater cost of living, and of the possible effect which a change of habits and climate may produce upon his health.

3. To consider that, although labor is sure to find a more generous reward, and capital, if judiciously employed, to yield larger returns in the United States than in the old country, cases of disappointment always have been and always will be numerous.

4. To remember that contentment is essential to true happiness,

and to consider carefully whether the material gain to be found will compensate for the inevitable loss of much that is dear.

5. Not to weigh the effect of emigration selfishly upon himself alone, but also upon those whom he leaves, and upon those whom he takes with him.

WHO SHOULD EMIGRATE.

The general conditions of success in life are the same in the United States as in the old country, namely, a sound body, a sound mind, and a good character.

No one should emigrate who does not possess good health. Invalids will not be benefited generally by the change, and they run the risk of being turned back, as the American laws forbid their landing unless they show themselves possessed of means sufficient for their support. Persons beyond the prime of life should also abstain from emigration, unless they can depend upon the support of others when no longer able to work.

A strong mind is hardly less necessary than a sound body. Few emigrants escape disappointments and trials, to bear up under which requires buoyancy of spirits, patience, and power of self-denial. A certain degree of intelligence is also desirable in those who come to live among a people naturally so quick-witted as the Americans.

Persons unwilling to work, or accustomed to live by their wits alone, are not wanted in the United States. Idlers will only go from bad to worse, and adventurers will not prosper any more here than at home. Criminals, to whom the United States has always been a favorite refuge, are sent back as soon as discovered.

No one should emigrate without money enough to maintain himself after his arrival in the foreign country till he can earn a living, unless he has friends ready to help him. This applies especially to heads of families, who would be guilty of reckless imprudence in exposing themselves and their companions to the risk of arriving in destitute circumstances, and to the inevitable suffering ensuing. Let no one start depending upon charity alone, for charitable provisions at various points of landing serve only to meet the most urgent wants. To begin life in a new country as a pauper is at best an undignified start, which every person with any self-respect should wish to avoid. Moreover, under the laws of the United States, paupers are not permitted to enter the country.

Next to these general conditions, the success of an emigrant will depend upon his previous training and occupation. As a rule, those whose occupations are wholly or in part mental, are far less likely to profit by emigration than those who live by the labor of their hands.

Every one of the so-called learned professions is overstocked. There are more doctors, apothecaries, lawyers, literary men, architects, teachers, clergymen, and other men of liberal education in the United States than can make a decent living. In the cities and country districts of the older States especially, there is a superabundance of professional men, and even in the Western States, where their services are less required, the supply, though not of a high order, exceeds the demand.

It would be folly for most persons of this class to emigrate unless

they emigrate for other than material reasons, and come provided with sufficient means for their support during the long years when they will have to wait before they can expect to make a living from their profession. Professional young men, settling in some new community in the West, may gradually build up a practice. But this growing up with a place is a slow process, calling for not a little patience, and involving years of self-denial.

Persons following business pursuits will hardly do better than professional men. Their want of acquaintance with the country, and the different methods of doing business in it, will place them at a decided disadvantage. Owing to the intense competition in most branches of business, the percentage of failures among merchants is greater than in any other country. If merchants with capital emigrate at all, they should be content to wait until a protracted residence has rendered them familiar with the peculiarities of American business before investing their means. In the growing cities and towns in the West many opportunities for starting in business offer themselves, but even there the safest course will be to study the ground carefully before risking anything.

Clerks ought not to think of coming to the United States unless they have thoroughly made up their minds to lay down the pen and to take to the spade or the plough. No kind of labor is so much of a drug as clerical labor. Nearly everybody writes a good hand, and can keep books. The rush into this kind of work since the late civil war has been very great. Cases of grievous disappointment are very frequent among clerks, book-keepers, and shopmen from Europe who have come out under the impression that they will do better in a new country. For their purposes it is not a new country, but an old one.

Women who expect to earn their subsistence by teaching, tending shop, or sewing, are also very liable to disappointment.

Persons accustomed to earn a living by manual labor run the least risk in emigrating. A pair of stout arms, if united with habits of sobriety and economy, are sure to give the emigrant a good start in the States. With a knowledge of some mechanical trade he can still more confidently rely on doing well.

Of the different classes of laboring people none will find a better opening than agricultural laborers. Men with a small capital can easily become independent freeholders in the prosperous Western States. To this class of emigrants large families will prove a positive advantage, if the younger members can assist in tilling the soil. The demand for farm hands working for hire is great and constant in all parts of the country. Gardeners are almost everywhere in good demand. Ordinary laborers, able and willing to do any kind of work that will yield them a good living, will also not be long in finding something to do.

Good mechanics will likewise have little difficulty in obtaining employment. Among the most promising trades are those of boot and shoe making, tailors, carpenters, furniture makers, masons, stone-cutters, brick-makers, ordinary and decorative painters, plumbers, workers in iron, tin, and copper, machinists, printers, millers, brewers, and butchers. Highly skilled artisans, however, such as engravers,

workers in the precious metals, and the producers of articles of luxury generally, often do not improve their condition. Not a few persons of this class return to Europe after trying the country for a while. It is not because their skill is undervalued, but because the demand for such labor is unequal to the supply.

Operatives will do better than at home if they obtain employment, but their chances of finding it will depend very much on the state of the manufacturing business at the time of their arrival. Of late years, owing to the depression of many branches of industry in the States, the demand for operatives has diminished. More information for this class is given in Part II., under Manufactures.

Miners earn much higher wages in the United States than in Great Britain; but the largest branch of American mining industry, coal-mining, has for some time been very much disturbed by a succession of strikes, so that new-comers cannot be sure of finding work on landing. But they will be safe enough in coming out if they are willing to do other labor, until an opportunity offers to follow their regular occupation.

No class of persons will trust less to chance in emigrating than domestic servants. Male servants, such as butlers, coachmen, and grooms, it is true, are not much wanted outside of the larger cities; but females, such as cooks, maids, laundresses, and nurses, can find good situations everywhere for the mere asking. The demand for them is really unlimited.

FIRST STEPS.

Supposing emigration to be prudent, the first step is to decide whither it shall be directed. Two motives should guide the emigrant in his decision: first, the location of his friends, if he has any, as they can help him better than all the world besides; second, his own working capacity, which ought to carry him to some part of the country where it can be advantageously employed. When these two motives combine, and an emigrant looks forward to settling where he can have friends about him, and work before him, then he can form his plans unhesitatingly.

Heads of families, unless they know precisely where to go, will do well to make a trial visit before moving those depending on them. Going alone, they will be able to move about much more freely, with a better chance of finding a home or occupation. By bringing out their families only after seeing the country and selecting a suitable locality, they will save themselves much anxiety. They may also save expense, as the cost of the advance journey will hardly be as great as that of maintaining their families in the States while they are looking about for a place of settlement.

WHEN TO GO.

After deciding where to go, one must decide when to go. This is very simple, if circumstances allow a free choice. Spring is by all means the best season, summer the next, autumn the next, and winter the worst. In the summer the ocean is even quieter than in the spring, but by going early one has a better chance of immediate

employment on landing. In the winter, rough weather generally prevails on the ocean, but the ships are usually much less crowded than during the rest of the year.

HOW TO GO.

Steamships are far preferable to sailing vessels for the voyage. The former make the passage in from ten to fourteen days, while the latter require from four to eight weeks. The rates of passage are generally lower on sailing than on steam vessels, but the difference is not great enough to compensate for the loss of time and the hardships of a long voyage. The accommodations, especially the food, are generally much better on steamships. Nine tenths of the emigrants to the United States already come by steamers, and it is believed that sailing ships will soon entirely cease to be employed in carrying them. In 1869 steamers lost only one in a thousand passengers, while sailing vessels lost one in two hundred. This shows how much safer the former are.

To reach the port of embarkation, if the emigrant is not already there, requires information which can be fully given only on the spot, and we do not here attempt it. At most of the steamship agencies which are scattered over Great Britain and Northern Europe, tickets may be purchased to cover the expense of the journey to the port. The purchase of tickets requires caution. The emigrant must take care that he goes to the proper office, and gets the proper ticket at the proper price.

We now give a table in which the various steamship lines are enumerated, with details concerning their management as far as steerage passengers, that is, emigrants, are concerned.

STEAMSHIP LINES FROM NORTHERN EUROPE TO THE UNITED STATES.

Steamship Lines.	Tonnage and Horse-power of Steamers.	Agencies in Europe and the United States.	Ports of Embarkation and Debarkation.	Rates of Passage for Steerage Passengers.	Average No. of Steerage Passengers carried in a Steamer.	Space allowed each Passenger for Luggage.
Anchor Line.	From 1,000 to 3,300 tons, and from 400 to 1,200 horse-power.	Handyside and Henderson, Glasgow and Londonderry; Henderson Bros., Liverpool, Christiania, Gothenburg, and New York.	From Glasgow to New York, touching at Londonderry, Ireland. Run in connection with the Anchor Lines of North Sea steamers to Norway, Sweden, and Denmark.	From Glasgow, Londonderry, and Liverpool, £6 6s. From Gothenburg, Copenhagen, and Christiania, $38 (American currency). From Hamburg, Antwerp, and Rotterdam, $36 (American currency).	500	20 cubic feet. The company assumes no responsibility.
Cunard Line.	From 2,000 to 4,000 tons, and from 280 to 1,000 horse-power.	D. & C. MacIver, Liverpool and Queenstown; G. & J. Burns, Glasgow; S. Sorensen, Gothenburg; Christian Stapel & Co., Copenhagen; F. Preus, Christiansand; M. Otto U. Müller, Hamburg; Chas. Börnstein, Bremen; J. Hartmann & Co., Antwerp; J. De Waal, Rotterdam; Charles C. Francklyn, New York; Jas. Alexander, Boston.	From Liverpool to Boston, touching at Queenstown and Halifax; and to New York, touching at Queenstown.	From Liverpool, Queenstown, Glasgow, or Londonderry, to Boston or New York, £6 6s. From Gothenburg, Christiania, or Copenhagen, $38 (American currency). From Hamburg, Antwerp, Havre, or Rotterdam, $36 (American currency).	To Boston in 1870, 347. To New York in 1870, 365.	10 cubic feet.
Hamburg Line.	From 3,000 to 3,500 tons.	Hamburg, August Boltren; Havre, A. Brotstroem; London and Southampton, Smith, Sundius, & Co.; New Orleans, Williams, Ruperti, & Co., Maury & Co.; Havana, D. Erdmann; New York, Kunhardt & Co.	From Hamburg to New York, touching at Havre, and touching at Plymouth and Cherbourg on the return trip. Steamers are to run between Hamburg and New Orleans, touching at Havre and Havana.	From Hamburg to New York or New Orleans, 55 thalers (Prussian currency). From Havre to New York or New Orleans, 210 francs.	492	10 cubic feet.
Inman Line.	2,700 tons.	Wm. Inman, Liverpool; Alex. Malcolm, Jr., Glasgow; Cornelius Carlton, Dublin; Herman Roos, Gothenburg; P. M. Kölle, Copenhagen; H. Heitmann, Christiania; Falck & Co., Hamburg; H. Danelsberg, Bremen; Wm. Inman, Antwerp; Ruys & Co., Rotterdam; John G. Dale, New York; M. S. Creagh, Boston.	From Liverpool to Boston, touching at Queenstown and Halifax; and to New York, touching at Queenstown.	From Liverpool, Londonderry, Glasgow, or Cork, to Boston or New York, £6 6s From Gothenburg, Copenhagen, and Christiania, $45 (American currency). From Hamburg, Antwerp, and Rotterdam, $40 (American currency).	700	10 cubic feet.
National Line.	From 2,956 to 4,500 tons.	21 Water St., Liverpool; 69 Broadway, New York. With agencies in Ireland and Scotland.	From Liverpool to New York, touching at Queenstown.	From Liverpool or Queenstown, £6 6s.	500	10 cubic feet.
North German Lloyd.	3,000 tons, and 700 horse-power.	H. Peters, Bremen; W. Kennedy, Antwerp; Keller, Wallis, & Postlethwaite, Southampton; Oelrichs & Co., New York; A. Schumacher & Co., Baltimore.	From Bremen to New York and Baltimore, touching at Southampton. During the summer months, from Bremen to New Orleans, also touching at Havre, Southampton, and Havana.	From Bremen to New York, Baltimore, Havana, or New Orleans, 55 thalers (Prussian currency). From Antwerp to above ports, £9.	600	20 cubic feet for adults. 10 for children.
White Star Line	5,000 tons and 3,500 horse-power.	This line is new and not yet in complete operation. The principal offices now are 10 Water St., Liverpool; 19 Broadway, New York. Agencies will soon be established throughout Europe.	From Liverpool to New York, touching at Queenstown.	From Liverpool, £6 6s. From Hamburg or Bremen, 60 thalers. From Liverpool to New York, $33 (American currency).	1,000	10 cubic feet. There is a secure baggage room.
Williams & Guion.	3,000 tons, and 600 horse-power.	25 Water St., Liverpool; John Anderson, Gothenburg; H. C. Duhrcsen, Copenhagen; Blichfeldt & Co., Christiania; Morris & Co., Hamburg; Steinman & Co., Antwerp; J. B. Crol & Co., Rotterdam; 63 Wall St., New York.	From Liverpool to New York, touching at Queenstown	From Liverpool, £6 6s. From Christiania, 30 Sp. From Hamburg, 45 thalers. From Rotterdam, 75 florins. From Antwerp, 155 francs.	1,000	10 cubic feet.

Steerage passengers are furnished, on steamers of all of the above lines, with an abundance of food, of good quality, properly cooked, and served by the companies' stewards three times a day. This generally consists of fresh bread, tea or coffee, and gruel, if wished, for breakfast and supper, and beef or pork, soup, fish and potatoes, for dinner. Passengers must provide themselves, in all cases, with mattress, bedding, plate, mug, knife, fork, spoon, and water can. These can all be procured in Liverpool for fifteen shillings.

On all of the above lines, also, each passenger is assigned a separate berth, and single women are placed in rooms by themselves. The White Star Line places married couples and single women aft, and single men forward. On Anchor Line, nationalities are kept apart when in sufficient number.

Half fare is charged for children under twelve, and $5 for infants under one, on the English lines. On the German lines, half fare is charged for children under ten, and three thalers current for infants under one.

Passengers are prohibited from carrying wares or merchandise in the luggage, and are liable, in case of so doing, to confiscation and punishment. On the North German Lloyd steamers, they must also pay $400 to the ship. Gunpowder is prohibited, and weapons must be deposited with the captain.

Money, or objects of value, may be placed for safe keeping in the captain's or purser's hands during the voyage.

In buying his ticket by any of the above lines, it will be well for the emigrant, if his destination on the other side of the ocean is fixed, to inquire concerning his transportation thither from the port at which he is to land. Some of the steamship companies make it an object to buy a ticket from the starting-point in Europe to or near the point at which one is to settle in the United States. This course must not be taken by the emigrant without minute inquiry.

The outfit is another important matter. An emigrant ought to have one or more stout boxes, well roped, and plainly marked. He should fill it or them with substantial clothing, including boots and shoes, part for winter, part for summer wear; all costing much more in the United States than in Europe. Clothes of every kind, if in use, or ready for use, pass free at the custom-houses. Some articles may be required for the voyage. Concerning these, the rules of the steamship companies must be consulted. If the passenger has money or valuables, he would do well to deposit them with the purser of the ship during the voyage.

While on shipboard, one must be careful about his food, an abrupt change of diet being bad everywhere, and particularly at sea. The choice of acquaintances among the passengers should be very cautious, especially on the part of women. Discretion as to intercourse with others is of hourly importance during a voyage.

LAWS FOR THE PROTECTION OF EMIGRANTS.

A convention between the European powers and the United States for the protection of emigrants at sea has been proposed, and will probably be executed.

Meantime reliance must be placed on the separate legislation of the governments most nearly concerned.

That of Great Britain is as follows: —

On payment of passage money, emigrants are entitled to contract tickets specifying the name of vessel, date of sailing, and allowance of provisions. No runner or agent is entitled to a commission for procuring this ticket.

If a passenger shall report at the proper time on the day of sailing, and because of some action of the owner or officers, and by no default of his own, fail to obtain passage or guarantee of passage on another ship within ten days, with subsistence money in the interval, he may recover, before a justice of the peace, the money paid, and damages not exceeding £10.

No ship shall carry on her lower passenger deck a greater number of passengers than in the proportion of one person over twelve years of age, or two between one and twelve, to eighteen clear superficial feet of deck allotted to their use.

All male persons, fourteen years old and upwards, not occupying berths with their wives, must be berthed in a separate compartment from other passengers, and not more than one person (except husband and wife, or females and children under twelve) can occupy the same berth. Berths must not be removed till passengers are landed.

Passengers must be divided into messes of not more than ten each, estimating two persons between one and twelve as equal to one over

twelve, and the members of a family, one of whom is more than twelve years old, may form a separate mess.

Provisions according to the contract list must be issued to each mess daily, before two o'clock in the afternoon, such articles as require cooking having been cooked.

No spirits shall be sold on board.

Medicines and medical comforts (and in case the number of persons on board exceeds three hundred, a medical practitioner) must be provided by the owner or charterer of the vessel.

The medical officer and master may exact obedience to rules.

Passengers may be relanded in case of sickness, but must be provided with subsistence until they are forwarded, or the passage money is returned, or they decline or neglect to proceed. In case they are forwarded by the governor of a colony, or a consul, passage money cannot be reclaimed.

Passengers are entitled to eat and sleep on board for forty-eight hours after arrival in port, unless the vessel shall leave within that time to proceed on her voyage.

In case a breach of contract shall occur, the passenger may recover, by summary process before any two justices of the peace, the damages and costs, not to exceed in any case the amount of passage money, and £20. And a passenger shall be considered a competent witness in his own case.

Persons secretly stowing themselves on board a vessel for the purpose of procuring passage, are liable to a penalty of £20.

The legislation of the United States is as follows:—

No vessel shall carry more than one person in proportion to every two tons of such vessel, not including children under one year, and counting two children between one and eight years as one passenger. No person shall be carried on a deck where the height is not at least six feet in the clear. Where the height is seven and a half feet or more, fourteen superficial feet must be allowed for each passenger; when less than seven and a half, sixteen. The lower decks must be thoroughly ventilated.

Each vessel shall have on board, at the time of starting, a stock of provisions of good quality amply sufficient for the voyage, and proper facilities for cooking the same.

The captain of every such vessel is authorized to maintain good discipline and habits of cleanliness on board, and is required to make the necessary regulations, and to keep a copy of the same posted up in an accessible place during the voyage.

The State of New York has recently passed an act for the better protection of emigrants arriving at the port of New York, providing for an inquiry into any complaints of treatment, food, or other matters connected with the voyage.

NATIONAL OR STATE PROTECTION.

The protection of immigrants, as appears from the foregoing statements, has long been an object of national concern. But while the United States government has protected them in American vessels, it has left them on arriving, to the care of the States where they arrived.

This will appear from the following section. Within the last year or two, a movement has been begun with the purpose of establishing a Bureau or Board of Immigration by the national government, to take the place of the various boards or agencies hitherto appointed by the States. Bills are now before Congress which are intended to transfer the immigrant from State to national protection, immediately upon arrival.

LANDING.

At length the immigrant is in port. It is well if he has friends to receive him, or, in their absence, officials to direct him. Without one or the other, he must be on his guard at every turn. Runners, or agents, of one class or another, will beset him behind and before; some about his baggage, some about his boarding-house, some about the railroads by which he may be thinking of travelling to the interior. If he cannot help himself, he must ask help from the immigrant officers, or his fellow-passengers, and he will get it, if he deserves it.

The State of New York has established a Landing Depot for Immigrants at Castle Garden in the port of New York. The work centering there is done in departments, of which the following description is abridged from a pamphlet on Immigration, by Mr. Friedrich Kapp, late of the Commissioners of Immigration of the State.

I. *The Boarding Department.* — On arrival at the quarantine station (six miles below the city), every vessel bringing immigrant passengers is boarded by an officer of this department, stationed there for the purpose, who ascertains the number of passengers, the deaths, if any, during the voyage, and the amount and character of sickness, examines the condition of the vessel in respect to cleanliness, and receives complaints, of which he makes report to the General Agent and Superintendent at Castle Garden; he remains on board the ship during her passage up the bay, to see that the law prohibiting communication between ship and shore before immigrant passengers are landed is enforced. On casting anchor in the stream, convenient to the Landing Depot, he is relieved by an officer of the Metropolitan Police force, detailed at Castle Garden, and the passengers are transferred to the care of

II. *The Landing Department*, from which the Landing Agent proceeds with barges and tugs, accompanied by Inspector of Customs, to the vessel. After an examination of the luggage, it is checked, and the passengers with their luggage are transferred to the barges and tugs, and landed at the Castle Garden pier. On landing, the passengers are examined by a medical officer, to discover if any sick have passed the health authorities at quarantine (who are thereupon transferred by steamer to the hospitals on Ward's or Blackwell's Island), and likewise to select all subject to special bonds under the law, as blind persons, cripples, lunatics, or any others who are likely to become a future charge. This examination being ended, the immigrants are directed into the Rotunda, a circular space with separate compartments for English-speaking and other nationalities, to

III. *The Registering Department*, where the names, nationality, former place of residence, and intended destination of the immigrants, with other particulars are taken down. The passengers are then directed to

IV. *The Agents of the Railroad Companies*, from whom they can procure tickets to all parts of the United States and Canada, without the risk of fraud or extortion to which they are subjected outside of the Depot. In the mean while, the baggage and luggage are stored in the baggage room. A brass ticket, with any letter of the alphabet from A to F inclusive, and a number from 1 to 600, is delivered to the immigrant on landing, and a duplicate fastened on his piece of baggage. The trunk or box is then placed in the baggage-room. This room has six bins, designated by the letters A, B, C, D, E, F, and each bin has six hundred numbers. Accordingly, when the immigrant produces his ticket, a baggageman at once goes to the bin indicated by the letter and number on the ticket, and delivers the baggage required.

The immigrants destined inland, on delivery of their check, take their baggage to the weigher's scales. After having been weighed and paid for, it is sent free of charge to the depot of the railroad or dock of the steamboat by which they leave. Such immigrants as design remaining in this city and vicinity are directed to

V. *The City Baggage Delivery*, which ascertains the address to which the immigrants may desire to have their luggage sent, and takes their orders, exchanging the brass check received from the Landing Agent on shipboard, for a printed paper one. The luggage is then promptly delivered in any part of this city and vicinity at a moderate rate of charges, approved by the Commission. At the same time, those having gold or silver which they may wish to have exchanged for United States currency are directed to one of three

VI. *Exchange Brokers*, admitted into the Depot, who change specie for a small advance on the market rate, set forth in a conspicuous place for the observation of the immigrant, the daily fluctuations in rates being duly noted.

These last three departments are conducted by responsible parties, who, while not officers, are nevertheless under the close and constant supervision of the Commission, and are required to keep a record of all transactions, subject to the inspection of any member of the Board.

VII. *The Information Department.* — When the foregoing operations are completed, the immigrants are assembled in the Rotunda, and an officer of the Commission calls out the names of those whose friends attend them in the waiting-room at the entrance of the Depot, and to whom they are directed. At the same time are called out the names of those for whom letters or funds are waiting, which are then delivered to the proper owners through the Forwarding Department. Immigrants who desire to communicate with friends at a distance are referred to

VIII. *The Letter-writing Department*, where clerks, understanding the various Continental languages, are in attendance to write. The immigrant, while waiting a reply, if destitute, finds a home in the institutions at Ward's Island.

IX. *Boarding-house Keepers*, licensed by the Mayor and properly certified as to character by responsible parties, are admitted to the Rotunda, after the foregoing business has been completed, to solicit for their respective houses such immigrants as desire to remain in the city for any length of time. These boarding-house keepers are subject to certain regulations, and every precaution is taken to guard the immigrant against the abuses and imposition to which he was formerly liable.

X. *The Forwarding Department* receives, through the Treasurer, all communications and remittances from friends of immigrants, sent either before their arrival or in response to letters written by the Letter Department.

XI. *The Ward's Island Department* receives all applications for admission to the Refuge or Hospital there. Attached to this department are two physicians, whose duties are to examine all sick and destitute applicants for relief, and to visit all such at their residences in the city, and report to the General Agent.

XII. *The Labor Exchange.* — Each immigrant on arriving is requested to enter his or her name, ship, date of arrival, and character of employment; while every employer is required to enter his or her name, residence, recommendations, references, and description of labor wanted. This Labor Exchange furnishes an intelligence office, *without charge*, for immigrants desirous of finding employment or service in the city or at a distance; and undertakes to supply all sorts of skilled mechanical and agricultural labor to employers in any part of the United States, who come with a proper guarantee of character and other necessary qualifications.

Such is the Commissioner's account. A few words from a pamphlet by a Scotch farmer give an immigrant's impressions.

"When the shore is reached, the passengers, baggage and all, are driven to Castle Garden, between two lines of officials, in the same manner as the railway officials in the west put the wild Texas cattle into the cars, minus the whipping. In the passage along Castle Garden, we were met first by one government official, and then by another, each of whom asked a distinct class of questions, and scrutinized the appearance of every immigrant. Some of the questions were as follows: What is your name? Where is your former place of residence? Whither are you going? What is your trade? After the government inspectors were satisfied, we were pushed farther on to a large open area, where we had to remain till all had passed this ordeal. When this formal business was completed, we wanted to get out to a hotel to secure a bed and get rested, for we were very much used up. We were told by the door-keeper that we must remain till the business was completed. I insisted on getting out on the plea of sickness, — and very sick I was, — but that had no effect. There I had to remain along with many more, to be assailed by a host of what were called very respectable lodging-house keepers, and to hear an almost endless string of names called over, which was only interesting to a few. One would infer from the name of this place — Castle Garden — that he was entering into a paradise; but I could call it by another name. It contains a Labor Exchange, — a most important and useful office for immigrants

whose minds are not fixed on any particular place, and especially for those who have no money to carry them farther. A meal can be got in the building for half a dollar, and immigrants can remain in it to wait the chance of employment. There is no place for them to sleep, unless on the floor or on a form. If one possessed of money or valuables wishes to remain for a time about New York, and knows of no place for their safety, he should hand them over to the General Superintendent of Castle Garden, in whose hands they are quite safe, and who will grant a receipt for them. An immigrant can leave his baggage there for days or weeks, if it is not convenient for him to remove it, but he should be careful always to get a check for each box, which is his guarantee for his property, from the Company's employees. Every employee, while on duty, is obliged to wear and exhibit a badge, showing his position, which is a good arrangement to prevent imposition by sharpers. All services rendered to immigrants by the servants are without charge. The Immigration Commissioners have established a hospital for immigrants prostrated by sickness, and not able to pay for medical assistance and comforts. These and other arrangements at Castle Garden are all well meant, and have done good, and are possibly doing good still; but from the many complaints in and out of the place, it is evident there is a screw loose somewhere."

At all the principal ports to which steamship lines bring immigrants, especial provisions are made for their benefit.

The following account of those at the port of Boston is taken, in substance, from a recent journal.

On the arrival of the steamship, the decks are alive. The passengers cluster at the forecastle and hedge the bulwarks, some with eager eyes watching for the first look of recognition from some expectant relative; others with stolid but not altogether uninterested gaze, scanning the new situation, all anxious to get ashore and enjoy the first taste of the larger liberty which they have crossed the seas to obtain. The gangways are flung open, the custom-house officers take their positions on the planking, and then an excited throng begins to push its way out. Inspected as they pass, they gather in companies, or rush about in confusion, actuated by the common desire to gain possession of their luggage, and assure themselves that their little store of goods and chattels is safe. As soon as the customs officers have gone through their examinations, the chests and trunks are strapped again, unless, as sometimes happens, contraband articles are discovered.

Meanwhile the immigrants are looked after by the agents of the steamship company, who take excellent care of every one. They employ two interpreters, who speak all the languages which may happen to be the mother tongue of any of the immigrants. The business office is at the upper end of the wharf. Nearly all the immigrants bring prepaid orders, which entitle them to a railroad ticket to the place of their destination. These orders they present at the business office, the interpreter standing by to converse with those who need his aid, and each order is checked, registered, and returned to the owner in an envelope, with a direction printed in six languages, — English, French, German, Italian, Danish, and Swedish, — informing them that

they are to exchange it for railroad tickets at the railroad station outside the gate. Meanwhile they find tables with seats and a huge stove which furnishes plenty of warmth. At the proper hour cooked food is furnished to all who desire it. Those who are destined to any place in Massachusetts or the other Eastern States are allowed to depart as soon as the customs officers have inspected their baggage. The others repair to the passenger station on the neighboring wharf and wait for the train, on which they find food provided for them. The wharf, where their baggage is landed and transferred, is protected by a high gate; and while the immigrants are disembarking, none but officials or agents are allowed to be present, so that the immigrants are entirely free from the danger of being swindled by sharpers. Persons of respectable intentions are sometimes allowed to inquire for domestics, but the difficulties which they experience in finding any one who is anxious to get a situation convinces them that very few of the immigrants come here at a venture. No fees are charged by the agents who care for them.

At Portland and Baltimore much the same precautions are taken as at Boston.

At New Orleans, a State Bureau of Immigration has provided offices for record, labor exchange, and land registry, the last furnishing official statements concerning the lands for sale in the interior of the State. A circular from the Commissioners of Immigration makes the following statement (we abbreviate it) which is worth considering:

"The route *via* New Orleans and the Mississippi River for European immigrants destined even to the extreme Northwestern States and Territories, is cheaper, and more comfortable than that *via* New York. Being available in the winter time, it thereby enables the immigrant to save a summer's work, which, in the United States, is equivalent to the cost of transportation for himself and an ordinary family from Europe. The immigrant fare from Hamburg or Bremen to New York is precisely the same as to New Orleans. The railroad fare on the slow immigrant cars from New York to St. Louis, including less than one hundred pounds of baggage, is fully ten dollars more than the fare from New Orleans to St. Louis on large and commodious steamboats, with comfortable accommodations for passengers, and no account taken of the baggage, — a matter of very great importance." But this is a route to be taken only from October to April, on account of the unhealthy climate during the rest of the year.

Some statistics with regard to immigration to the port of New York will be found at the conclusion of this part of the Handbook.

SETTLEMENT.

Where the residence of the immigrant is not already decided, it had better be made at some point in the interior. The great cities of the seaboard are generally the poorest homes for the new-comer, unless his skill in certain branches of industry or traffic makes such places the most advantageous for him. To the large majority of immigrants, skilled or unskilled, the agricultural, mining, and manufacturing industries of the interior offer greater advantages than can be found on the coast.

IMMIGRANT AID SOCIETIES.

In deciding upon a location, or upon the mode of getting to it, or upon any similar question, the immigrant, unless thoroughly provided with old friends, will act wisely in seeking new ones where they may be really found. At any port of debarkation, if we mistake not, and at many of the great industrial centres in the interior, societies have been organized, generally by immigrants themselves, to aid immigrants in various ways. We give a list of these societies so far as we are advised, and recommend every reader of this volume whom they are intended to assist, to obtain their assistance in case of need, and even of doubt, on his part. Such societies as are omitted from the list will confer a great favor upon the Association publishing this Handbook, by forwarding their address and any account of their work which they may be willing to contribute towards the next edition. Some further details respecting one or two of these societies will be given under the cities where they are established, *e. g.* German Immigrant Aid Society, under New York.

Place.	Society.	Office, President, or Agent.
Boston.	German.	Julius Elson, 51 West Street.
New York.	German.	13 Broadway.
	Irish.	51 Chambers Street.
Philadelphia.	German.	24 South Seventh Street.
Baltimore.	German.	272 South Broadway.
Savannah.	German.	
New Orleans.	German.	10 St. Peter's Street.
Cincinnati.	German.	
Chicago.	German.	
	Irish.	
	Scandinavian.	
Fort Smith, Ark.	German.	Julius Happeck.
St. Louis.	German.	315 Elm Street.
St. Paul.	German.	
	Irish.	32 Marshall Avenue.
	Scandinavian.	5 Lafayette Avenue.
Sacramento.	German.	C. Wolleb, Post Office Box 320.
San Francisco.	California Union.	
	French.	
	German.	732 Washington Street.
	Irish.	
	Italian.	
	Scandinavian.	

HOW TO TRAVEL.

Travel of some sort is commonly necessary to ensure a satisfactory settlement. And like everything else in a strange country, travel requires caution. The immigrant from the Continent of Europe will find that many precautions to which he is accustomed there, are not

taken here by the railroad or steamboat officials. He must look out for himself, choose the right route, buy the right ticket, get into the right car, and so on, through his journey, without waiting for specific directions.

Immigrants intending to settle in *Maine*, if landing at Portland or at Quebec, will be taken from either of these ports by the Grand Trunk Railroad to the interior of the State. Those seeking homes in *New Hampshire*, *Vermont*, *Massachusetts*, *Rhode Island*, and *Connecticut*, landing at Boston, will find numerous roads to all parts of those States. Those for *New York*, *New Jersey*, *Pennsylvania*, and *Delaware*, landing at New York City, may take the Hudson River and New York Central Railroad, the Erie Railroad, the Allentown Line, or the New Jersey Railroad and Pennsylvania Central, or one of the shorter roads, according to the particular point which they wish to reach. Those for *Maryland*, *Virginia*, *West Virginia*, *North Carolina*, *South Carolina*, *Georgia*, *Alabama*, *Florida*, *Kentucky*, *Tennessee*, and *Arkansas*, landing at Baltimore, may proceed thence by various lines. Those for *Mississippi*, *Louisiana*, and *Texas*, landing at New Orleans, go thence by land or water. For *Michigan*, *Wisconsin*, and *Minnesota*, the most direct route is either by the Grand Trunk Railroad from Portland or Quebec to Detroit, or the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad from New York to Suspension Bridge, near Niagara, or by the Boston and Albany Railroad and its connections from Boston to Suspension Bridge, and thence by the Great Western Railroad of Canada to Detroit, from which there is convenient railroad and steamboat communication. For *Ohio*, *Indiana*, *Illinois*, *Iowa*, and *Missouri*, the New York Central, Erie, or Pennsylvania Central Railroad takes passengers from New York, and connects with other lines for all parts of the West. Those landing at Baltimore can also easily reach the States just named by the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad and its connections. *Kansas*, *Colorado*, *New Mexico*, and *Arizona* can be reached most readily by the Pennsylvania Central, or the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad, and their connections, to St. Louis; going on by the Pacific Railroad of Missouri and the Kansas Pacific Railroad. For *Nebraska*, *Nevada*, *California*, *Oregon*, and the Territories not mentioned, one may follow either of the before-named routes to Chicago; thence either of the roads to Omaha, and finally, the Union Pacific and Central Pacific Railroads to their destination.

The following are the present rates of fare on immigrant trains to prominent points in the West from New York City by either of the three lines, Erie, New York Central, or Pennsylvania Central. Children under four years of age are carried free, and those between four and twelve are charged half price. Each adult passenger is allowed to take eighty pounds of baggage without extra charge.

	Fares from New York.	Extra Luggage per 100 lbs.	Distance in Miles.
Ann Arbor, Mich.	$11.10	$2.75	716
Buffalo, N. Y.	6.00	1.80	433
Burlington, Iowa	18.40	4.00	1,122
Cairo, Ill.	18.20	4.05	1,141

	Fares from New York.	Extra Luggage per 100 lbs.	Distance in Miles.
Chattanooga, Tenn.	$19.70	$5.60	980
Chicago, Ill.	13.00	3.10	911
Cincinnati, Ohio	11.50	2.80	744
Columbus, Ohio	10.00	2.50	624
Des Moines, Iowa	23.75	5.30	1,251
Detroit, Mich.	10.00	2.50	679
Dubuque, Iowa	19.50	4.35	1,100
Erie, Pa.	8.30	2.15	508
Fort Wayne, Ind.	11.10	2.75	763
Galena, Ill.	19.45	4.20	1,083
Grand Haven, Mich.	13.00	3.10	868
Green Bay, Wis.	20.50	4.40	1,153
Indianapolis, Ind.	12.35	3.00	838
Iowa City, Iowa	20.15	3.60	1,147
Jefferson City, Mo.	18.65	4.75	1,210
Junction City, Kansas	30.85	6.75	1,504
Kalamazoo, Mich.	13.00	3.10	822
Kansas City, Mo.	21.85	5.40	1,366
Keokuk, Iowa	17.00	3.90	1,232
La Crosse, Wis.	21.50	4.75	1,191
Louisville, Ky.	13.70	3.25	900
Madison, Wis.	17.60	3.90	1,019
Marquette, Mich.	26.00	5.05	1,228
Memphis, Tenn.	19.70	5.30	1,289
Milwaukee, Wis.	15.50	3.55	996
Muscatine, Iowa	19.70	4.45	1,130
Nebraska City, Neb.	26.30	6.00	1,500
Omaha, Neb.	26.80	6.00	1,455
Oshkosh, Wis.	19.30	4.15	1,104
Parkersburg, W. Vir.	11.45	2.15	569
Pittsburg, Penn.	7.10	2.60	431
Port Sarnia, Can. W.	8.50	2.20	485
Prairie du Chien, Wis.	20.50	4.45	1,190
Quincy, Ill.	16.30	3.75	1,176
Rock Island, Ill.	18.50	4.20	1,093
Sacramento, Cal.	60.00	8.00	2,900
St. Joseph, Mo.	21.85	5.35	1,385
St. Louis, Mo.	16.10	3.75	1,840
St. Paul, Minn.	26.00	5.80	1,441
San Francisco, Cal.	60.00	8.00	3,300
Sioux City, Iowa	33.00	6.85	1,453
Springfield, Ill.	14.90	3.50	1,062
Suspension Bridge, N. Y.	6.00	1.80	527
Terre Haute, Ind.	13.25	3.15	912
Toledo, Ohio	10.35	2.60	742
Topeka, Kansas	26.20	6.05	1,433
Vicksburg, Miss.	23.20	7.45	1,542
Vincennes, Ind.	13.95	3.30	936
Wheeling, W. Vir.	8.45	2.20	522

Charges from Portland and Boston are about ten per cent. more than the above; from Philadelphia, about five per cent. less; from Baltimore, about ten per cent. less.

All these rates are from time to time revised, the general tendency being toward lower prices; and where rail comes into competition with water transportation, the charges, are considerably lower in summer than in winter.

Steamboat lines usually charge less, but are slower, and the deck passage furnished to immigrants is often exposed and uncomfortable.

It is to be understood that the immigrant trains upon most of the roads are made up of old and uncomfortable carriages, though never so much so as the third-class carriages of Europe. They travel slowly, fifteen miles an hour on the average, and with frequent delays. Any one with a little spare money may take the general passenger trains, and save time and meals upon his journey.

Of ordinary railway travelling in the United States, the Scotch farmer already quoted speaks enthusiastically:

"Although somewhat far advanced, I cannot close this report without remarking on the vast superiority of the American mode of railway travelling as contrasted with our system at home. There, in the railway carriage as everywhere else, all men are equal. There are no first, second, and third classes either in carriages or passengers; and the accommodation is magnificent. The seats are placed in rows along the sides of the carriages, with an open space between, and are finely cushioned. Entrance is by a door in the ends. At each end also a stove is placed, and kept lighted in cold weather. Among other conveniences there are smoking-cars, water-closets, drinking-water, and sometimes a dining-car, gorgeously fitted up, where all creature comforts can be got at reasonable charges; so that the longest journey is rendered comfortable in some degree."

As this is no place for time tables or other details respecting railroad or steamboat routes, the reader is recommended to provide himself with such a guide-book as he will find for sale at any principal depot.

BUILDING.

In case the immigrant decides to settle upon unoccupied land, he will be obliged to build, and a few suggestions are given to help him in this important undertaking.

The most usual building material for farm-houses is wood. This is used either in hewn timbers for the walls of the building, with sawed stuff for the floors and fittings, making what is called a log-house, or entirely in sawed stuff, in which case it is called a frame-house. Where timber is abundant, the saw-mill distant, and labor scarce, the house with walls of hewn timbers is generally to be recommended, and is well suited to the extremes of the American climate, being warm in winter and cool in summer. Houses of boards should be built with care to have them warm enough for the winter, provided they are north of Southern Virginia, Tennessee, or Missouri. To secure this, there should be a coat of plaster against the outer boards so as to give a tight air space in the walls.

At many points in the West, one may buy framed houses with the

pieces numbered, so that they can be easily transported and put up expeditiously.

Brick and stone are generally more costly than wood, and therefore less used than in Europe.

In building it should be remembered that pine does not endure well in contact with the ground. Cedar, chestnut, or locust is the proper wood for such a position. All woods exposed to the rain are the better for whitewash or paint.

If the region is swampy or subject to fevers, the house should stand on the highest land, and the bedrooms as high in the house as possible. Bedrooms should never be on the ground floor if it can be avoided.

In the prairie country, trees should be planted as soon as possible on the north side of the house. Six rows or more of pines, fifteen feet apart, will make a great shelter in a few years against the severe winds from that direction.

The main point to be remembered is that the heat of summer and the cold of winter are much greater than in Europe. Houses should be built with reference to this.

STATISTICS FOR 1870.

The following table gives the total number of immigrants arriving in the different ports of the United States during the year ending September 30th, 1870 :—

	Great Britain.	Ireland.	Germany.	Norway and Sweden.	China.	British N. A. P.	All others.
December 31, 1869.	22,117	8,656	26,576	3,652	1,965	9,100	4,872
March 31, 1870. .	11,633	4,872	8,881	483	1,732	7,609	3,280
June 30, 1870 . .	39,346	30,941	51,555	15,382	6,453	14,889	7,216
September 30, 1870	25,391	12,795	19,752	6,491	2,886	26,823	4,162
	98,487	57,264	106,764	26,008	13,036	58,421	19,530

Total 379,510

The following table of arrivals at Immigrant Landing Depot shows the immigration to the port of New York for the year 1870.

From what Port.	Steamers.		Sailing Vessels.		Total Number of Passengers.
	No.	Passengers.	No.	Passengers.	
Liverpool and Queenstown . . .	224	118,300	27	5,075	123,375
Glasgow and Londonderry . . .	74	23,398	2	371	23,769
London and Havre	20	4,605	24	1,507	6,112
Bremen and Hamburg	95	43,703	47	11,435	55,138
Other Ports	18	5,135	2	25	5,160
	431	195,141	102	18,413	213,554

The Castle Garden Labor Bureau reports the following: —

1. *Engagements.* — From January 1st to December 31st, 1870, the Labor Bureau procured employment for 27,912 persons, namely, 17,857 males, 10,055 females. Of the males, 3,186 were mechanics, 14,671 agricultural and common laborers. Of the females, 306 were skilled laborers (cooks, laundresses, seamstresses, weavers, etc.), and 9,749 were common house servants.

2. *Education.* — Of the 27,912 immigrants thus cared for at the Bureau, 23,312 (15,433 males, 7,879 females) could read and write; and 4,600 (2,424 males, 2,176 females) could not.

3. *Distribution of Labor.* — From a table prepared at the Bureau, it appears that the supply of labor was distributed chiefly in the city of New York and the States of New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut.

New York City.		*New York State.*		*New Jersey.*		*Connecticut.*	
Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.	Males.	Females.
4,704	7,411	6,468	869	4,341	1,499	927	201

making 26,420 out of the total 27,912.

4. *Occupations.* — Those of men and boys who found employment through this office were as follows: —

Apprentices	29	Gas-fitters	3
Bakers	77	Gilders	10
Bar-keepers	18	Goldsmiths	9
Basket-makers	3	Grocery clerks	23
Blacksmiths	59	Hatters	21
Bookbinders	34	Heaters	23
Brass-finishers	16	Iron-moulders	74
Brewers	49	Lithographers	10
Brick-layers	28	Locksmiths	79
Brush-makers	3	Machinists	74
Butchers	60	Masons	61
Cabinet-makers	371	Millers	12
Cap-makers	8	Miners	80
Carpenters	89	Painters	70
Chemists	3	Paper-hangers	11
Cigar-makers	32	Plasterers	6
Compositors	11	Plumbers	4
Confectioners	23	Polishers	25
Cooks	10	Porters	37
Coopers	21	Printers	21
Cutlers	2	Puddlers	57
Deck-hands	43	Ropemakers	2
Druggists	5	Saddlers and harness-makers	61
Dyers	10	Shoemakers	345
Engineers	2	Slate-roofers	2
Engravers	10	Soap-makers	5
Florists	34	Spinners	11
Fresco-painters	21	Stone-cutters	31
Furriers	3	Tailors	315
Gardeners	143	Tanners	32

Tinsmiths	48	Watchmakers	9
Turners	30	Weavers	167
Upholsterers	25	Wheelwrights	34
Varnishers	8	Wine-coopers	7
Wagon-smiths	31	Wood-carvers	10
Waiters	43		
Total			3,186

5. *Wages.* — (a.) Farm hands and female servants are paid according to the following averages: —

	Males, per month, and board.	Females, per month, and board.
January	$9.25	$9.00
February	13.25	9.25
March	14.75	9.75
April	16.75	10.00
May	17.75	10.25
June	20.75	10.25
July	19.00	10.00
August	15.25	10.00
October	11.50	10.00
November	10.50	9.75
December	9.00	9.75

(b.) Common laborers earn from $1.50 to $2.00 per day, without board.

(c.) The wages for skilled labor cannot be exactly specified, as the workmen make their own contracts with the employers, the price being regulated by ability and the season.

* indicates wages *with board*. d. means day, w. week, m. month.

Apprentices,	$4.00–5.00 w.	Cutlers,	$12.00–18.00 w.
Bakers,	$6.00–14.00 m.	*Deck-hands,	$25.00–30.00 m.
*Barbers,	$9.00–15.00 m.	*Druggists,	$18.00–25.00 m.
*Bar-keepers,	$10.00–30.00 m.	*Dyers,	$20.00–25.00 m.
Basket-makers,	$15.00–18.00 w.	Engineers,	$15.00–18.00 w.
Blacksmiths,	$2.00–3.50 d.	Engravers,	$15.00–35.00 w.
Bookbinders,	$10.00–18.00 w.	*Florists,	$15.00–25.00 m.
Brass-finishers,	$10.00–20.00 m.	Fresco-painters,	$15.00–35.00 w.
*Brewers,	$15.00–25.00 m.	Furriers,	$10.00–15.00 w.
Brick-layers,	$3.50–4.00 d.	*Gardeners,	$15.00–25.00 m.
Brush-makers,	$2.00–2.50 d.	Gas-fitters,	$15.00–20.00 w.
*Butchers,	$10.00–20.00 m.	Gilders,	$15.00–18.00 w.
Cabinet-makers,	$2.00–3.00 d.	Goldsmiths,	$20.00–30.00 w.
Cap-makers,	$8.00–12.00 w.	*Grocery clerks,	$8.00–15.00 m.
Carpenters,	$3.00–4.00 d.	Hatters,	$15.00–20.00 w.
Chemists,	$10.00–12.00 w.	*Heaters,	$25.00–30.00 m.
Cigar-makers,	$8.00–15.00 w.	Iron-moulders,	$18.00–20.00 w.
Compositors,	$15.00–25.00 w.	Lithographers,	$12.00–25.00 w.
*Confectioners,	$30.00–40.00 m.	Locksmiths,	$8.00–15.00 w.
*Cooks,	$25.00–100.00 m.	Machinists,	$15.00–18.00 w.
Coopers,	$18.00–20.00 w.	Masons,	$3.00–4.00 d.

*Millers,	$12.00–18.00 m.	Soap-makers,	$10.00–12.00 w.
Miners,	90 cents per ton.	Stone-cutters,	$3.00–4.00 d.
Painters,	$10.00–15.00 w.	Tailors,	$10.00–20.00 w.
Paper-hangers,	$10.00–15.00 w.	*Tanners,	$10.00–15.00 m.
Plasterers,	$3.00–5.00 d.	Tinsmiths,	$10.00–15.00 w.
Plumbers,	$2.50–3.00 d.	Turners,	$10.00–18.00 w.
Polishers,	$10.00–15.00 w.	Upholsterers,	$12.00–18.00 w.
Porters,	$8.00–15.00 w.	Varnishers,	$9.00–12.00 w.
Printers,	$12.00–18.00 w.	Wagon-smiths,	$10.00–18.00 w.
Puddlers,	$2.00– —— d.	*Waiters,	$15.00–30.00 m.
Rope-makers,	$12.00–15.00 w.	Watchmakers,	$15.00–20.00 w.
Saddlers and harness-makers,	$12.00–15.00 w.	Weavers,	$9.00–12.00 w.
Shoemakers,	$9.00–15.00 w.	Wheelwrights,	$15.00–16.00 w.
Slate-roofers,	$2.00–3.00 d.	*Wine-coopers,	$30.00 m.
Spinners,	$9.00–12.00 w.	Wood-carvers,	$15.00–20.00 w.

WAGES.

The preceding table furnishes a standard of comparison. In proportion as the area of labor expands, and its occupants diminish in number, their wages will be more remunerative. As the immigrant proceeds westward, therefore, leaving the somewhat overstocked industries of the seaboard behind him, he will find, as a general rule, that he earns more, and spends less for the necessaries of life. There is the greater reason for the advice already given him, to get into the interior instead of lingering in the port where he may arrive.

It was the intention of this compilation to give a full statement of wages in all employments and in all parts of the United States. But after the expenditure of much time and money, the data obtained proved insufficient for the purpose. In fact, so many circumstances are to be taken into account, the various rates of spending as well as those of earning money, that we doubt the practicability of drawing up a table of wages by which it would be safe for a stranger to shape his course. At all events, such a table, if it can be constructed, must be deferred to a later edition of this Handbook.

MONEY.

Values are expressed in dollars and cents, the sign $ standing for dollars. Thus $1.25 means one dollar and twenty-five cents. The dollar contains one hundred cents.

The United States coinage is in copper or nickel, or both, for cents, silver for dollars and parts of a dollar, gold for dollars and dollar pieces. At present no coins but cents are in general circulation. The currency is in paper, either fractional, *i. e.* parts of a dollar, or bills from one dollar to one thousand dollars; the former issued by the government, the latter both by the government and the banks. Paper money is not equal in value to gold or silver; and the immigrant who brings out his savings in coin, is entitled to a premium on exchanging it for the common currency. This premium is now about

ten per cent., so that every dollar in gold or silver is worth ten cents more in paper.

Some of the principal gold and silver pieces of Europe are at the following rates in United States gold and silver: —

Gold.

England, sovereign	$4.84
France, 20 francs	3.84
N. Germany, 10 thalers	7.90
" " Prussian	7.97
S. Germany, ducat	2.28
Sweden, "	2.23

Silver.

England, shilling	22 cents.
France, 5 francs	98 "
N. Germany, thaler	72 "
S. Germany, florin	41 "
Sweden, rix dollar	$1.11

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

These are the same in the United States as in Great Britain. The following table gives the value of the principal units in French, German, and Swedish reckoning: —

United States.	France.	Prussia.	Sweden.
1 foot =	30.48 centimetres	11.653 zoll	1.027 fot
1 yard =	91.44 centimetres	1.37 ellen	3.08 fot
1 mile =	1.609 kilometres	427.3 ruthen	54.2 ref
1 acre =	40.466 ares	1.585 morgen	4.59 square ref
1 gallon =	4.54 litres	3.968 quart	1.736 kannor
1 bushel =	36.35 litres	10.58 metzen	7.936 kappar
1 pound =	453.59 grammes	31.03 loth	1.068 skalpund
1 "short" ton =	907.18 kilogrammes	17.63 centner	21.355 centner

POSTAGE.

The law requires postage on all letters, excepting those written to the President or Vice President, or members of Congress, or (on official business) to the chiefs of the executive departments of the government, and the heads of bureaus and chief clerks, and others invested with the franking privilege, to be prepaid by stamps or stamped envelopes, prepayment in money being prohibited.

All drop letters must be prepaid. The rate of postage on drop letters, at offices where free delivery by carrier is established, is two cents per half ounce, or fraction of a half ounce; at offices where such free delivery is not established, the rate is one cent.

The single rate of postage on all domestic mail letters throughout the United States is three cents per half ounce, with an additional rate of three cents for each additional half ounce, or fraction of a half ounce.

To Foreign Countries.	Letters not exceeding one Half Ounce.	Regular Fee for Registered Letters and other Postal Packets.
	cts.	cts.
Australia, British mail, *via* Southampton	16	16
Australia, British mail, *via* Marseilles	24	16
Australia, *via* San Francisco	10	–
Australia, *via* Brindisi	22	16
Belgium	10*	8
Belgium, *via* Bremen and Hamburg	12*	8
Canada (including New Brunswick and Nova Scotia) (letters, if unpaid, 10c. per half ounce)	6*	5
Denmark, *via* North German Union, direct (if prepaid, 10c.)	13*	8†
Denmark, *via* North German Union, closed mail, *via* England (if prepaid, 13c.)	16*	8†
France (by every steamer *via* England)	4*	–
France (by direct steamer only)	10	–
German States (Austria, Baden, Bavaria, Prussia, Wurtemberg), *via* North German Union, direct	7*	8
German States, *via* North German Union, closed mail, *via* England	10*	8
Great Britain (England, Ireland, Scotland, Wales)	6*	8
Holland	10*	8
Italy, *via* North German Union, direct	11*	8†
Italy, *via* North German Union, closed mail, *via* England,	14*	8†
Italy, closed mail	10*	8
Sweden, *via* North German Union, direct (prepaid, 11c.)	13*	8†
Sweden, *via* North German Union, closed mail, *via* England (prepaid, 14c.)	16*	8†
Switzerland, *via* North German Union, direct	12*	8
Switzerland, *via* North German Union, closed mail, *via* England	15*	8
Switzerland, French mail	42*	–
Switzerland, closed mail	10*	8

* Indicates that in cases where it is annexed, unless the letter be registered, prepayment is optional; in all other cases prepayment is required.

† The registration is only for letters.

PART II.

THE UNITED STATES.

NORTH AMERICA looks, as it were, across the Atlantic Ocean towards Europe; across the Pacific towards Asia. Its central zone, covering about twenty degrees of latitude, and fifty-five of longitude, with an area of 3,000,000 square miles, is occupied by the United States. A large tract in the northwest, of about 600,000 square miles, belongs to the same nation.

The Atlantic coast line is about 2,200 miles, the Gulf about 1,800, and the Pacific, both western and northwestern, more than 2,000. Including the shores of bays, sounds, and lakes, the line is 30,000 miles in length.

Two ranges of mountains, the Alleghanies in the east, and the Rocky Mountains in the west, divide the country into three great regions: 1st, the Atlantic Slope, between the Alleghanies and the ocean; 2d, the Mississippi Basin, between the Alleghanies and the Rocky Mountains; and 3d, between the latter and the Pacific, the Pacific Slope, — not a single region, but broken by two ranges, the Sierra Nevada, and the Coast or Cascade, which intervene between the great chain of the Rocky Mountains and the western shore.

The principal divisions according to river systems are: 1st, the St. Lawrence, in the north; 2d, the Atlantic, including the Connecticut, Hudson, Delaware, and Potomac, in the east; 3d, the Mississippi, running with the Missouri (in fact the main stream) from the northern border to the Gulf of Mexico, and taking in the Ohio on the east, and the Arkansas and Red River on the west, with many lesser tributaries; 4th, the Texas Slope, with the Colorado and Rio Grande; 5th, the Pacific Slope, with the Columbia and another Colorado, together with the basins of the Red River in the north, and Utah in the interior.

The Great Lakes on the northern border are a distinctive geographical feature. It is computed that they contain more than half of all the fresh water in the globe.

CLIMATE.

Compared with that of Northern Europe, the climate of the eastern and central regions of the United States is more backward in spring, hotter in summer, brighter in autumn, and colder in winter. The autumn is generally considered the most beautiful season, equa-

ble in temperature, brilliant in foliage, and during one or two weeks, called Indian summer, wrapped in a soft and glowing haze. Just as in Europe, so here, there are striking differences between the north and the south, the coast and the interior, highlands and lowlands, dry and damp soils.

If the immigrant likes a warm climate, he will turn southward; but he must be on his guard against unhealthy situations, and against unhealthy seasons in almost all situations. In the farther Northwest and West he will find mild winters, windy summers, and a distinction between dry and wet months not known elsewhere.

Perhaps the first characteristic of the American climate is that it is not all one, but rather manifold. An average temperature of 40° to 47° Fahr., or 4½° to 8⅓° Cent., prevails in Maine, New Hampshire, Vermont, Northern New York, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Dakota, Montana, Idaho, and Washington; of 47° to 52° Fahr., or 8⅓° to 11° Cent., in Massachusetts, Rhode Island, Connecticut, Southern New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, West Virginia, Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Iowa, Nebraska, Oregon, and Wyoming; of 52° to 60° Fahr., or 11° to 15½° Cent., in Delaware, Maryland, District of Columbia, Virginia, Kentucky, Tennessee, Missouri, Kansas, Nevada, Northern California, Colorado, Utah, Northern New Mexico, and Arizona; of 60° to 77° Fahr., or 15½° to 25° Cent., in North and South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Louisiana, Arkansas, Texas, Southern California, and Southern New Mexico.

But no table can give an accurate idea of the changes in temperature from one season to another, or, as often occurs, from one day to another. An immigrant arriving in summer will be surprised at the coldness of the following winter, or, arriving in winter, at the heat of the following summer. Were he to decide upon a location according to the atmospheric conditions of any one month or day, he would probably often be disappointed during the course of the year. On this point, as on many others, local inquiries must be made.

Another, and a very striking characteristic of the climate is its dryness. Fine weather is apt to be moist in Europe, but not in America. Towards the Gulf of Mexico and the Pacific there is more moisture than elsewhere; but the atmosphere throughout the country is dry. The effect of this on various industries is given in a recent essay, showing how clothes dry sooner after being washed, paint and plaster after being put on walls, skins after being tanned. Mouldiness is less troublesome, and provisions can be more safely stored than in Europe. On the other hand, it is mentioned that those who have been accustomed in their native country to make a supply of bread for several weeks, find their bread in the United States harden and become unpalatable in a few days.

An immigrant will soon find that the climate affects his appetite and his diet. He needs more meat than he did at home, and wherever he boards he gets it. On the other hand, he neither needs nor is able to bear the stimulants to which he may have been accustomed; and if he has been in the habit of taking strong drinks, the sooner he discontinues it here, the better.

From rain tables, prepared from observations during a series of years at different places, it appears that the mean yearly fall of rain is about thirty-five inches. On the Atlantic coast, and indeed over most of the country, the rain-fall is distributed throughout the year. On the Pacific coast, the rains occur as a rule in the winter and spring months. Among the Rocky Mountains, the rain-fall is light, varying from three to twenty inches annually, with occasional violent showers. Snow rarely falls south of the Potomac, except among the mountains. Its average duration in the north is from three months on the coast to five months in the interior.

SOIL.

Th s will be described under the States and Territories, Parts III. and IV.

MINERAL RESOURCES.

The mining region may be naturally divided into four districts, each having a tolerably distinct character: 1st, the region of the Alleghany Mountains; 2d, the valley of the Mississippi. 3d, the valley of the Great Lakes; 4th, the Cordilleras, or ranges from the eastern slope of the Rocky Mountains to the Pacific coast.

The Alleghany region abounds in coal from the northern part of Alabama to the New York line. The western part of Virginia, eastern Ohio, central Pennsylvania, and eastern Kentucky contain the Appalachian coal field, which has over 50,000 square miles of workable coal, all bituminous except a few hundred square miles of anthracite in central Pennsylvania. This coal field is as yet imperfectly developed, and a large part of the lands containing workable seams is for sale at low prices. The coal in this region is divided into three main varieties, ordinary bituminous, cannel, and anthracite. Just east of this great basin is a narrow slip of coal land extending through southern Virginia, near Richmond, down into North Carolina, which contains some very good bituminous coal. A small amount of hard coal is also found in Rhode Island. Iron ore occurs in abundance at a great many points along the Alleghany range between Canada and Georgia. Copper has been worked in Vermont, Connecticut, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and northern Georgia. Lead occurs at a number of points, and is now worked in southwestern Virginia. Gold has been found at several points, but never worked to profit except along the eastern flanks of the mountains in Virginia, North and South Carolina, and Georgia. Mines and washings in these States were carried on until the outbreak of the Rebellion, in some cases with considerable profit.

In the Mississippi valley we have another coal field, which underlies a large part of Illinois and southwestern Kentucky. This basin, though less extensive and valuable than the Alleghany basin, contains a great deal of good coal, most of which is accessible without deep working. Except in coal and iron, there is little mineral wealth as yet discovered east of the Mississippi. West of that river we have, in Missouri, extensive deposits of lead ore; on the borders of Wi - consin, Iowa, and Illinois, many small mines of lead, producing once

large quantities of that metal, but now somewhat less than it was a few years ago. The richest iron ores of the Mississippi valley are those about Iron Mountain in Missouri, where high hills are composed of quite pure ores. Zinc is found in Wisconsin and Arkansas.

That portion of the basin of the Great Lakes which lies to the west of Lake Erie contains some very valuable mineral lands. Michigan contains one of the richest iron regions, whose mines now supply more ore than those of any other region in the United States. The basin of Lake Superior also affords the principal copper mines of North America. Although these mines are now less profitable than they were some years ago, they are still surpassed only by those of Great Britain and Chili.

The mountainous region of the West, stretching from the Plains to the Pacific, is peculiarly rich in mineral deposits of varied character. Coal has been found in considerable quantities in Colorado, but of rather inferior quality; a better quality has been found in Utah, Wyoming, and California. No considerable deposits have as yet been developed in any other part of this district. Gold mines are worked extensively and with success in Colorado, Nevada, New Mexico, Utah, Arizona, Idaho, Montana, and California; the largest number of successful mines in the last State. Some of the lodes in this region are among the most productive that have ever been worked. Silver ores occur throughout these States and Territories, but the mines of Nevada are the most extensive, and promise very large yields in the future. Copper and lead ores have been found at various points, but the cost of labor and transportation has caused them to remain unworked, except in California, where they have been mined successfully. The quicksilver mines of California are also worked to advantage.

The immigrant miner knows the hardships of mining. He needs to be cautioned only on two points. 1st. The strikes among the coal miners of the East will interfere with his steady employment as one of their number. 2d. The necessity of capital to develop the gold mines of the West will prevent his success if he has only labor to bring with him.

ANIMALS.

1. *Domesticated.* — North America has but one native animal which has ever been domesticated, that is, the turkey. All the other animals which are kept in that state have been brought by European colonists. Though this continent has furnished no animals useful to man, all those which have been brought here by him succeed very well indeed. All the domesticated animals of Europe can be raised over the whole of the United States, and in by far the larger part fare quite as well as at home. Horses do well everywhere, and are on the average better than in Europe. Horned cattle, except on the sandy soils of South Carolina, Georgia, and the other States of the extreme South, are as good as the best European. Sheep, both for wool and flesh, prosper over the whole country. Swine succeed equally well. On the whole, these animals are less liable to contagious diseases than in Europe. It must be noticed, however, that at some points in the new lands of the West, especially along the borders of

the Ohio River and its tributaries, there is a peculiar disease termed "milk sickness" which is fatal to cattle, and can be communicated through the flesh and milk of the animals to man. This disease is singularly local, rarely affecting the cattle in any but a small region in each country where it occurs. It does not affect other animals. These localities are always well known, and the settler can easily avoid them. The disease is supposed to be caused by certain peculiar elements in the water of the springs where it occurs. While the settler should exercise caution on this point, he need not allow it to deter him from locating in the region where the disease occurs.

The best region for raising horned cattle and horses is found in the valley of the Ohio, especially that part of it which lies to the south of the main stream and in the State of Missouri. The State of Texas is the region where they can be reared at the least expense, as no winter provision is necessary there; but the quality of the cattle is inferior, and they are more liable to disease than in other localities farther north and east. Goats have been introduced at several points, and have succeeded well. The Cashmere variety is beginning to be reared with success. Camels have been successfully reared, but are not required, and therefore are no longer used. The wild buffalo has not been tamed, nor is that from Europe in use.

All the domesticated birds which are reared in Europe succeed very well indeed.

The culture of the silk-worm was followed for a while with great success. The dearness of labor during the last twenty-five years has made it difficult to compete with European manufactures. The worm is freer from disease than in Europe, and on this account the eggs of the silk-worm are shipped in large quantities from San Francisco to Europe, where they give larger cocoons than native eggs. Bees succeed in all cultivated regions; wild swarms are numerous in the West. Do not try to bring European animals to America. You are likely to fail in the effort to get them over the water, and the native stocks will suit your purpose better.

Some native silk-worms which feed upon the wild cherry have been reared experimentally, with success about Washington. The silk produced is of a coarse quality, and cannot be reeled from the cocoon, but has to be carded.

2. *Wild.* — Most of the large game of the country has been killed off. Deer are rare east of the Alleghanies; in the Western States they abound at certain points. The other large-horned animals are not found out of the Indian country, except in a part of northern Maine where moose still exist. Bears are also quite rare, being essentially limited to the States beyond the Mississippi and the Southern States. Beavers are about extinct in all the region east of the Mississippi. The birds differ little from those of Europe. Water-fowl are plentiful in their season in the level region of the Northwest. Partridges and quail (small birds related to pheasants) abound in the West and Southwest. There being no laws for the protection of birds in most of the States, except against gunning at certain seasons, they are rapidly killed off.

Wolves are almost unknown east of the Mississippi. The common bear is not dangerous; the grizzly is not found out of the Rocky

Mountain region. Small animals like the minx and weasel abound in the frontier settlements, and are somewhat destructive to fowls. They soon become extirpated. Venomous serpents are found in small number over nearly the whole country, but fatal accidents are rare, much rarer than deaths by lightning in Europe. When bitten by any serpent with a blunt tail and rather sluggish movement, the wound should be burnt. A good plan is to make a cross-shaped cut through the wound, wipe it, pour a little gunpowder upon it, and set it on fire. If on a limb, tie a tight bandage above the wound so as to stop the blood. Alchoholic stimulants are also very useful. Not one serpent in a hundred is dangerous.

Insect plagues are not more frequent than in Europe. Except in Texas, there are none which can do serious injury to man by their sting or bite.

There are no insects very injurious to stock which are not found in Europe.

The marine fishes of the United States on the eastern coast resemble those of Europe quite closely. The principal catch of school fishes is of mackerel and herrings. The ground fish of most value are the cod and the halibut. Salmon, once very plentiful on the whole coast, have been driven from most of the rivers ; efforts are now being made in the New England States to restore them to the streams by artificial breeding, with prospects of success. The shad, a fish related to the mackerel, but much larger, and counted the most valuable market fish all things considered, abounds in the streams from the Florida coast northward at certain seasons.

The fresh-water fishes of the United States are not as varied as those of Europe. Trout abound in the mountain streams of the little settled regions. The fresh-water lakes of the Northwest are stocked with valuable edible fishes, but the settler can set little store by this resource.

PLANTS.

The timber trees of America resemble those of Europe in a general way. Pines, firs, larches, beeches, oaks, lindens, walnuts, poplars, maples, willows, etc., etc., abound in the regions of similar temperature to those in Europe. All these forms of trees, however, are found in greater variety here than in the Old World ; several times as many different sorts of some forms as in Europe. There are also very fine kinds of trees, such as the tulip-trees, the sweet gums of the central region of the United States, the live-oaks and cypress of the Southern States, and the giant trees or sequoias which once, many thousand years ago, lived in Europe, but now have perished there.

In New England, along the high lands of the Alleghanies, and over the sand plains of the Carolinas and Georgia, pines and other evergreen cone-bearing trees abound ; in the valley of the Ohio, oaks, maples, tulip-trees, walnuts, ash, sycamores, locusts, etc. West of the Ohio (State) line timber becomes scarcer. Illinois, Indiana, Kansas, Iowa, Wisconsin, and all the region from two to five hundred miles east of the Rocky Mountains count scarcity of timber among their most disadvantageous features. The want of timber is due to the spread of fires ; most trees do well on the prairie soil. The *Robinia*

pseudacacia or locust, one of the most beautiful and valuable trees, giving a timber which rots more slowly than any other, grows with such rapidity on the better sorts of prairie soil that in ten to twenty years it is ready for the market. As yet the want of timber in the West has been little felt. Nearly all the prairies have patches of woodland every few miles.

Chestnuts will grow well except in the very coldest regions. Walnuts, the native and English kinds, flourish almost everywhere.

Sugar is made in large quantities from the juice of the sugar-maple. In New England and New York many farmers find it a profitable crop.

The southern pine, found in the Carolinas and Georgia, as well as in other States, though in less abundance, yields resin, tar, and turpentine. The trees whose bark is useful in tanning, namely, the red oaks, the hemlock, and the sumacs, abound throughout the central and northern regions.

The vegetation is a valuable indication of the quality of soil. As a general rule, the hard-wood trees which lose their leaves every year, indicate richer soil than the pines, firs, spruces, and hemlocks. In the valley of the Ohio, the best lands are those which have a varied timber. Beech and walnut grow on good soils; where the oaks predominate, the land is generally of a less fertile character.

The following trees, being of quick growth, are valuable plants in those regions where trees are not plenty:—

Cotton-wood (*Populus monilifera*), very rapid growth, wood good for many purposes, but not enduring.

Locust (*Robinia pseudacacia*), rapid growth, wood enduring, flowers very beautiful and sweet scented; grass will grow beneath the trees.

The black-walnut (*Juglans nigra*), rapid growth, beautiful tree, valuable wood, but not useful until the tree is at least thirty years old, except for commoner uses. Wood not fitted for out-door use.

The wild fruits are much like those in Europe. Strawberries abound in the northeast region. Blueberries, huckleberries, and cranberries, fruits of heath-like plants, abound along the shore region, some ranging far west. Blackberries are found over nearly the whole country, and raspberries are common in the northern regions. Two wild American fruits are unlike any found in Europe. The papaw, a tall shrub or small tree, grows to twenty-five feet in height on good land, bearing a number of fruit, as large as small cucumbers, with a rich custard-like interior. The persimmon, or date plum, grows in southern New York and Illinois and to the southward; a small, bushy tree, with fruit much like dates when quite ripe. It grows on poor soil in Kentucky, Virginia, and some of the neighboring States.

All European fruits, except those of the south, succeed well in the Northern States. Apples do well in the northernmost regions, and south to South Carolina and Mississippi; peaches, from southern New York and southern Illinois southward; grapes, from Massachusetts and Lake Erie to the Gulf. Plums grow, but are generally damaged by insects.

POPULATION.

Soon after the independence of the United States was established,