Hunter & Munro, 1907, Adam and Chas. Black, London

Greenock are there; they culminated, after half a century of the most daring and successful development, in the James Watt Dock, which was expected to divert much of the shipping from Glasgow but has not realised the dreams of its projectors.

James Watt was born in Greenock, in a house which subsequently became a tavern. His father was a small shipowner and town councillor of the burgh. Greenock has few antiquities, and unhappily Samuel Smiles, seeking "local colour" for his "Lives of the Engineers," found the citizens had razed the home of their most notable townsman, and were indifferent to the site of it. But Greenock has honoured the name of Watt elsewhere than in its dock; a curious cairn to his memory is in the cemetery, and a commemorative statue by Chantrey is in the vestibule of the Watt Institution erected by his son.

If Greenock could appreciate scientific genius it has ever had a name for indifference to poetry. John Wilson, the author of the most ambitious poem inspired by the river Clyde, was appointed a schoolmaster in the burgh on condition that he should "abjure the profane and unprofitable art of poem-making." "I once thought to live by the breath of fame," wrote the involuntary mute inglorious bard, years after, "but how miserably was I disappointed, when, instead of having my performance applauded in crowded theatres, and being caressed by the great—for what will not a poetaster, in the intoxicating

Voyage - detail

delirium of possession dream!—I was condemned to bawl myself to hoarseness among wayward brats, to cultivate sand, and wash Ethiopians, for all the dreary days of an obscure life, the contempt of shopkeepers and brutish skippers." Another poet who fared ill in "Sugaropolis" was poor Jean Adam of Cartsdyke, who in the early years of the eighteenth century taught "wayward brats" as Wilson did, and wrote religious verse in the Tate and Brady style that scarce supports the claim advanced for her authorship of "There's nae luck aboot the Hoose," which Burns declared "one of the most beautiful songs in the Scots or any other language." Whether she or William Julius Mickle wrote that moving lyric still remains a point disputed; the association of her name with it has rendered the more pathetic her neglected and homeless fate which ended in a Glasgow poorhouse. Nor is the obloquy of the bard in Greenock completed with the case of this poor school-mistress; Thomas Campbell sent the manuscript of his "Hohenlinden" to a Greenock newspaper (as the story goes), and had it returned to him as not being up to the journal's standard for things of the kind.

In our own day, another poet, and probably the greatest we have had in Scotland for a century, has had scholastic relations with Greenock. John Davidson spent his youth here, and "washed Ethiopians" with as little taste for it as Wilson. He has in his ballad on "The Making of a Poet" painted Greenock as no artist has done in pigment.

"I need," he says, "no world more spacious than the region here—

"The foam-embroidered firth, a purple path
For argosies that still on pinions speed,
Or fiery-hearted cleave with iron limbs
And bows precipitate the pliant sea;
The sloping shores that fringe the velvet tides
With heavy bullion and with golden lace
Of restless pebble woven and fine spun sand;
The villages that sleep the winter through,
And, waking with the spring, keep festival
All summer and all autumn: this grey town
That pipes the morning up before the lark
With shrieking steam, and from a hundred stalks
Lacquers the sooty sky; where hammers clang
On iron hulls, and cranes in harbours creak,
Rattle and swing, whole cargoes on their necks;
Where men sweat gold that others hoard or spend,
And lurk like vermin in their narrow streets:
This old grey town, this firth, the further strand
Spangled with hamlets, and the wooded steeps,
Whose rocky tops behind each other press,
Fantastically carved like antique helms
High-hung in heaven's cloudy armoury,
Is world enough for me. Here daily dawn
Burns through the smoky east; with fire-shod feet
The sun treads heaven, and steps from hill to hill
Downward before the night that still pursues
His crimson wake; here winter plies his craft,
Soldering the years with ice; here spring appears,
Caught in a leafless brake, her garland torn,
Breathless with wonder, and the tears half-dried
Upon her rosy cheek; here summer comes

And wastes his passion like a prodigal
Right royally; and here her golden gains
Free-handed as a harlot autumn spends,
And here are men to know, women to love."

Fervent though Mr. Davidson's verse may be, it in no way (barring the absence of any adequate allusion to rain) overestimates the wonderful variety of natural charm in the environment. From the terraced streets that rise on the heights behind the generous esplanade, the vision, passing over the evidences of reeking and unremitting toil, compasses the sparkling firth, the Highland lochs and hills. Pennant was enraptured with the prospect, which from the Lyle Road or the "Cut" reveals parts of seven or eight counties. John Galt, the first and greatest of our "kailyarders," must have often looked across the firth "broad-bosomed like a mere," with some effect on subsequent emotion, for he spent the most impressionable period of his life in Greenock, and though he once protested that he could not recollect a single circumstance that should endear the place to him, he later changed his mind. "Much of my good nature towards mankind," he said, "is assuredly owing to my associates at Greenock," and it was back to Greenock he came, a broken man, to die. A curious thing is Scottish sentiment; though Greenock has duly commemorated Galt, it is not to his grave the public make their pilgrimages, but to that of Burns's "Highland Mary," who is buried in the old kirkyard.

Through grey, strenuous and constricted thorough-

John Davidson's Greenock poem, "The Making of a Poet" in RFair "Voyage" folder w/ other Greenock material

5th A rey. British Isles Gazetteer DA 640.B2 Voyage

shire (ry. sta., **Dalmeny,** N. B. R.), on the Firth of Forth, 9½ miles W. of Edinburgh by rail—royal burgh, pop. 880; parl. and mun. burgh, pop. 1850, town, pop. 1850; P.O., T.O. The parl. burgh and town extend into Dalmeny par. Queensferry, situated at the south end of the Forth Bridge, so named from being the place where Margaret the queen of Malcolm Canmore crossed the Forth on her frequent journeys between Edinburgh and Dunfermline, was long an important ferry station. It has a fair harbour and two boat piers. There are remains of a Carmelite friary built in 1332, part of which is used as the Episcopal church. Queensferry is one of the Stirling Burghs, which return 1 member to Parliament.

Queensferry, North, vil. with ry. sta., N. B. R., Fife, on Firth of Forth, opposite South Queensferry, at north end of Forth Bridge, and 2 miles S. of Inverkeithing; pop. 594; P.O., T.O.; is a sea-bathing resort; there is a coast-guard station; ferry plies between N. and S. Queensferry. See also ROSYTH.

Queenshead. See QUEENSBURY.

Queenshill, seat, Kirkcudbrightshire, 2 miles N. of Tarff ry. sta.

Queenside, loch and seat, 5 miles NW. of Lochwinnoch, W. Renfrewshire.

Queensnympton, par., Devon, S. Molton registration dist.; 544 ac., pop. 44.

Queenstown, seaport and market town and urb. dist. with ry. sta., G. S. & W. R., SE. co. Cork, on S. side of Great Island, in Cork Harbour, 13 miles SE. of Cork and 177¼ miles SW. of Dublin by rail, and 285 miles SW. of Liverpool by sea; 550 ac., pop. 7909. Market day, *Saturday*. Queenstown was formerly called Cove of Cork, and received its present name in honour of Queen Victoria's visit in 1849. The town is finely situated on the side of a hill, is well and regularly built, and has greatly increased in population and importance during the last fifty years. The harbour, which is well sheltered, and large enough to accommodate the whole British navy, is protected by a battery on Spike Island, and defended at the entrance by the Carlisle and Camden forts. (See CORK HARBOUR.) Queenstown is a port of call for American steamers, and for the transmission of American mails; it is also the southern station for emigration. The scenery, the fine climate, and the bathing attract many visitors, and a great number of the merchants of the city of Cork have seats along the banks on each side of the harbour. The R.C. Cathedral occupies a commanding position over the harbour; it was commenced in 1868. Here is the station of the Royal Cork Yacht Club. At the end of the boat pier is a fixed light visible 2 miles.

Queenstown Junction, ry. sta., G. S. & W. R., in co. and 6 miles E. of Cork.

Queenwood College, 8 miles NW. of Romsey, Hants; the "Harmony Hall" (1842) of Robert Owen was here.

Queenzieburn (including Gavell), vil., in par. and 1½ mile W. of Kilsyth, Stirlingshire; pop. 551.

Queich, North, rivulet, Kinross-shire; rises among the Ochil Hills, and flows 6½ miles SE. to Loch Leven 1 mile SE. of Milnathort.

Queich, South, rivulet, partly of Perthshire, but chiefly of Kinross-shire; rises among the Ochil Hills, and flows 8½ miles SE. to Loch Leven at Kinross.

Quellyn Lake, ry. sta., North Wales Narrow Gauge Ry., Carnarvonshire, beside LLYN QUELLYN: which see.

Quemerford, vil., 1 m. SSE. of Calne, W. Wilts; P.O.

Quenby, hamlet, Leicestershire, 1 mile SE. of Hungarton; **Quenby Hall,** a Tudor mansion, is the seat of the Ashby family.

Quendale Bay, Shetland, 1½ mile NW. of Sumburgh Head; **Quendale House,** seat, at head of bay, is 23 miles SW. of Lerwick.

Quendon, par. and vil., Essex, 6 miles SW. of Saffron Walden; 657 ac., pop. 126; P.O., T.O.; near vil. is **Quendon Hall,** seat.

Quenibsrough, par. and vil., in co. and 6 miles NE. of Leicester; 2182 ac., pop. 532.

Quenington, par. and vil., Gloucestershire, on river Coln, 8 miles NE. of Cirencester; par., 1996 ac., pop. 357; P.O.; has traces of a preceptory of Knights Hospitallers.

Quenny, stream, Shropshire; rises in the Long Mynd, and flows 8 miles SE. and S. to the Onny at Halford.

Quenvais, The, tract of land, in SW. of Jersey, Channel Islands; was once fertile, but is now covered with drifted sand.

Quernmore, par. and vil., Lancaster par., N. Lancashire, 3 miles NE. of Lancaster; 7323 ac., pop. 606; P.O.; near vil. is **Quernmore Park,** seat.

Querrin, pl., 5 miles SW. of Kilrush, S. co. Clare; P.O.

Quest Hills, on slope of the North Hill and forming part of Malvern Link, Worcestershire; P.O.

Quethiock, or **Quithick,** par. and vil., Cornwall, 4 miles E. of Liskeard; 4562 ac., pop. 430; P.O., T.O.

Quex, seat, Kent, 3 miles SW. of Margate; was the resting-place of William III. on his way to and from Holland.

Queynton, 7 miles NW. of Aylesbury, Bucks; P.O. See QUAINTON.

Quickningar Hill, mt., NE. Dumfriesshire, on border of Selkirkshire, 6 m. NNE. of Eskdalemuir; alt., 1601 ft.

Quidenham, par., Norfolk, 5 miles S. of Attleborough; 1142 ac., pop. 128; P.O., T.O.; **Quidenham Hall** is the seat of the Earl of Albemarle.

Quidhampton, ham., 2 miles W. of Salisbury, Wilts.

Quien, loch, in island of Bute, 4 miles SW. of Rothesay.

Quigleyspoint, 9 miles from Moville, NE. co. Donegal; P.O., T.O.

Quilca House, near Mullagh, SE. co. Cavan; was the residence of Sheridan's father, and here Swift wrote his "Tale of a Tub" and "Gulliver's Travels."

Quilty, vil. with ry. sta., West Clare Ry., co. Clare, 4¼ m. S. of Milltownmalbay; pop. 176; P.O.

Quin, riv., N. Hertfordshire; flows 8 m. S. to join the riv. Rib at Braughing.

Quin, par. and vil. with ry. sta. (**Ardsollus and Quin**), G. S. & W. R., mid. co. Clare, 6 miles SE. of Ennis.—par., 9352 ac., pop. 993; vil., pop. 176; P.O., T.O.; has remains of an abbey built for Franciscans (1433).

Quinag, mountain, Sutherland, on N. side of Loch Assynt, 8 miles NE. of Lochinver; alt., 2653 ft.

Quinalahy, ham., W. co. Sligo, 4 m. SW. of Easky.

Quinbury, ham., Hertfordshire, 1 m. N. of Braughing.

Quine's Hill, eminence, 2 m. SW. of Douglas, Isle of Man.

Quinta, ham. and seat, NW. Shropshire, 1¼ mile SSW. of Chirk.

Quintin, bay, 2½ miles E. of Portaferry, NE. co. Down.

Quinton.—par., Gloucestershire, 5½ miles S. of Stratford on Avon; 2460 ac., pop. 385; contains **Quinton House,** seat.—**2. Quinton,** par., in co. and 4½ miles SE. of Northampton; 1225 ac., pop. 131.—**3. Quinton,** eccl. dist., Halesowen par., Worcestershire, 4 miles SW. of Birmingham; pop. 5200; P.O., T.O.—**4. Quinton,** par., Worcestershire, 5 miles S. of Leominster; 838 ac., pop. 975.—**5. Quinton,** Bucks. See QUAINTON.

Quinville Abbey, seat, mid. co. Clare, ¾ mile N. of Quin.

Quiraing, mountain, Skye island, Inverness-shire, in extreme N. of island; alt., 1779 ft.; on its summit is a kind of crater, which presents wonderful rock formations, the most striking being a tapering pinnacle, the "Needle." From the bottom of the hollow rises a truncated conical mass forming the "Table," 300 ft. long by 180 broad.

Quither, hamlet, Devon, 6 miles NW. of Tavistock.

Quithick, Cornwall. See QUETHIOCK.

Quivals, ham., 1¼ mile NE. of Broughtown, Sanday, Orkney; P.O.

Quivox. See ST. QUIVOX.

Quixhill, ham., Staffordshire, 5½ m. N. of Uttoxeter.

Quoditch, hamlet, Devon, 7 miles SE. of Holsworthy.

Quoich, Loch (5¼ miles by ¾ mile), SW. Inverness-shire; receives the Quoich (which flows 8 miles SE. through Glen Quoich), and gives out the Garry.

Quoich Water, Aberdeenshire; rises between Ben a' Bourd and Ben Avon, and flows 8½ miles SE. to the Dee 2 miles SW. of Braemar; the **Linn of Quoich,** a beautiful waterfall, is 1 mile above its mouth.

Quoile, river, E. co. Down; is the tidal part of river Ballinahinch, before it enters Lough Strangford.

Quoisley, Cheshire. See MARBURY WITH QUOISLEY.

Quolie Water, affl. of river Braid, co. Antrim, flows SW. to Broughshane, 4 m. NE. of Ballymena.

Quorndon, or **Quorn,** urb. dist., par., and town, with ry. stas. (**Quorn and Woodhouse**), G. C. R., and (**Barrow-on-Soar and Quorn**) M. R., Leicestershire, 2½ miles SE. of Loughborough; urb. dist. and par., 2220 ac., pop. 2173; P.O., T.O., called **Quorn.** Here are the kennels of the Quorn Hunt. **Quorn House, Quorndon Hall,** and **Quorndon Lodge** are seats.

Quothquan, vil., Lanarkshire, 2 m. NE. of Thankerton sta.

Quoyburray, ham., 5½ m. SE. of Kirkwall, Orkney, P.O.

Quoyloo, 8 miles N. of Stromness, Orkney; P.O.

Quy, ry. sta., G. E. R., in co. and 4½ miles NE. of Cambridge; P.O.; adjacent is **Quy Hall,** seat. See STOW CUM QUY.

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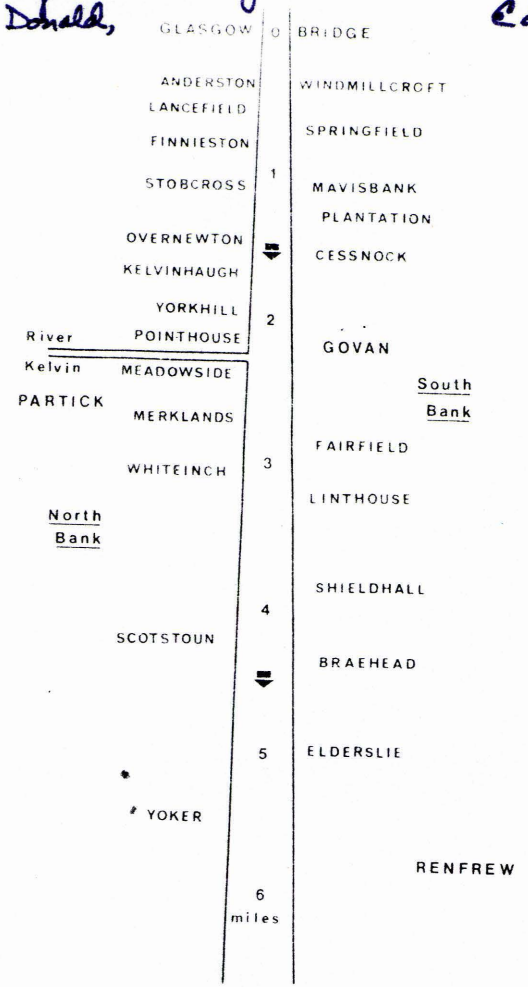
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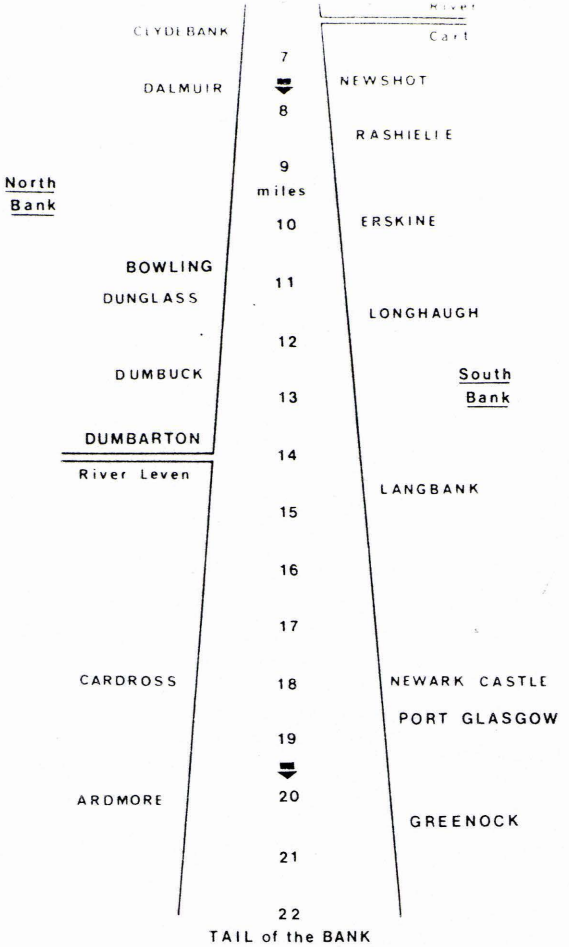


2. The Clyde from Glasgow Bridge to Renfrew.

reservoired for water supply and only at the Falls of Clyde, near the market town of Lanark, is the stream slope sufficiently great to allow the flow to be used for the development of hydro-electric power.

By strict definition the River Clyde becomes the Clyde Estuary just upstream of Glasgow. It is to that point, albeit during extreme conditions of high tide and low river flow, that the salt water of the Atlantic Ocean can penetrate. Mixing with and diluting the freshwater, the pervading sea then assumes greater proportions as the estuary moves westwards. The increase in salinity can be vagarious. Sometimes it takes place gradually and uniformly, at other times it occurs quite suddenly. Occasionally the variation in salt content is more extreme over the depth than over the length. While the surface

Mitchell G627.1209414 RID



3. The Clyde from Clydebank to the Tail of the Bank.

layers of freshwater continue downstream relatively undiluted, almost pure sea water can be found creeping slowly upstream along the channel bed. But whatever form the dilution takes over the twenty-two miles to Greenock, the transformation to sea water is usually complete by the lower town. As the channel swings southward beyond Greenock, the Clyde Estuary becomes in turn the Firth of Clyde. In these lower reaches the sea is absolute and the waters of the Clyde diffuse unnoticed into the North Channel and the wide Atlantic.

While the Clyde upstream of Glasgow has served as little more than a drain, the Firth of Clyde has always provided an effective, and at times unique, means of transport. Traders, conquerors and the merely curious have long followed this natural gateway to the Lowlands of Scotland. The entrance past

the peaks of Arran and through the gap between the islands of Bute and Little Cumbrae both beckons and enthralls as each headland is passed, while the many natural anchorages scattered along the coast comfort and reassure. These anchorages have offered havens for shelter, for preparing for invasion, or for the quieter pursuits of trade. The seas of the Firth have also enabled communication to be maintained between remote villages, and to this day the ship remains not only the most convenient, but in places the sole means of transport.

The waters of the Firth of Clyde possess great depth. Natural channels carved by gouging glaciers run through the whole area and 200 and 300 feet of water is quite common. This deepwater extends upstream into the narrow sea lochs but, with an abruptness unique among British estuaries, ends dramatically at the aptly named Tail of the Bank. Here, off Greenock, the sea bed swings upwards with such suddenness that within a distance of less than 3,000 feet the deepwater shoals into banks which are quite dry at low tide. These banks fill the whole length of the Clyde Estuary and, when the tide ebbs, the reaches between Greenock and Glasgow appear little different from the river above. At high water, however, the banks and shoals submerge and the estuary gives no impression of being other than an eastwards extension of the Firth's deep waters. This ever-changing role has long frustrated man. At one moment the Clyde appears to offer the waterborne traveller a safe passage upstream, only to leave him immobile as the tide recedes. Passage across the estuary, on the other hand — at times a simple matter of fording a narrow channel — becomes at high water a voyage to be undertaken in a well found boat.

By the time the Great Ice Age descended upon Scotland the basic geology of the region was complete. The sandstone, coal and iron had been laid down and in places buried by the volcanic lavas. During this period the predominant drainage pattern of the area was from north-west to south-east and the Clyde was a mere tributary of a much bigger river which rose in the mountains of Argyll and flowed somewhere in the path now occupied by the Forth. As the Clyde steadily eroded its bed and banks, it broke through the watershed and, from near Biggar in Lanarkshire, set off on a new course to the west. Finding a convenient gap between the lava flows near Bowling, the Clyde entered one of the valleys which drained south-west to the Atlantic.

The successive advances and retreats of the ice have modified this pattern superficially. The tremendous weight of frozen water exerted pressures which scraped the surface of the rocks into clay, and which then squeezed the clay into the depressions and valleys. Filling the bed of the present Clyde Estuary to a depth of over 150 feet, the hard, consolidated till, often containing great boulders, also formed the low hills, or drumlins, which are so characteristic of Glasgow's present landscape. The boulder clay was not the only product of the

debris were also released. This sand and gravel material was then spread and distributed by the rivers of melt water, in some areas covering the clay to great depths and in others forming only the thinnest of coatings. Changes in the respective levels of the land and sea followed, leading to further successions of sediment erosion, transport and deposition. Silts, fine sands and the organic debris of forests also settled out to produce a complex layering of different sizes and types of material. As the sea finally retreated, the Clyde started to flow through these deposits. The river cut quickly into the softer sands and silts but, restrained in places by the much harder boulder clay, was unable to achieve any overall reduction in the level of its bed before the Tail of the Bank.

The early migrants who entered Scotland from the south would have found the Clyde Valley a not inhospitable place. The quiet, sheltered waters, teeming with fish, would have provided a ready source of food while the settlements on the higher ground offered security both from the river and from enemies. With routes to the east and west as well as to the north and south, the area soon formed a focal point for travellers. While many passed on, the shelter, the fish and the rich alluvial soil encouraged a number to remain. Among those who stayed were the Celtic tribes, a group who gave the river the name Clyd, meaning warm or sheltered.

That the settlers were regular sailors on the Clyde has been shown by the discovery of a number of their long-abandoned boats. These craft have been unearthed at regular intervals during the construction work of the eighteenth, nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The first recorded discovery was made in 1780 when workmen excavating the foundations of Glasgow's St. Enoch's Church came upon a canoe which had been carved from a tree trunk. A second craft of this type was found in the following year on a site to the east, while in 1824 no fewer than three were discovered in different parts of the city. Excavation for new quay walls on the south bank of the Clyde produced ten specimens between 1847 and 1852, some of which are still preserved in local museums. All were hollowed from solid oak with the sterns sawn off straight and closed by a thin vertical board sliding in grooves. This doubtless allowed for easier construction and was also convenient for draining water from the craft. One of these vessels was over 19 feet in length and showed evidence of propulsion by oars rather than paddles.

Further examples of this design were recovered in later years from as far afield as Bowling and Erskine (one being unearthed as recently as 1977), but in 1853 a very different craft was found on the south side. This vessel had a planked rather than solid hull with the planks being pegged to wooden frames set in a keel. Contemporary accounts suggest that it was not unlike a Viking longship in appearance, although the size was very much less. Like the majority of the other canoes, the boat was buried beneath about 20 feet of sand and silt at a level 10 feet below the present high water mark.

This level is of some significance, for it suggests that the Clyde Estuary was once deeper in its upper reaches than in later years. The form of construction

> cisco . . . We are of the opinion that this whole subject has been confided to Congress by the Constitution; that Congress can more appropriately and with more acceptance exercise it than any other body known to our law, state or national; that by providing a system of laws in these matters, applicable to all ports and to all vessels, a serious question, which has long been a matter of contest and complaint, may be effectually and satisfactorily settled.

This decision at first threw the burden of receiving foreigners and discouraging unfit immigrants onto private philanthropic organizations, because a federal agency to perform these functions had not yet been established. Overwhelmed by the growing volume of immigrants and the strain on their resources, charity workers soon petitioned Congress to authorize federal action. In the 1880s Congress enacted a series of statutes bringing immigration under direct federal control and—a measure that proved to be more significant—allowing the federal government to exercise its authority to restrict the entry of people thought to be undesirable.

THE ERA OF REGULATION, 1882–1916

In the late 19th century the federal government built the administrative and bureaucratic machinery that would operate this new federal immigration policy. Policy makers began to experiment with new ways of monitoring arrivals, so that only those thought to be most adaptable to American society would be admitted. As concern about social problems thought to be the result of immigration mounted, they gradually constructed regulations that admitted only those who were healthy and employable.

The drive for federal regulation of immigration originated in California, where Chinese immigrants had begun to arrive around the time of the gold rush of 1849; many more came to the West Coast in the ensuing years, largely as contract labor brought in to build the railroads. By 1869, 63,000 Chinese had come to the United States, and twice that number arrived in the course of the next decade. Public reaction to the mounting numbers led the government of California to experiment with laws that would cut down the rate of entry. As early as 1852 the governor and the state assembly were recommending restrictive measures; state courts declared the Chinese ineligible for naturalization on the grounds that they could not be categorized among the "free whites" stipulated by federal law. In 1855 California passed a law levying a $50 capitation tax on arriving passengers ineligible for citizenship. Two years later, however, the U.S. Supreme Court declared this act unconstitutional. In 1870 restrictionists, claiming that Asian prostitutes were being imported into the country, obtained a state law prohibiting the landing of any Mongolian, Japanese, or Chinese female who could not provide evidence of voluntary emigration and decent character. To curb the influx of contract labor, the law was subsequently extended to males.

Nearly all the Chinese who came were unskilled laborers who were willing to work for little pay and who therefore were thought to threaten the wages and working conditions of the locals. Labor organizations, led by the Mechanics State Council of California, decided that state regulation was not sufficient and appealed to the U.S. Congress to place national limits on the immigration of Chinese workers. Republicans and Democrats alike in the far-western states agreed that federal action was required, but this placed the administration in an awkward position: Chinese immigration rights had been formally guaranteed by the Burlingame Treaty between the United States and China (1868), by which, in exchange for certain trade concessions, the U.S. government pledged that it would not restrict the numbers of Chinese workers coming into the country. But in 1879 Congress gave way to pressure from the western states, and in direct violation of that agreement enacted legislation banning from American ports any vessel carrying more than 15 Chinese passengers. President Rutherford B. Hayes vetoed the measure as a violation of international agreement. But the next year a new treaty was negotiated with China which permitted the United States to "regulate, limit, or suspend," but "not absolutely prohibit," the immigration of Chinese laborers, and in 1882 Congress took advantage of the provision to suspend the entry of Chinese workers for ten years. The Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882 stated that restrictions were needed because "in the opinion of the Government of the United States the coming of Chinese laborers to this country endangers the good order of certain localities."

The most radical provision of the law was the one that barred all foreign-born Chinese from acquiring citizenship. The basis for this statute was the Naturalization Act of 1790 in which acquisition of citizenship by naturalization had been limited to "free white persons"; an act of 1870 had subsequently extended the privilege to "aliens of African nativity and persons of African descent." Now, for the first time, a federal statute was designating a group as specifically ineligible on the grounds of race. Chinese immigration had aroused a national effort to identify an unassimilable alien race and to ban it from entry. Although in the 1880s the Chinese issue was kept distinct from the problems arising from European immigration, it nonetheless firmly established the prerogative of the federal government to raise restrictive barriers against specific national groups.

In 1882 Congress enacted the first comprehensive federal immigration law and delegated authority to the Treasury Department for enforcing it, but the states were still left with primary responsibility for the inspection of immigrants to see that all those excluded by law—convicts, lunatics, idiots, and incapacitated persons who might become public charges—were turned back. Carrying on another earlier state practice, immigrant welfare was paid for out of a federal fund raised by levying a charge of 50 cents on each entering alien.

In 1885 Congress passed the Foran Act, another exclusionary law, this time lobbied through Congress by the Knights of Labor. It prohibited the recruitment of unskilled labor by prepaid passage and advance contracting, but it did not affect skilled workers, artisans, or teachers. It was followed in 1888 by a supplemental law that ordered the deportation of alien contract laborers within one year of entry; by this measure the federal government was empowered to specify regulations that could lead to deportation.

At the same time as the groundwork was being laid for the imposition of federal controls, the character of

immigration also began to change, shifting in ways that aroused concern in some quarters and that led to demands for the government to find new solutions. Although immigrants from northern and western Europe remained in the vast majority in the 1880s, newcomers from southern and eastern Europe were becoming increasingly numerous. They were referred to as "new immigrants," a label that soon acquired invidious connotations.

By the 1890s the new immigrants were in the majority—and in most years it was a large majority. Many natives saw them as having peculiar habits and alien cultures. Some began to believe that the Slavs, Jews, Magyars, Sicilians, and others included in the group were innately inferior and racially unassimilable. Popular journals were filled with hostile references to the newcomers. A large foreign-born population only gradually being acculturated was filling the major urban centers. The demands for a more systematic public policy increased. State authorities were calling for federal assistance to process the multitude of immigrants and to facilitate their adjustment. They demanded that minimal health and competency standards be set for the welfare of native and immigrant communities alike. The Progressive movement, bent on the reform of government and industry and the improvement of social services, popularized the notion that government regulation of immigration would make its management more efficient.

In 1891 Congress finally established a permanent administration for the national control of immigration in the form of a superintendent of immigration within the Treasury Department. Minimum health qualifications for immigrants were formulated, as was an effective method for deporting immigrants rejected by U.S. inspectors: steamship companies were now compelled by law to return all unacceptable passengers to their country of origin. Aliens who landed illegally or became public charges within one year of arrival were subject to deportation. The law of 1891 also added new categories to those to be excluded: polygamists were banned, along with "persons suffering from a loathsome or dangerous contagious disease." The exclusion of contract labor was extended by prohibiting employers from advertising abroad for laborers and by preventing laborers responding to illegal advertisements from entering the country.

The law of 1891 ushered in full-scale federal control of immigration. Although the regulatory mechanisms operated only on overseas immigrants and did not affect people crossing U.S. borders by land, the state governments were at least no longer responsible for monitoring the stream of foreigners arriving from abroad. Overtaxed charity organizations were relieved of their burden as federal agents began to provide reception services to newcomers.

About three-quarters of the newcomers entered at the port of New York City. The old welcoming station, Castle Garden, was no longer sufficient, so a new federal facility, Ellis Island, was built to take its place. Constructed on the site of an old naval arsenal in 1892, Ellis Island was the gateway to America for millions of immigrants until 1932, when it was turned into a detention center; it was closed in 1954, but refurbished and reopened in 1965 as an immigration museum administered as part of the Statue of Liberty National Monument.

In contrast to the casual paternalism of Castle Garden, Ellis Island was efficient and impersonal. After quarantine and customs procedures immigrants were hustled past doctors, and a matron who examined pregnant women, on an assembly-line basis, each doctor assigned to looking for one specific disease; three special inspectors decided on the doubtful cases. As health regulations were added to the exclusion clauses, the examinations grew more complex and time-consuming. Those who passed were then interviewed by registry clerks who recorded vital statistics and other background information. Finally, the immigrants were sent to special offices housed in the federal station for currency exchange, rail tickets, baggage handling, and telegrams.

If Ellis Island was a symbol of hope and opportunity to millions of newcomers, it was also the symbol of rejection for many others. In the late 1890s, the more stringent examination system annually debarred over 3,000 applicants for admission; by 1910 the number exceeded 24,000. About 15 percent of those sent back were rejected as having contagious diseases, another 15 percent as constituting contract labor, and the remainder as potential charity cases. An organized movement to establish stricter controls over the massive influx of foreigners began to form at about the same time that Ellis Island opened. From 1891 to 1929 Congress erected a complex body of law designed to narrow the range of immigrants who qualified for admission. The course of this evolution of policy was, however, far from smooth. Well into the 20th century, generally speaking, the Democratic party was indifferent or strongly opposed to restriction. The urban electorate of the Northeast and Midwest pressured congressmen to keep immigration as open as possible. Steamship companies and industrialists lobbied for a liberal policy that would assure large cargoes of passengers and a steady supply of cheap labor. Several presidents, from Rutherford B. Hayes to Woodrow Wilson, vetoed congressional bills that would have tightened admissions standards or excluded whole national groups. The evolving immigration policies were the product neither of a coherent plan nor of a systematic philosophy. The total effect, however, was that step by step, requirements for entry were made more and more stringent.

By the turn of the century Congress had already begun to strengthen the administrative apparatus for controlling immigration. In 1893 boards of special inquiry were formed to handle immigration problems and to collect "a list or manifest of alien passengers" entering the United States. In 1906 authority over immigration was transferred from the overburdened Treasury Department to the newly created Department of Commerce and Labor, and a separate Bureau of Immigration and Naturalization was established within that department.

Further refinements and additions were made to the list of excluded. In part a reaction to the assassination of President William McKinley by an anarchist in 1901, but even more a reflection of a widespread fear of "radicals," Congress in 1903 barred anarchists and saboteurs from entry, along with epileptics and professional beggars. Repeated attempts were made to introduce liter-

GENERAL INDEX.

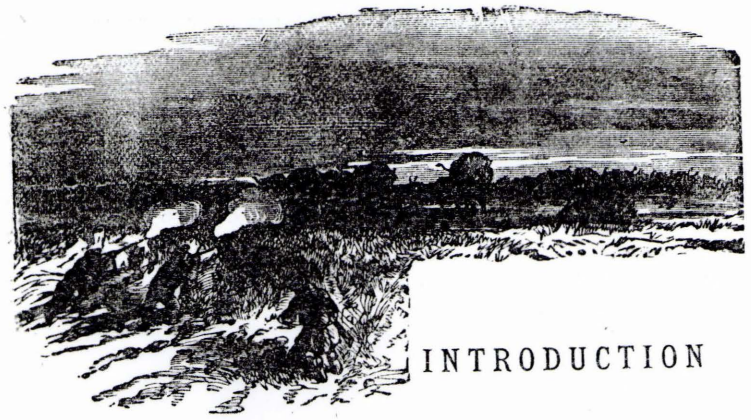
	PAGE
Advertisements of Steam Ship Companies, &c.	96
Allan Mail Line	44
America—Hints for Passengers going to	51
„ Intermediate Passage to	54
„ List of Principal Steam Lines for	40
„ Saloon Berths	53
„ „ Return Tickets	56
„ Steerage Passage	54
Arizona—Guion Line Steamer	45
Arrival at Liverpool	35
Arrival out in Canada	58
„ „ United States	65
„ advised	85
Atlantic Lines' Offices in Ireland	37
Atlantic Steamers—List of, with tonnage	42
„ Passenger Steamers, Monthly List of Sailings of	85
At Sea	78
Australia	73
„ Passage to, by Sailing Vessel	76
„ Orient Line Steamers	74
Booking Passage	35
Calendar	89
Canada	13
„ Arrival out in	58
„ Distance Tables	61
„ Free and Assisted Passages to	41
Canadian Library	42
Canadian Pacific Railway	59
Cape Colony, Fares to	79
„ of Good Hope, Government Emigration to	79
Castle Garden Depôt, New York	65
Children and Infants—Regulations by American Railroads	86
„ and Infants—Regulations on Steamers	86
City of Rome, Inman Line	48
Contents, List of	v
Cruelty to Emigrants Travelling by a Foreign Line of Steamers	52
Distance Tables	61
Emigration Statistics	30

	PAGE
Emigrants' Friend	54
„ Tickets, Illegal Sale of	53
Fares, by all Lines, to America	86
Fields for Settlement, the Principal	13
Foreign Money Table	84
Free and Assisted Passages to various Colonies	41,7 5 & 78
Furniture and Household Effects, Packing and Shipping	87
Illegal Sale of Emigrants' Tickets	53
Inman Line Steamer, Description of	48
Interesting Facts for intending Passengers	51
Introduction to 1883 Edition	ix
Letter from Major Jones, U.S. Consul	xii
Letters from Settlers in Canada	15
„ to Outward-bound Passengers for America	xii
Life Assurance Rates	87
Liverpool, Arrival at	35
„ as a Port of Embarkation	37
„ Boarding Houses	36
„ Hotels	36
„ Offices of the Atlantic Lines	36
„ Rail to	88
London Boarding Houses	76
„ Hotels	76
Luggage—Quantity allowed by various Lines	86
„ Rates inclusive for Collecting and Shipping at London, Gravesend, Liverpool, or Southampton	87
„ Rates, Insurance of	87
„ Storage in London	87
Manitoba—Distance Tables	82
„ Farming	59
„ Notes on the Journey	58
Maps	80
Memoranda	90
Midland Railway	88 & Back
Money (Foreign) Table	84
Natal, Government Emigration to	80
New South Wales, Free and Assisted Passages to	75
New York Castle Garden	65
„ Custom House	70
New Zealand	77

	PAGE
New Zealand, Assisted Passages to	77
„ „ Fares by Sailing Vessels	77
Orient Line Steamers	74
Outfits in London	76
„ in Liverpool	34
Pamphlets, New	124
Parcel Express Rates	85
Passage Booking	35
Passages to various Colonies, Free and Assisted	41
Preface to 1882 Edition	xi
Principal Fields for Settlement	13
Preliminary Enquiries as to the Voyage	34
Queensland—Free and Assisted, Passages	75
Rail to Liverpool	88
Servia—Cunard Line	46
South Australia, Free and Assisted Passages to	75
Statistics of Emigration	30
Tasmania Emigration Agency	75
Texas, How to go to	55
The Board of Trade Regulations for Emigrants	51
Time, Difference in	81
Tours round the World	85
Trains for Liverpool	88
United States	26
„ „ Arrival out in	65
Vaccination	35
Victoria Colonial Agent	75
Western Australia Emigration Agents	76

ANNOUNCEMENTS OF STEAM LINES, &c.

	PAGE.
Allan Mail Line	96
American „	101
Anchor „	102
Blackwall „	120
Cunard „	97
Dominion „	104
Guion „	98
Inman „	100
Orient „	113
Passenger „	115
State „	103
Thames and Mersey Line	121
Union Line	122
White Star „	99 & 119
Direct Line, New Zealand	116
J. Shepherd	114
Grand Trunk Railway Company	105
New Zealand Shipping Company	117
Canadian Pacific Railway	106
Intercolonial Railway	107
Erie Railway	108
Pennsylvania Railway	109
Northern Pacific Railway	110
Chicago Milwaukee & St. Paul Ry.	111
N. S. Hart, Outfitter	112
Hunters' Boarding House	123
Hands & Son, Money Exchange	123
Richard Cooper, Outfitter	118
L. S. & E. Harron, Travelling Trunks	126
The Bodega Wine Stores	125
Ocean,&c.,Insurance Co.,	*Inside Front Cover*
Midland Railway	*Back*



INTRODUCTION

TO THE 1883 EDITION.

LAST year, when we launched our "Emigrant's Guide," we hardly anticipated that the little work would have been made such practical use of as the results have shown.

We attribute its success mainly to the special information which our varied and personal experience with emigrants has enabled us to suggest, and are induced to bring out this new and revised edition, with full confidence that it will effect its purpose of making smoother and clearer the journey from this country of a portion of the great tide of humanity, annually leaving it. The book has been revised up to date, and considerable new reading matter added.

Our advice to emigrants we are consistent with, and do not materially alter. Our warnings will be required so long as there *is any* emigration, and our hints as to minor details of

not of so recent date, at least contains much very carefully compiled information.

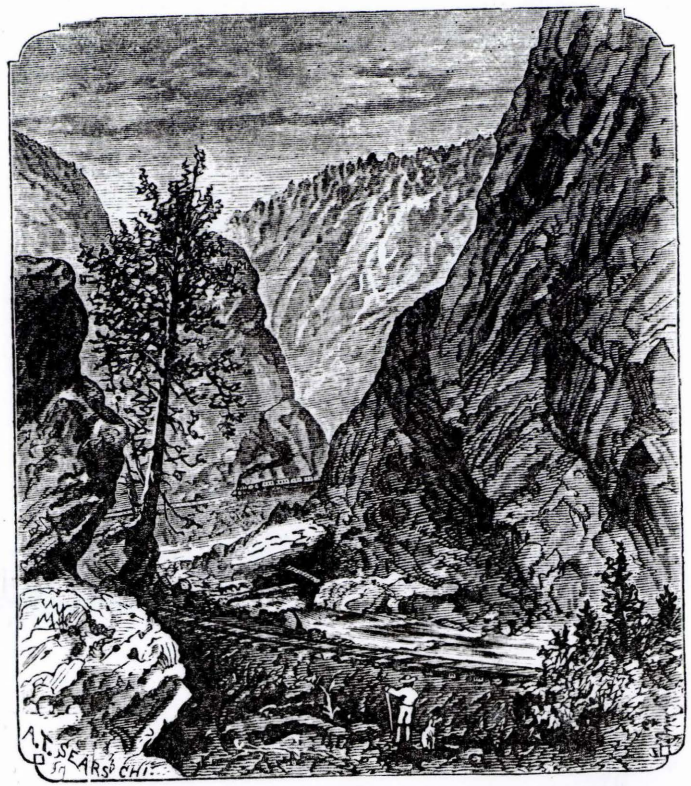
Passengers should proceed from Liverpool, direct to Quebec or Halifax, or by way of New York. We recommend the route *via* Liverpool. You get to sea sooner, and have a greater choice of steamers at that port, thus gaining in time and comfort. Still it sometimes suits travellers to start from London. The journey to Liverpool takes about five hours; there are frequent trains. We give time table on page .

Pamphlets on Canada which we supply free on application :—Canadian Pacific Railway Map, Manitoba Lands, Grand Trunk Railway Map, "Canadian Pacific Railway Bulletin," Colonists' Hand-book No. 1, "Canadian Farm Journal," "Along the Line," "Tour Through Manitoba," "What Farmers say of Canada," "Information on Manitoba," "Canada Colonisation Circular," "Enquire within about Manitoba," "Prairie Farms in Qu'apelle Valley," Allan Line Official Hand-book.

THE UNITED STATES.

The emigrant will be able to form some faint idea of the importance of the United States in so far as regards settlement, from the fact that from the 1st July, 1881, to end of June, 1882, over 789,000 emigrants landed from other countries at the various ports of that country. The facts of the journey being little over a week, the steamships occupied in the conveying of emigrants being the finest in the world, and the cost of passage being reduced by competition to the low present rate of **£4 4s.** per adult, make emigration to America a very simple matter, as compared with what it was years ago, when the passenger had to suffer all the discomforts and delay of a long voyage in a sailing vessel.

For general information about the States we refer our readers to that excellent work by Major Jones, the United States Consul of Newcastle-upon-Tyne, viz., "The Emigrant's Friend"



SCENE ON UNION PACIFIC RAILROAD.

(the latest edition), a handy cloth-bound volume which we can supply post free for 2s. 8d. We have this and numerous other works on the United States, which intending emigrants

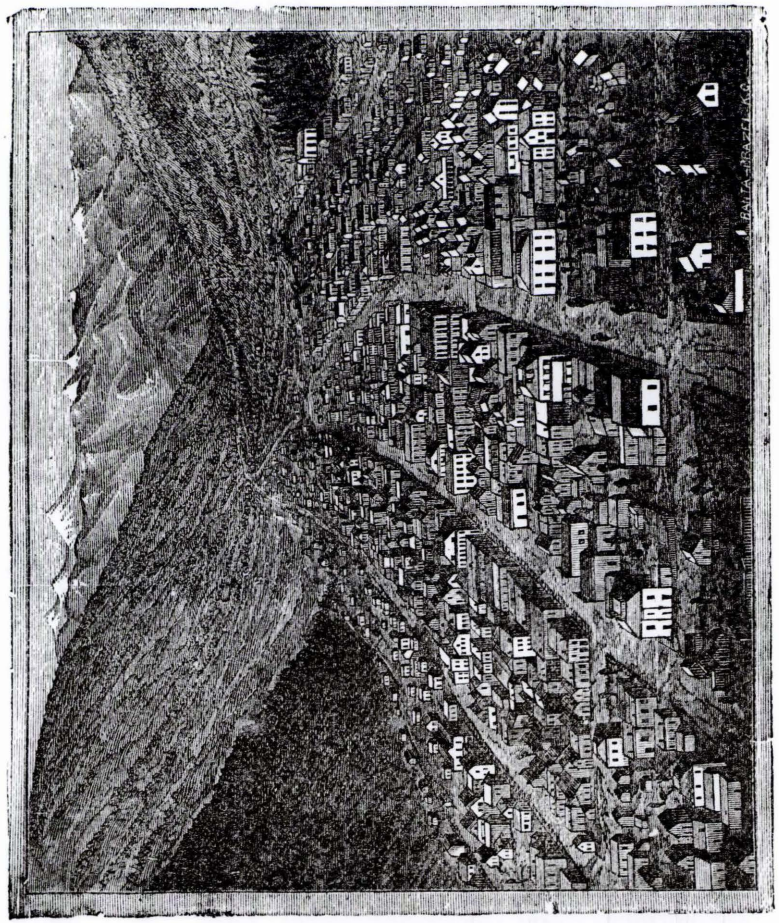
are welcome to peruse at our offices. The subject of the United States is so large that it requires to be divided and studied separately.

To give advice in a pocket handbook as to the best States to go to would be useless. The conditions vary so that the reader would only be confused with comparisons. He must recollect that the distance from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean is 2,700 miles, while the average distance from North to South is about 1,500 miles, the total area including Alaska is about 3,543,000 square miles, so that it is apparent that a country twenty-five times as large as the United Kingdom, and with every variety of land and climate, requires much consideration. This starting off in ignorance on the part of emigrants is frequently the cause of considerable misery, to say nothing of the inconvenience and fraud they lay themselves open to. Their whole path is lined with land or railway agents, some respectable, others not so, and here and there speculators, interested in their own special schemes, to the exclusion of all others. Major Jones (United States Consul), whom we have before referred to, remarks as follows :—

"Take the hint. Don't emigrate in a fever, but consider the question in every aspect. The 'mother country' must be left behind, the family ties—the old associations—broken. Turn it over in your mind. Talk it over with your wife, your father, or friend. Be sure that you look at the dark side of the picture—the broad Atlantic, the dusty ride to the great West, the scorching sun, the cold winter—coldest ever you experienced—and the hard work. You may take my word for it, they work harder than in the old country. But if you finally, with your eyes open, decide to emigrate, do it like a man, with no divided heart. Don't follow the example of some men, whom I have known by whining and occupying your leisure hours in making everlasting comparisons between the land you left and the land you live in, to the detriment of the latter. When you find yourself indulging in that luxury "put the brake on."

Amongst the latest pamphlets supplied us for free distribu-

tion are the following :—Northern Pacific Railway Map ; South Western, Minnesota, Chicago, Milwaukee and St. Paul Railway Maps ; Pennsylvania Railway Map ; Missouri, Louisiana, and Arkansas ; Cunard Handbooks ; Montana ; Dakota.



EMIGRATION FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM DURING THE YEAR 1882.

At the time of going to press, the official printed statistics are not issued, so that our special remarks must be added later on. The emigration to the Cape has not been so brisk. We have been asked to express reasons, and are much inclined to think that if greater facilities were given for obtaining sound information about the Cape Colonies, that more people would turn their attention that way. The fact is that the intending emigrant considers very closely the life before him from a social, as well as a money-making, point of view, and the eloquent writings of Lord Dufferin and others on America have to no little extent brought that country prominently forward, and, as it were, *nearer* to us, while the yearly increasing tide of emigration has made it dearer to most of us.

New Zealand seems to be emerging from the temporary cloud of depression, and an increase is observable in a better class of passengers.

EMIGRATION STATISTICS FOR THE YEAR 1882.

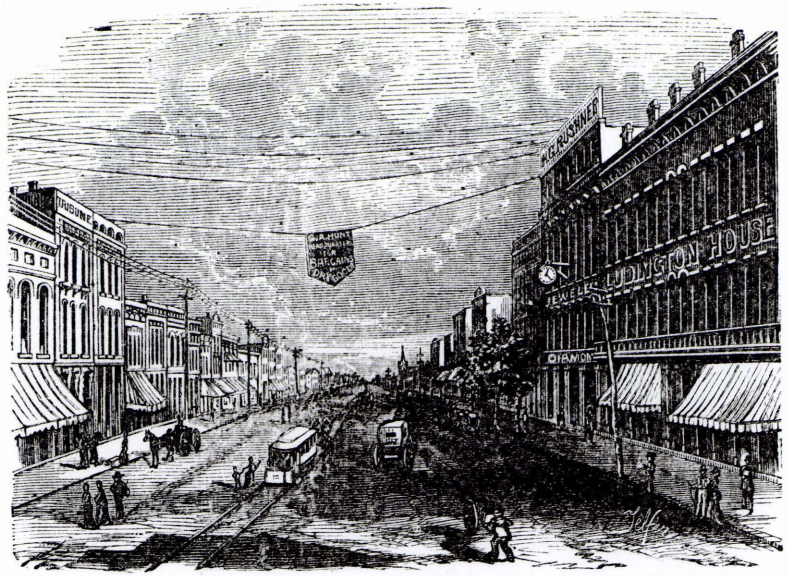
Through the courtesy of the Committee of the Privy Council for Trade, we have been furnished with the following table, the printed reports not being ready yet:—

NUMBER OF BRITISH AND FOREIGN PERSONS that left the United Kingdom for places out of Europe during 1882, distinguishing those that left for the United States and British North America.

Destination.	British.	Foreign.	Nationality not distinguished	Total.
United States	181,915	112,706	927	295,548
British North America ...	40,449	13,009	—	53,458
All other Places	57,005	4,284	2,993	64,282
Total	279,369	129,999	3,920	413,288

NOTE.—The above figures are subject to revision.

Commercial Department,
Board of Trade,
3rd February, 1883.



EXTRACT FROM THE OFFICIAL STATISTICS OF IMMIGRATION INTO THE UNITED STATES

[*The United States fiscal year expires the end of June.*]

Following is a statement of the immigration into the United States during the last fiscal year and for the fifty-three years preceding:—

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, BUREAU OF STATISTICS

WASHINGTON, D. C., July 31, 1882.

SIR,—I have the honour to submit to you the following advance statement in regard to immigration into the United States during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1882.

The number of immigrants arrived during the year was 789,003, being much larger than during any previous year in the history of the country. It exceeded the number during the preceding fiscal year by 119,572.

I deem it proper in this connection to introduce the following table, showing the immigration into the United States during each year from 1830 to 1882, inclusive:—

Number of Alien Passengers arrived in the United States from 1830 *to* 1882, *and the number of Immigrants arrived from* 1856 *to* 1882.

Period	Alien Pass. Arrived.	Immigrants Arrived.	Period.	Alien Pass. Arrived.	Immigrants Arrived.
Year ended Sept. 30—			Year ended Dec. 31—		
1830	23,322	.....	1851	379,466	.....
1831	22,633	.....	1852	371,603	.....
1832	53,179	.....	1853	368,645	.....
			1854	427,833	.....
Quarter ended Dec. 31—			1855	200,877	.....
1832	7,303	.....	1856	200,036	195,857
			1857	250,882	246,945
Year ended Dec. 31—			1858	122,872	119,501
1833	58,640	.....	1859	121,075	118,616
1834	65,365	.....	1860	153,418	150,237
1835	45,374	.....	1861	91,822	89,724
1836	76,242	.....	1862	91,826	89,007
1837	79,340	.....	1863	176,214	174,524
1838	38,914	.....	1864	153,416	193,195
1839	68,069	.....	1865	248,111	247,453
1840	84,066	.....	Jan. 1 to June 30—		
1841	80,289	.....	1866	167,757	166,112
1842	104,565	.....			
			Year ended June 30—		
Jan. 1 to Sept. 30—			1867	303,044	298,967
1843	52,496	.....	1868	288,088	282,189
			1869	363,074	352,768
Year ended Sept. 30—			1870	402,920	387,203
1844	78,615	.....	1871	342,609	321,350
1845	114,371	.....	1872	422,978	404,806
1846	154,416	.....	1873	473,141	459,803
1847	234,968	.....	1874	327,949	313,339
1848	226,527	.....	1875	244,632	227,498
1849	297,024	.....	1876	189,991	169,986
1850	310,004	.....	1877	165,019	141,857
			1878	157,776	138,469
Quarter ended Dec. 31—			1879	197,954	177,826
1850	59,976	.....	1880	484,196	457,257
			1881	695,163	669,431
			1882	816,027	789,003

The following table shows the number of immigrants arrived from the several foreign countries during the last fiscal year, as compared with the number arrived from the same countries during the preceding fiscal year:

NUMBER OF IMMIGRANTS arrived in the United States from several Foreign Countries during the Years ended June 30th, 1881 and 1882, respectively.

Countries from which Arrived.	1882.	1881.	Increase.
England and Wales	85,175	66,204	18,971
Ireland	76,432	72,342	4,090
Scotland	18,937	15,168	3,769
Austria	16,770	21,109	4,339
Germany	249,505	210,485	39,020
Norway	29,100	22,705	6,395
Sweden	64,607	49,760	14,847
Dominion of Canada	98,308	125,391	27,083
China	39,579	11,890	27,689
All other countries	110,590	74,377	36,213
Totals	789,003	669,431	119,572

The following table shows the number of immigrants arrived at each one of the principal ports of the United States during the fiscal year ended June 30th, 1882, as compared with the number arrived at the same ports during the preceding fiscal year:

NUMBER OF IMMIGRANTS arrived at the Principal Ports of the United States during the Years ended June 30th, 1881 and 1882, respectively.

Customs District.	Year ended June 30, 1882.	Year ended June 30, 1881.	Increase.
Baltimore	41,739	40,017	1,722
Boston	58,188	41,022	17,166
Detroit	20,494	10,117	10,377
Huron	71,424	111,170	39,746
Minnesota	1,164	1,829	665
New Orleans	3,142	3,284	142
New York	502,171	400,871	101,300
Oregon	7,368	1,427	5,941
Passamaquoddy	3,148	2,724	424
Philadelphia	36,284	34,865	1,419
Puget Sound	1,174	—	1,174
San Francisco	32,668	12,432	20,236
All other districts	10,039	9,673	366
Totals	789,003	669,431	119,572

Very respectfully,

JOSEPH NIMMO, Jun., Chief of Bureau.

HON. CHAS. J. FOLGER, Secretary of the Treasury.

We consider the best general work on the United States to be "The Emigrant's Friend," by Major Jones, United States Consul. We send it post free for 2s. 8d. It treats on the whole of the United States, and gives the most complete information as to rates of wages, cost of living, various crops, mining, populations, &c.

The tables of wages are very complete, and every one thinking of settling in the States will certainly gain additional and valuable information from this book.

We have received a warm recommendation of it from the Washington Bureau of Statistics. It is practically an official work.

PRELIMINARY INQUIRIES AS TO THE VOYAGE TO AMERICA.

Intending passengers should make notes of the following points:—(1.) Where going to. (2.) When. (3.) Who going (note the ages of children under 12 years). (4.) What class. (5.) What trade, if asking advice. These particulars will enable the agent to give the fullest information, and also, frequently, the through fare in full, by the most suitable route to final destination.

A misconception exists amongst some intending passengers respecting the rates quoted to them, and they have been known to make weary journeys, inquiring repeatedly at every agency they could find out.

It may save trouble our stating that "fixed rates" are strictly adhered to by "all Lines" engaged in the "Atlantic trade" from London or Liverpool, so that no one agent can possibly offer any better terms than another agent of the same Company.

The particulars of the quantity of luggage allowed each passenger, the charge for excess luggage, the rates for insurance of luggage, for life insurance, the fares for children and infants, also fixed rates for the collection and putting on board of luggage at London or Liverpool, &c., will be found in tables on pages 87 and 88, and will enable the intending passenger to make the final arrangements for his comfortable embarkation.

BOOKING PASSAGE.

The berths on the steamer should be secured as early as possible, in advance, by paying to the agents a deposit on account of passage money in exchange for contract ticket, viz.; saloon £5, intermediate £2, or steerage £1 deposit. The Guion Line require saloon or intermediate half fare. Other than saloon passengers must present themselves at the Head Office of the Line at Liverpool, before 8 p.m. on the evening before sailing. The balance of the passage money must be paid before embarkation, either to the Agents, or at the Head Office of the Line. If they book in London, the agents will issue railway passes to Liverpool for 12s. 6d., available by any train. Children under 12 years half fare, under 3, free. The agents will also give them name and address of a comfortable place to stop at in Liverpool.

VACCINATION.

Passengers for United States will please note that by being vaccinated, or by obtaining a certificate of vaccination from a proper medical authority, previous to their departure, much trouble and serious detention may be avoided on their arrival. We recommend our passengers to see to this early beforehand.

ARRIVAL AT LIVERPOOL.

On arrival at that city, the passengers should leave their packages at the Left Luggage Office (Station), taking a receipt, and proceed direct to the Head Office of the Line, where they can pay any balance due, and will get clear instructions as to time of embarkation. Passengers usually embark in a steam tender from the Great Landing Stage, which, together with the Head Offices of the Steamship Companies, are within a mile of the Railway Terminus. Care should be taken to securely label all packages. Labels for packages of bedding should be first pasted on card and then tied on. Full particulars of the Steamer regulations, sailings and rates of passage are supplied free by us. Luggage allowed: saloon 20 cubic feet, others 10 cubic feet. Ten feet of luggage would average about 150lbs. weight. Excess rate about 1s. per foot. See rates for shipping luggage, page 87.

ARRIVAL OUT IN CANADA.

QUEBEC OR HALIFAX.

Passengers land alongside the railroad wharves.

NOTES FOR PASSENGERS proceeding to MANITOBA.

Luggage, after it is passed by the Customs at Quebec, or Halifax as the case may be, is placed in railway vans and "checked" to various destinations. Care should be taken to secure a "baggage check," and in crossing from one depôt to the other at Chicago, an eye should be kept on packages. On going from Detroit to Port Huron, passengers should claim their packages, showing their tickets, just to make sure they are not stopped by the U.S. Customs' officials.

Money.—Sovereigns can be changed on landing in the depôt at the rate of $4.86 to the £1.

Refreshment and Meals.—Dinners and teas can also be had in the depôt at 25 cents per meal. Other refreshments at the counter. In some of the United States stations, there are no emigration rates, and charges for a meal vary from 50 to 75 cents, so that emigrants should, if travelling for four or five days, take a good supply of bread, cold ham, cheese, &c. There is no difficulty in obtaining water on the train, or, at some stations, boiling water for tea, &c. The trains usually stop about 20 minutes or half an hour for passengers to obtain refreshments at Richmond, Cornwall, Toronto, Hamilton, London, Sarnia, Detroit, Chicago, St. Paul, Brainerd, Glyndon, Crookston, St. Vincent, Winnipeg, &c. Passengers are strongly cautioned against paying any attention to "Touters" and outsiders.

It will be well to take rugs, &c., to sleep on in railway cars. First class passengers can travel in Pulman sleeping cars at about 2 dollars per berth per night, a berth would accommodate say a married couple and child. Passengers can break the journey *en route* at any stations where trains stop by giving notice beforehand.

MANITOBA FARMING.

The following notes will specially interest intending settlers on land:

WHEN TO GO TO MANITOBA.

From April to June is the best time for a man with limited means to start for Manitoba, because he will have a chance to get some work done on his farm in time, probably to secure a partial crop the first year. March is too early, because the roads will not be in good condition for travelling when Manitoba is reached. Probably the finest time of the year for a man with means to go and locate land is August, September, and even October, but he must not expect to be able to do much in the way of improvements till the following spring.

WHAT TO DO ON REACHING MANITOBA.

On arriving at Winnipeg, the first step should be to visit the land office of the Canadian Pacific Railway, and there inspect the field notes and maps descriptive of the lands. These will enable the intending settler to choose a locality in which to seek his farm. He should then take the numbers of several sections, such as appear to him suitable, and the following morning he can proceed westward by the Canadian Pacific Railway to the station nearest the spot which he intends to personally inspect, and which will then be only a few miles distant over the prairie. As soon as a section is chosen, the best plan is to return at once to the railway station, and telegraph its number to the Land Commissioner at Winnipeg, asking him to hold it in case some one else might wish to purchase it in the meantime. The first payment can then be remitted by mail, and thus the intending settler will not require to return to Winnipeg unless he wishes to do so. In the case of taking free homesteads, preempting or purchasing from the government, the business will have to be transacted at the nearest of the following Dominion Land Offices:—

Winnipeg Office	G. Newcombe, Acting Agent.
Nelsonville Office	Henry Landerkin, Acting Agent.
Gladstone Office	Joseph Graham, Acting Agent.
Odanah Office	A. E. Fisher, Acting Agent.
Birtle Office	A. J. Belch, Acting Agent.
Brandon Office...	Geo. Newcombe, Acting Agent.
Turtle Mountain Office ...	G. F. Newcombe, Acting Agent.
Prince Albert Office	George Duck, Acting Agent.

		Miles.	1st Class.	2nd Class,
Winnipeg to	Currie's Landing ...	148	36s.	20s.
,,	Grand Valley ...	155	36s.	20s.
,,	Oak River ...	170	40s.	24s.
,,	Bird Tail Creek ...	198	48s.	25s.
,,	Fort Ellice ...	213	56s.	32s.

Owing to the winding of the Assiniboine River, one third more can added to the above distances. Steamers commence running about 1st May, and continue until middle of September, or as long as depth of water permits.

RED RIVER STEAMERS.

The S.S. "Colville," "Victoria" and "William Robinson," make regular passages on the Red River to Lake Winnipeg.

EMERSON TO SOURIS RIVER AND PEMBINA MOUNTAINS.

Emerson to	Mountain City ...	50 Miles.
,,	Pembina River ...	65 ,,
,,	Crystal City ...	93 ,,
,,	Land Office (Souris) ...	168 ,,
,,	Souris River, West ...	228 ,,

CANADA PACIFIC RAILROAD.

Emerson to	Winnipeg ...	65 Miles.
Winnipeg to	Selkirk ...	24 ,,
,,	Rat Portage ...	200 ,,
,,	Portage La Prairie ...	65 ,,

In course of completion during the season of 1881.

Rat Portage to	Thunder Bay ...	210 Miles.
Portage La Prairie to	Fort Ellice ...	140 ,,

ARRIVAL OUT IN UNITED STATES.

Official Rules for the Government of the Immigrant Landing Depôt, Castle Gardens, New York.

I. EMIGRANTS.

1. All emigrant passengers arriving at the port of New York, and their luggage, after being checked, must be landed at the Emigrant Landing Depôt, Castle Garden, free of expense. Passengers are requested to take personal charge of all their property not checked.

2. After landing, the passengers will be examined for the purpose of ascertaining if any are liable to be bonded, or in such condition of health as to require hospital care, and will then be assembled in the inclosure, and the name, occupation, age, birthplace and destination of each, with other necessary particulars recorded.

3. Emigrants desiring to take any railroad or steamboat route, for which tickets are sold in this depot, will communicate with the officers of the railroad agency, and select such route as they prefer. The agent of said route will be required to transport such emigrants and their luggage to the railroad depot or steamboat landing, by water conveyance when feasible, by land when not, but in either case free of charge.

4. Before the removal of luggage of emigrants having bought tickets of the railroad agency, the same shall be weighed, and each piece checked to its place of destination, and a check given to the owner setting forth the number of his luggage ticket. Each adult passenger is allowed one hundred pounds of luggage free of charge. The weighmaster is required to give to each emigrant, paying for the transportation of over-weight of luggage, a receipt setting forth the gross weight, allowance, rate per one hundred pounds, and amount paid.

5. The names of all emigrants expected by friends and relatives will be announced, and all answering to their names will be transferred to such friends and relatives as may be waiting for them.

6. The floor of the depot will be open for the free use of recently arrived emigrants until ready to take their departure, and they are requested to make use of the wash-rooms before leaving the premises.

7. Emigrants desiring board and lodging are advised to communicate with the keepers of boarding-houses having permission in this depot, and who will be allowed on the floor for this purpose. Every boarding-house keeper, when soliciting an emigrant for his house, must hand such

emigrant a card setting forth his name and residence, the prices, in gold and paper money, of board and lodging by the day and week, and for single meals and night's lodging.

8. Emigrants wishing to buy food can purchase at the bread stands and restaurants in the depot at prescribed rates, as stated on cards at such stands.

9. Emigrants remaining in the city of New York or vicinity, must defray the expense of removing their luggage from the depot, and are informed that for this purpose a baggage express is admitted to the depot.

10. Emigrants seeking employment are requested to apply at the labour bureau attached to the depot.

11. Emigrants desiring to deposit money or valuables over night are advised to do so in the office of the treasurer, or with the exchange brokers, who will give a receipt therefor. Employés are forbidden to take charge of such money or valuables of emigrants, unless the same be handed them after business hours, in which case report shall be made as soon as possible to the treasurer.

II. Boarding-House Keepers.

Boarding-house keepers having permission to enter the landing depot to solicit boarders must observe the following rules:

12. Every boarding-house keeper must wear his badge in a conspicuous place on his breast when entering the depot, and keep it so exposed while in the premises.

13. Every boarding-house keeper must present to passengers, when soliciting such passengers for his house, a card, setting forth his name and residence, and the prices, in gold and paper money, charged for board and lodging by the day and week, and for each meal and night's lodging, and he must also furnish emigrants with a bill setting forth all charges incurred for board, &c., before receiving pay therefor, and must make to this department a daily return of all passengers taken out of the depot.

14. Boarding-house keepers are required to direct to this depot emigrants wishing to communicate with their friends, or seeking employment, or desiring advances on luggage.

15. Boarding-house keepers must behave in an orderly manner while in the depot, and remain in the place assigned them until admitted on the floor.

III. Missionaries

And representatives of religious bodies and societies admitted to the landing depot are to observe the following rules:

16. They may distribute religious books and papers among the emigrants, and give them all necessary advice of a spiritual nature, and shall report to the officers of the Commissioners of Emigration any wants of emigrants other than of a religious nature, coming under their notice, and shall not interfere in the secular requirements of the emigrants, or the secular matters of the department, but shall direct all such emigrants to the proper officers of the Commissioners of Emigration.

17. They may visit any sick emigrant in the hospitals as often as their presence is required by such emigrant, and when called by the nurse or any other officer of this department.

IV. General Rules for the Government of the Landing Depot.

18. The business of the depot will commence at 7 o'clock, a.m., from May 1st to November 1st, and at 8 o'clock, a.m., from November 1st to May 1st, and the clerks of the letter department shall also be present, at all times after the landing and registering of passengers, to write to friends of emigrants desiring to acquaint them of their arrival, and to request funds for their inland journey, or for any purpose.

19. No person shall be admitted within the inclosure, except the officers and employés of this department, and the officers and employés of the railroad agency, except on permission of the Commissioners of Emigration.

20. No person shall be employed by any party occupying an office within the inclosure as clerk, ticket seller, interpreter or in any other capacity, unless first approved by the Castle Garden Committee; and no employé or other person having privilege in this depot shall under any pretence whatever receive from emigrants or others any recompense for any service rendered.

21. Every employé of this department will be furnished with a badge, setting forth his position, which he shall wear and exhibit while on duty.

V. Rules and Regulations for the Government of the Information Office for Friends of Arriving Emigrants.

22. This office will be open for business from May 1st to November 1st, at 7 o'clock, a.m., and from November 1st to May 1st, at

8 o'clock, a.m., and remain open as long as the Commissioners may direct. All persons having relations or friends whom they wish to receive are requested to report to the clerk the names of the passengers expected by them, and the vessel on which they arrived, with their own names and residences. They will then remain seated until such passengers are



brought, and on receiving them they are requested to leave the premises, so as to avoid obstructing the business.

23. Emigrants wishing to have their baggage transported by the Express Company at the depot (referred to in rule 9) are requested to

leave the proper directions at the Express office before leaving the premises. Those desiring to take away their baggage can receive it, and will have to apply for it themselves, for the purpose of identifying their property.

24. All services rendered by the officers and employés are without charge or expense to emigrants or their friends, or to any person having business with the office.

VI. Rules and Regulations for the Government of the Labour Bureau.

25. This office shall be open for business from 8 o'clock, a.m., to 4 o'clock, p.m., and shall be free for the use of employers and of emigrants seeking employment.

26. Emigrants and their employers are requested, after making their contracts and before leaving the office, to leave on record in the register the particulars of such contract, the emigrant's name, age, date of arrival, and the employer's name and address.

VII. Railroad Department.

27. It shall be the duty of the clerks and employés of the railroad agency to be at their respective stations on the landing of passengers and so long thereafter as their services may be required, to attend to the wants of emigrants desiring to leave the city by any of the routes for which tickets are sold in the depot, and in every way to conform to all rules regarding them heretofore or hereafter adopted.

28. It shall further be the duty of the clerks and employés of the railroad agency to refer all emigrants desiring information, other than regarding the purchase of tickets, to the proper officers of the Commissioners of Emigration.

29. No person shall be employed by the railroad agency in any capacity whatever except by and with the consent and approval of the Castle Garden Committee.

VIII. Exchange Brokers.

30. Every exchange broker admitted to this depot shall be required to be at his desk while emigrants are landing, in order to attend to the wants of such emigrants as wish to have money exchanged.

31. They shall post in a conspicuous place, every day, the current market rates of gold and silver, and the prices paid by them for gold and

silver of every denomination, domestic and foreign, and shall pay in current funds for all gold and silver bought by them from the emigrants, the current market rates of such gold and silver.

32. They shall furnish to every emigrant from whom they purchase gold or silver a printed slip, setting forth name of the broker and the number and denominations of the coins purchased, the respective rates paid therefor, and whole amount paid.

IX. Restaurant and Bread Stands.

33. The keepers of the restaurant for the use of emigrants within the depot shall be required to open the same at 6 a.m. in the summer, and 7 a.m. in the winter, and to keep open as long as the emigrants require their services; and shall expose in a conspicuous place a list of prices charged by them for all articles supplied, which list of prices must be submitted to the Castle Garden Committee for examination and approval monthly.

X. Wash-Rooms.

34. The wash-rooms shall be open from from 6 a.m. to such hour in the night as emigrants need their use.

XI. Hospitals.

35. The hospital rooms are for the use of the sick alone.

36. When any emigrant becomes sick in, or is brought sick to, the depot during the night, it shall be the duty of the night watchman to have such patient transferred to the hospital, and put in charge of the nurse and to procure the attendance of the medical officer of the establishment without delay.

PASSENGERS FROM EUROPE.

New Regulation of the United States Treasury Department.

Passengers required to declare contents of their trunks. Every passenger arriving at any part of the United States, from a foreign port, is required to make a brief but comprehensive and truthful statement of the number of his or her trunks, bags, and other pieces of baggage, of the contents of each, and of the articles upon his or her person. For convenience and uniformity such statements must be made on blank forms

designated "Passenger's Baggage Declaration," which may be had from the captain.

To avoid detention in landing, such statements should be carefully prepared before arrival, so as to be promptly delivered to the revenue officer upon demand. The following information will aid in the declaration.

The numbers of the several pieces of baggage will be given in their proper place, and other contents entered into two heads.

1. Baggage not dutiable, which comprises the following classes:—

(*a.*) Wearing apparel in actual use—that is clothing made up for passenger's own wear, in reasonable quantities, may be declared as "wearing apparel."

(*b.*) "Other personal effects" (not merchandise) which are usually carried with or about the person of a traveller, as trunks, articles of toilet, stationery, a few books, one watch, jewellery, &c., &c., in actual use and in reasonable amount may be declared "personal effects."

(*c.*) "Professional Books," "Tools of Trade, and "Household Effects," all of which have been used by the passenger abroad, the last named at least one year, may be declared as such.

2. "Dutiable Merchandise." Under this head must be entered all articles not included in "Baggage not dutiable," as above set forth. Among these may be specially mentioned new wearing apparel, in excess of that in general use, articles of *virtue*, all piece goods, and all articles purchased for other persons. In short all articles not essential to the comfort and convenience of the traveller.

Great care should be taken to make a full and accurate return, and to examine the certificate the passenger is required to sign.

The columns headed "Appraisement" are not to be filled up by the traveller, but left blank.

Upon arrival the declaration will be delivered to the Revenue officer. The baggage will be examined on board the vessel or wharf, and duties assessed, which are payable in gold coin.

Any piece of baggage containing over 500 dols. of dutiable merchandise will not be delivered on board, but sent to the public store for examination and appraisement.

Packages containing merchandise exclusively will not be considered as baggage, but must be regularly entered at the Custom House.

All baggage is subject to actual and thorough examination, and the persons of all passengers are liable to search.

Table of Foreign Moneys, with their Relative Values.

(Subject to the Fluctuations of the Rates of Exchange.)

England.			United States.		France, Belgium, Switzerland, Italy.		Germany.		Austria.		Russia.		Holland.	
£	s.	d.	Dol.	cts.	Frs.	cts.	Rm.	pf.	Fl.	kr.	Rb.	kp.	Fl.	cts.
0	0	0¼	0	0½	0	2½	0	2	0	0⅝	0	1	0	1¼
0	0	0½	0	1	0	5¼	0	4⅛	0	1¼	0	2	0	2½
0	0	0¾	0	1½	0	7½	0	6	0	2½	0	3	0	3¾
0	0	1	0	2	0	10½	0	8¼	0	5	0	4	0	5
0	0	2	0	4	0	21	0	16½	0	10	0	8	0	10
0	0	3	0	6	0	32	0	24¾	0	16	0	12	0	15
0	0	4	0	8	0	42	0	33	0	21½	0	16	0	20
0	0	5	0	10	0	53	0	41¼	0	27	0	20	0	25
0	0	6	0	12	0	64	0	49½	0	31	0	25	0	30
0	0	7	0	14	0	74	0	57¾	0	36¼	0	28	0	35
0	0	8	0	16	0	85	0	66	0	42½	0	32	0	40
0	0	9	0	18	0	96	0	74¼	0	47½	0	38	0	45
0	0	10	0	20	1	6	0	82½	0	53	0	43	0	50
0	0	11	0	22	1	16	0	90¾	0	57½	0	50	0	55
0	1	0	0	24	1	26	1	02	0	62	1	00	0	60
0	2	0	0	48	2	53	2	04	1	23	1	50	1	20
0	3	0	0	72	3	80	3	06	1	85	2	00	1	80
0	4	0	0	96	5	7	4	08	2	46	2	50	2	37
0	5	0	1	21	6	33	5	10	3	7½	3	00	2	97
0	6	0	1	45	7	59	6	12	3	66	3	50	3	57
0	7	0	1	69	8	87	7	14	4	27½	4	00	4	17
0	8	0	1	93	10	14	8	16	4	89	4	50	4	74
0	9	0	2	17	11	40	9	18	5	50½	5	00	5	34
0	10	0	2	42	12	65	10	20	6	15	5	50	5	93
0	11	0	2	66	13	91	11	22	6	76	6	00	6	53
0	12	0	2	90	15	18	12	24	7	37	6	50	7	13
0	13	0	3	14	16	45	13	26	7	99	7	00	7	72
0	14	0	3	38	17	73	14	28	8	60	7	50	8	32
0	15	0	3	63	18	96	15	30	9	21	8	00	8	90
0	16	0	3	87	20	28	16	32	9	82	8	50	9	47
0	17	0	4	11	21	53	17	34	10	43	9	00	10	6
0	18	0	4	35	22	79	18	36	11	4	9	50	10	66
0	19	0	4	59	24	4	19	38	11	68	10	00	11	25
1	0	0	4	84	25	30	20	40	12	30	...		11	85
2	0	0	9	68	50	60	40	80	24	60	...		23	70
3	0	0	14	52	75	90	61	20	36	90	...		35	55
4	0	0	19	36	101	20	81	60	49	20	...		47	40
5	0	0	24	20	126	50	102	0	61	50	...		59	25
6	0	0	29	4	151	80	122	60	73	80	...		71	10
7	0	0	33	88	177	10	143	0	86	10	...		82	95
8	0	0	38	72	202	40	163	60	98	40	...		94	80
9	0	0	43	56	227	70	183	80	110	70	...		106	65
10	0	0	48	40	253	0	204	0	123	0	...		118	50

PARCELS can be sent to friends ABROAD at the following inclusive THROUGH RATES FROM LONDON.

By "Weight," per Express Routes from London.

Per Package weighing ...	lbs 5	lbs. 10	lbs. 15	lbs. 20	lbs. 25	lbs. 30	lbs. 35	lbs. 40	lbs. 45	lbs. 50	Per additional lbs. 15	Per additional
New York, 2lbs. 2/6	4/-	5/-	6/-	7/-	8/-	8/-	9/-	9/-	10/-	10/-	15	2/-
Bombay	5/-	9/6	9/6	12/6	15/-	15/-	17/6	17/6	20/-	20/-	15	2/6
Boston or Philadelphia	5/-	6/6	7/6	10/-	12/-	12/-	13/-	13/-	14/-	14/-	15	3/-
Calcutta	5/-	9/6	9/6	12/6	15/-	15/-	17/6	17/6	20/-	20/-	15	2/6
Cape Town	7/-	7/-	14/-	14/-	14/-	14/-	20/-	20/-	20/-	20/-	15	3/6
Gibraltar and Malta	2/-	5/-	5/-	7/6	7/6	7/6	12/-	12/-	12/-	12/-	15	2/6
Hong Kong.....	7/6	15/-	15/-	17/6	20/-	20/-	21/-	21/-	21/-	21/-	15	2/6
Melbourne&Sydney. 2lbs 2/-)	5/-	7/-	12/-	12/-	15/-	15/-	18/-	18/-	18/-	18/-	20	4/-

Rates for Parcels to all other Places, and for Larger Packages and Merchandise, by Cheaper Routes on application to us; also Through Rates for Furniture, Household Effects, and Luggage to all parts.

SAFE ARRIVAL OUT.

Friends advised as soon as vessel is telegraphed out free of charge on receipt of stamped envelope.

TOURS ROUND THE WORLD.

For cost, and full particulars, apply to us, stating number of party.

N.B.—These trips are arranged monthly in connection with the Australian Mail Steamers from San Francisco, and "Through Tickets" are issued by a great variety of routes at reduced rates.

A MONTHLY LIST of the principal Atlantic Passenger Steamers is published by us. It clearly shows the steamers going each day, so that a selection can easily be made.

TABLE showing the QUANTITY OF LUGGAGE allowed each Passenger by the various LINES, also the rates for effecting INSURANCE on same.

	1st cubic ft.	Class. 2nd cubic ft.	3rd cubic ft.	Excess about rate. per cubic ft.	Insurance per £100
Australian Steamers.....	40	20	15	5s	30s
„ Ships	40	30	20	1s	30s
New Zealand Ships	40	20	10	1s	40s
Cape Steamers	20	20	20	2s	20s
American Steamers	20	10	10	1s	15s

N.B.—Minimum charge for Insurance, 2s. 6d.

TABLES OF FARES for CHILDREN and INFANTS by all Lines.

	Half-fare. Under years.	Under 12 Months.
Australia and New Zealand by all Steamers or Ships, all classes	12	Free
By all American Lines, Cabin	12	Free.
Ditto Steerage	12	£1 1s.

Cape of Good Hope 1-16th of full fare, all classes for each year.

N.B.—All fares must be paid in full before embarkation.

On American railways, children under 12 years, half-fare; under five years, free. On English railways, under 12 years, half fare; under three years, free.

LIFE ASSURANCE

Effected with the Ocean, Railway, and General Accident Assurance and Guarantee Companies, Limited. Rates for an assurance of £100, payable on death of a passenger through any casualty during a voyage.

	Premium. Steamer.	A 1 Ship.
Australia and New Zealand	8s. ...	10s. to 12s.
Canada, 1st April to 30th September ...	4s. 6d.	...
„ 1st October to 31st March ...	9s.	...
Halifax, New York, Boston, Portland and Philadelphia, from 1st April to 20th September	4s.	...
From 1st October to 31st March	5s.	...
Cape of Good Hope	6s.	...
Natal and Algoa Bay	7s.	...
India (via Suez)	5s.	...

Policies are prepared and forwarded to any address in a few hours.

The COLLECTION in London and Shipping on board Vessel of Passengers' Luggage.

We undertake above, provided we have three clear days previous to vessel's date of sailing, to collect and ship.

Rates, shipped free on board, London (any dock) per 112 lbs. 4s.
„ „ „ at Gravesend „ 7s. 6d.
„ „ „ at Liverpool or Southampton „ 5s.

N.B.—Above rates include dock charges, porterage, and all expenses. Labels and forms are supplied. At Liverpool the luggage is shipped from the Landing Stage by the tender, and put on board the steamer in the river, a receipt for it being obtained.

We **Store LUGGAGE** in London in a secure dry warehouse, at 1s. per package per month. Fire Insurance 1s. per £100 per month.

PACKING OF FURNITURE AND HOUSEHOLD EFFECTS.

We will give estimate for both packing and shipping, and send a representative to almost any address in the kingdom, free of charge, having arrangements with experienced firms for this business.

MONEY.

It is not necessary for passengers to North America to provide themselves with American money. Irish, Scotch, or English country notes should, however, be changed before leaving home, otherwise there may be a loss in exchanging them in America. English sovereigns or Bank of England notes command the highest rate of exchange in America. There is, however, some risk in carrying money in this way. The safest method is by means of a draft on New York, payable on presentation, which the principal Lines will issue to passengers for £1 and upwards, without charge.

LIVERPOOL HOTELS.

The North Western Hotel, Lime Street Railway Terminus; "Adelphi," Ranelagh Street; "Compton," Church Street. Tariffs of charges on application.

LIVERPOOL BOARDING HOUSES, SUITABLE FOR INTERMEDIATE AND STEERAGE PASSENGERS.

The passengers for the American Steamers usually stop at the following:—

Allan Line—Geo. Hunter, 66, Old Hall Street, Liverpool. *American* (Central Station, Midland)—J. Murphy, 18, St. Paul's Square; (Lime Street, L. & N.W.)—W. E. Lewis, Philadelphia Temperance Hotel, 28, Hunter Street. *Guion*—Philip Lawrence, 26, Earle Street; one of the Company's officials meets all trains. *Cunard*—H. Hay and T. Hursts, Providence Temperance Hotel, 10, Williamson Square. *Inman*—W. Humphries, 19, Christian Street; and Central Station, Dyer, Travis and Henwood, 13, St. Paul's Square. *White Star*—Norton's Hotel, 37, Union Street.

THE LIVERPOOL OFFICES OF THE ATLANTIC LINES.

Allan—19, James Street. *American*—17, Water Street. *Cunard*—8, Water Street. *Guion*—25, Water Street. *Inman*—22, Water Street. *White Star*—10, Water Street.

The Principal Atlantic Lines are represented in Ireland as follows — *Allan*—Allan Brothers and Co., 50, Foyle Street, Londonderry; James Scott and Co., Queenstown. *American*—N. J. Cummins and Brothers, Queenstown. *Cunard*—D. and C. MacIver, Queenstown. *Guion*—J. Scott and Co., Queenstown. *Inman*—C. and W. D. Seymour and Co., Queenstown. *State*—G. C. Pimm and Co., Curran, Larne, and 20 Corporation Street, Belfast. *White Star*—J. Scott and Co., Queenstown.

LIVERPOOL AS A PORT OF EMBARKATION.

Now that the "Anchor" Line Steamers have been withdrawn from London, emigrants for New York will act wisely by arranging to take their departure from the Port of LIVERPOOL, especially as they can, when purchasing their passage ticket, also obtain a railway ticket from London to Liverpool for 12s. 6d., being a reduction of 4s. 3d. off the ordinary fare. Children are of course taken for half-fare under twelve, and under three years free. About a hundredweight of luggage (say a couple of boxes) is allowed each adult passenger free. Indeed, the disadvantages of embarking from London, as compared with Liverpool, have only to be *experienced*, to decide the passenger in favour of *Liverpool*. There is a far greater choice of steamers, and in the event of any unforeseen delay on the part of a steamer, the passenger can probably arrange easily to be transferred to *another* steamer. The sailings from London are *very irregular*, often putting the passengers to serious inconvenience. The passage round the Channel is generally a very disagreeable one, there are no steamers that will rank with the "Alaska," "Parisian," or "Servia," and the rates are very little, if any, cheaper. Although our offices are in London, we cannot and do not recommend our passengers to go from London, when they *have the option* of starting from Liverpool. The agents of each line of course recommend their own route, and thus the intending passenger is often confused with a mass of conflicting state-

ments, and makes a guess at what he thinks will be the best way of getting out.

On arrival at Liverpool after a short railway journey of about five hours, the emigrants are met by the authorised representatives of the Steam Ship Companies, who will give them any information they require, and also the addresses of respectable boarding-houses, where they can obtain their meals and remain for the night at fixed moderate charges. The different lines have given very careful attention to the question of the treatment of emigrants whilst in Liverpool, and of course exercise such an influence that the boarding-house keepers, who are recommended, are glad to do their part in a *satisfactory manner*. They likewise to some extent see that the persons staying with them get all right and in good time on board their respective steamers.

Passengers must not forget to provide themselves with the usual small outfit required, which can be procured for a few shillings, see page 54. The "Allan" Line have an excellent system by which passengers can hire a very superior outfit, including a life-preserver, pillow, &c., for a few shillings. As the articles are usually thrown away at the end of the voyage, the advantage to the passenger is obvious. Besides this, when securing the passage-ticket by the "Allan" Line they have merely to order the outfit and pay the small charge, and it will be placed on board, saving all further trouble. The passenger should take care that the words "Outfit provided" are written across their contract-ticket when booking. The outfitters very naturally do not approve of this excellent system, and we are surprised that the "Allan" Line is the only one that has introduced it, as we believe that much trouble has been saved by it, and that the results have been satisfactory to all concerned.

The emigrant should lose no time reporting himself at the head office of the steamer in Liverpool, and should not forget that there is probably a large number of passengers bound the same way as himself who have to be attended to, which takes time, he should therefore go early.

We may repeat again, although we have stated it elsewhere, that the emigrants usually embark in a steam-tug from the Prince's landing-stage a few hours before the steamer starts.

When on board they are passed by the Emigration officers. We would here again point out the necessity of heads of families seeing that all are vaccinated; indeed, it is advisable to obtain a certificate of vaccination from a proper medical authority.

As the landing-stage, the offices of the steamship companies, and the railway stations are all within twenty minutes' walk, there is much more convenience in getting away than in London. The passengers' luggage *must* be taken on board from the landing-stage and cannot be shipped from the docks. We are able to undertake the collecting and conveying to Liverpool of luggage and putting it on board at inclusive through rates, see page 87. A line of tramway runs the whole length of the Liverpool Docks, so that a passenger, for a few pence, can go and inspect any particular steamer in the port. Starting from Liverpool, the passenger is out fairly on his way in the St. George's Channel within an hour. The route through that prosperous City has truly been termed "The Highway to America," and even the style of the people in the streets more resembles that of New York than in any other town in the kingdom.

If the emigrant has any time to spare he will do well to pay a visit to the Museum, St. George's Hall, and other interesting buildings in this City.

LIST OF PRINCIPAL STEAM LINES FOR AMERICA.

For Luggage Regulations and Fares for Children see page .

CUNARD LINE ROYAL MAIL STEAMERS.

Liverpool to New York direct every Saturday, and Boston every Wednesday. Fares—Saloon, 12, 15, 18 and 21 guineas, and £26; intermediate, £8 8s.; steerage, £4 4s.

ALLAN LINE ROYAL MAIL STEAMERS.

From Liverpool to Canada every Thursday, and oftener. Fares—saloon 12, 15, and 18 guineas, according to position of berths, but with same privileges in saloon. Parisian, 15 to 21 guineas. Intermediate, £8; steerage, £4 4s. Government assisted passages to agricultural labourers and to female domestic servants, £3; to mechanics, general labourers, &c., £4.

GUION LINE MAIL STEAMERS.

From Liverpool for New York, every Saturday and oftener. Fares—Saloon, 10, 12, 15, 18, 21, and 25 guineas each berth, intermediate, £6 6s.; steerage, £4 4s. Intermediate in Alaska and Arizona, £8 8s.

AMERICAN LINE OF UNITED STATES MAIL STEAMERS.

From Liverpool for Philadelphia, every Wednesday and Saturday. Fares—Saloon, 12 to 18 guineas; intermediate, 6 guineas (except Lord Clive, British Queen, Lord Gough, British Crown, British King, and British Prince, which do not carry intermediate); steerage, £4 4s., and by the special steamers just mentioned, £4.

INMAN LINE.

From Liverpool for New York, weekly sailings. Fares—Saloon, 12, 15, 18 and 21 guineas; intermediate, £8; steerage, £4 4s.

WHITE STAR LINE.

From Liverpool for New York, weekly sailings. Fares—Saloon, 15, 18 and 21 guineas; steerage, £4 4s.

DOMINION LINE.

From Liverpool for New Orleans, taking passengers at through rates to all parts of Texas. Fares—Saloon, £20; steerage, £6 6s. Steerage fares through to Galveston, £7 13s.; Houston, £7 16s.; San Antonio, £8 16s. To Portland, Halifax, and Baltimore every fortnight. Fares—Saloon, 10 to 15 guineas; steerage 4 guineas.

STATE LINE.

From Glasgow to New York every Friday. Fares—Saloon 12 to 15 guineas; second cabin 8 guineas; steerage £4 4s.

ANCHOR LINE.

From Glasgow to New York every Friday. Fares—Saloon 12 16 guineas; second cabin, 8 guineas; steerage 4 guineas.

ALLAN LINE.

Glasgow to Quebec every Wednesday, except winter. Glasgow to Halifax, N.S., and Boston, and New York, regular steamers. Fares—To Quebec, Halifax, or Boston. Saloon £12 12s.; intermediate £8 8s. steerage £4 4s.

Sailings for Halifax, &c., during winter.

ASSISTED PASSAGES TO CANADA.

AGENCY—PITT & SCOTT, 44, St. Paul's Churchyard.

Government assisted passages are granted to Agricultural Labourers with their wives and families at £3 per adult, children under 12 years, £2, under 1 year 10s. Also to Female Domestic Servants at £3 each Mechanics, Navvies, General Labourers, and their families, £4, children under 12, £2, under 1 year, 10s. All applications for such passages are to be made upon special forms, which can be obtained from above, from Agents of the Steamship Lines who issue tickets to approved persons

THE CANADIAN LIBRARY—10, Victoria Chambers, Victoria Street.

Open free daily. Latest Newspaper Files, Pamphlets, Maps, &c. N.B.—The best way from the City to Victoria Street, Westminster, where so many of the Colonial official Agencies are situated, is by the District Railway, a few minutes' ride from the Mansion House, or Blackfriars Stations to Victoria Station. Return Fares, 1st Class, 9d., 2nd 6d., 3rd 5d. Very frequent trains.

LIST OF PRINCIPAL TRANSATLANTIC STEAMERS.

Showing year built, register, tonnage, and nominal horse-power.

(There are, of course, other steamers of each Line not here mentioned.)

Steamer.	Year Built.	Register Tonnage.	Horse Power.
Allan Line.			
Circassian	1873	4000	400
Parisian	1881	5500	—
Peruvian	1863	3340	500
Polynesian	1872	4250	675
Sardinian	1875	4376	600
Sarmatian	1871	4000	600
Cunard Line.			
Aurania	—	—	—
Algeria	1870	3500	500
Batavia	1870	2600	450
Bothnia	1874	4535	600
Catalonia	—	—	—
Cephalonia	—	—	—
Favonia	—	—	—
Gallia	1880	4809	700
Parthia	1870	3200	450
Samaria	1868	2600	288
Scythia	1875	4600	600
Servia	1881	8000	—

LIST OF PRINCIPAL TRANSATLANTIC STEAMERS—*continued.*

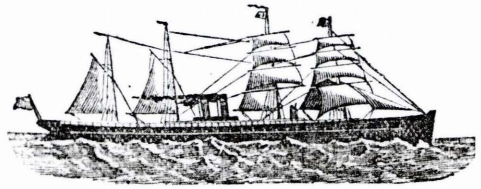
Steamer.	Year Built.	Register Tonnage.	Horse Power.
White Star Line.			
Adriatic	1872	3888	600
Baltic	1871	3707	600
Britannic	1874	5004	760
Celtic	1872	3888	600
Doric	Building	—	—
Germanic	1875	5004	760
Ionic	1883	5000	500
Republic	1872	3707	600
Guion Line.			
Abyssinia	1881	5000	—
Alaska	1881	5000	new
Arizona	1879	5000	1200
Minnesota	—	6500	—
Nevada	1869	3500	350
Oregon	1883	6000	—
Wisconsin	1870	3500	600
Wyoming	1870	3500	600
Inman Line.			
City of Berlin	1875	5491	850
City of Chester	1873	4566	850
City of Montreal	1872	4489	600
City of Paris	1866	3085	450
City of Richmond	1873	4623	700
American Line.			
British Crown	1879	3486	500
British King	1881	3500	500
British Prince	1882	4100	600
British Queen	1880	3557	500
Illinois	1873	3104	500
Indiana	1873	3104	500
Lord Clive	1871	3386	500
Lord Gough	1879	3655	500
Ohio	1873	3104	500
Pennsylvania	1873	3104	500

LIST OF PRINCIPAL TRANSATLANTIC STEAMERS—*continued.*

Steamer.	Year Built.	Register Tonnage.	Horse Power.
Anchor Line.			
Alsatia	1876	2800	789
Anchoria	1875	4200	500
Australia	1870	3000	400
Bolivia	—	4050	1000
California	1872	3500	495
Circassia	—	—	—
City of Rome	1881	8415	3600
Devonia	1882	4270	1000
Elysia	1873	3500	678
Furnessia	1881	5495	1300
Utopia	1874	3500	678
Victoria	1872	3500	1047

THE ALLAN MAIL LINE.

With its regular sailings for Quebec, Halifax, Boston, Portland and Baltimore, competes for the passenger going north, west, or south, and so becomes known to thousands and thousands scattered throughout the whole of Canada and the United States.



THE ALLAN MAIL LINE STEAMER "PARISIAN."

The "Parisian," the latest new steamer of the service, is one of the finest and most comfortable steamers afloat for all classes of passengers.

The Allan line for Canadian passengers is without a rival, and is much patronised by Royalty.

The passage across the Atlantic to Quebec in the summer, or to Halifax in the winter, is the shortest. The average voyage, land to land, not being more than six days; once within the Straits of Belle Isle the ocean passage is over, steamers proceeding through the Gulf, and then up the beautiful River St. Lawrence for hundreds of miles to Quebec.

Emigrants for Canada should always obtain the little pamphlets "Information and Advice for Emigrants," by the Allan Line, as it contains many particulars concerning the journey, which we need not give here.

The discipline on the Allan steamers is excellent, most of the officers and crews have spent many years in the service, and, consequently, are well experienced.

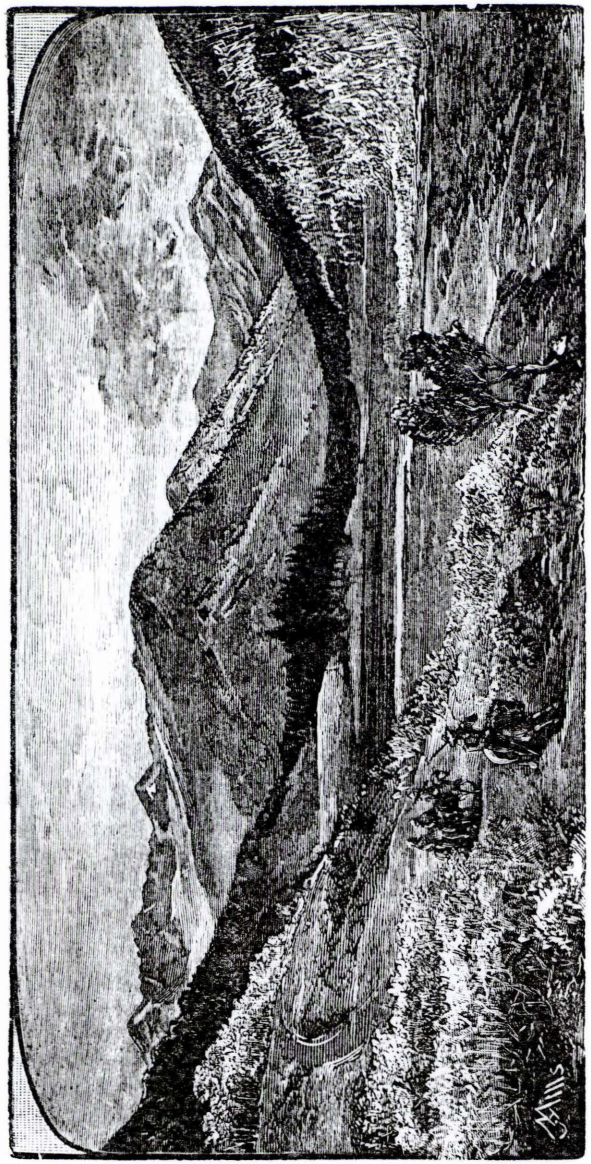
In the spring the intermediate and steerage births have for some years past been all booked FULL a long period before dates of departure, so we would advise emigrants, in order to prevent disappointment, to fix a date early in advance and book their passages. If, through some unavoidable and unforeseen circumstance, the passengers should desire to postpone the time of their sailing, they should immediately make a written application to us, which we will put before the Company.

We need only remark further, that we have found in such circumstances, that the passengers have invariably been treated in a just and satisfactory manner. A misconception will sometimes cause passengers to put off their bookings until the last moment, when they probably find the steamers quite full, or the best berths all gone.

The Allan line of Royal Mail steamers conveyed safely across the Atlantic to the States and Canada during the year 1882 over 55,000 passengers, and it is expected and anticipated that this number will be largely increased during the present year.

THE GUION LINE MAIL STEAMERS.

This line has come to the front with extraordinary success. All classes of passengers speak in terms of the most unqualified satisfaction and praise of the last two splendid steamers, the "Alaska" and the "Arizona." The two fastest steamers in the whole Atlantic service. The intermediate accommodation is unusually comfortable, so much so, that the intermediate berths have to be secured long before the departure of the steamers, especially during the spring and summer months. The saloon accommodation on the "Alaska" is superb. She is lit up by the electric light, and, we believe, there are about 500 different lights throughout the vessel. We give for our readers a few of the passages made by the steamers "Alaska" and "Arizona" of this line.



GRAY'S PEAK, COLORADO.

HINTS & CAUTIONS TO PASSENGERS GOING TO AMERICA.

CHEAPEST FARE TO NEW YORK

BY A DIRECT BRITISH STEAMER IS **£4 4s.**

This low fare, which includes an ample supply of good provisions, is hardly likely to remain unchanged as the busy spring season comes on. We therefore recommend intending emigrants to fix the date of their departure **now at once**, and to secure their passages at the reduced rate by sending to us a payment on account of **£1** per adult, together with a list of the names and ages, also the Line and date of sailing when they wish to proceed. On receipt of these particulars, together with the deposit, we shall be prepared, until further notice to the contrary, to issue tickets for any date in advance, at the reduced rate of **£4 4s.** per head. The accommodation by the best steamers is usually all booked many weeks before they sail in the busy season.

Certain agents are advertising from London to New York at lower rates; but they should, in common fairness to the passengers, inform them that they first have to proceed to the Continent, and are then transferred either to a Dutch or French steamer, which we consider unsuitable for English emigrants, and therefore *never* recommend; indeed we frankly decline to book for such lines, and the intending emigrant should bear in mind that in proceeding to his destination by a Continental Line he loses all the protection of the "British Passengers' Act" which the legislature has specially passed to prevent his being imposed upon by designing persons.

The administration of the "British Passengers' Act" is vested in the Board of Trade (which has taken the place of the Old Emigration Commissioners), and emigration offices are stationed at the following places :—

LONDON	NEWCASTLE	DUBLIN
LIVERPOOL	HULL	QUEENSTOWN
GLASGOW	PLYMOUTH	LONDONDERRY
LEITH	CARDIFF	

If the emigrant has reason to believe that he is not being fairly treated, any of these officers at the above ports will at once, on application being made to them, investigate the case, tell the emigrant his exact legal position, and, if advisable, take the necessary legal steps to protect him from fraud, &c.

NATIONAL LIBRARY OF SCOTLAND

Instances of this nature frequently occur, so that it is well that emigrants generally should realise the fact that the main object of the appointment of the emigration offices is to afford gratuitously to poor emigrants all possible assistance, to protect them against fraud and imposition, and to obtain redress when oppression or injury has been practised on them. We cannot too strongly impress upon emigrants to beware of "Continental Lines," some of which even go so far as to advertise the words "DIRECT to New York, from LONDON," which are false.

GROSS CRUELTY TO EMIGRANTS ON THE VOYAGE TO AMERICA.

The *Daily Chronicle* of 27th December, 1880, publishes the following, which we give word for word, as it may prove an effectual warning to some of the poorer classes of emigrants, who are attracted by low rates. There are no "direct" steamers for New York from England taking steerage passengers for less than £4 4s.

"Occasionally we hear complaints from emigrants who take passage from this country to their destination abroad; but it is rarely indeed that passengers by an English ship are subjected to such treatment as that which was experienced a short time ago by those on board a steamer belonging to an Antwerp line. In this vessel were several English people who secured berths in her on the faith of an advertisement which stated that she would sail from Hull on a certain date, and from London on the day following. In fact, it is alleged in a New York paper that the contract notes contained this stipulation; yet at the last moment these emigrants were told that they must go to Antwerp in a couple of small coasters, and on their arrival there they were lodged in a place in which no better bed was provided than that which was offered in the form of a quantity of wet shavings and straw. On board the steamer matters became still worse. The steerage is stated to have been wet, and the bedding very quickly became in the same condition. There were 430 passengers on board altogether, and some of them were subjected to the roughest usage, even to the extent of being kicked. It is averred, too, that for all these people only two gallons of fresh water were served out each morning in which to perform their ablutions. No attempt whatever seems to have been made to provide separate accommodation for the women; many passengers, in the absence of bunks, had to sleep on the deck, and these nooks, when there were any, were so badly constructed that they broke down in the first storm that was encountered. As to the order that was maintained, the ship is described as a 'perfect pandemonium' after a certain hour each evening; and the brutality of the petty officers towards the seamen themselves very nearly resulted in the murder of one of the latter. Such revelations as these can hardly fail to act as a warning to emigrants not to take passages in vessels which are not obliged to be surveyed by an English emigration officer before they sail."

ILLEGAL SALE OF EMIGRANTS' TICKETS.

Emigrants should bear in mind that passage-tickets are not transferable, and should take care that they go to a duly authorised agent, and obtain from him, in exchange for their deposit, a proper official contract ticket. This ticket must show the Line, the steamer's name, the Passengers' names, date of sailing, the amount of passage money, and be signed by the agent on behalf of the Line. The amount of deposit must also be clearly shown on the ticket. Experience proves to us the necessity for giving these hints. Only a short while ago an individual opened an office in the City of London, and for a day or two did a good business in selling fictitious passage-tickets for New York at the moderate rate of **£2 10s.** each adult. It is needless to say that this was an imposture, and that the attention of the Board of Trade being called to the fact, the fraud was very properly put a stop to by bringing the impostor before the Lord Mayor. Several persons have lately got into trouble by *selling* passage-tickets to third parties. No one is permitted to issue passage-tickets to emigrants without a proper authority, countersigned by the officers of the Board of Trade.

SALOON BERTHS.

All saloon passengers have the same privileges, but the prices by the Atlantic Lines vary according to the position and size of cabins, and number of persons berthed in each. So that to get the best offer, the names and ages of all the persons composing a party, should be sent to us, we can then submit a small marked plan of the cabins. No offers, in summer season, can be kept open, and should be accepted or declined immediately. It should be stated when either top or bottom berths are specially desired.

INTERMEDIATE PASSAGE.

The Allan Line for Quebec, Halifax, &c., the Guion, Cunard and Inman Lines for New York, and the American Line for Philadelphia, all from Liverpool, carry intermediate passengers quite separately from steerage, and with superior accommodation and dietary scale, particulars of which can be obtained from us. We recommend this class especially to passengers with families wishing to go out economically but comfortably. This accommodation being limited it is necessary to engage passages as early as possible beforehand, which can be done by paying £2 per adult (Guion Line half fare) on account of passage. Passengers must remember that intermediate is, of course, very inferior to saloon, yet it is usually booked full months before sailing in the spring.

THE EMIGRANTS' FRIEND. BY MAJOR JONES, U.S. CONSUL.—Price 2s. 6d., post free 2s. 8d. Is a handsome cloth-bound volume of some 350 pages, and contains a number of excellent maps, average wages tables, cost of living, particulars of crops, notes on live stock, prices of cattle, the land offices in the United States, tables of populations, and several articles giving good practical advice. The author confines himself to the United States.

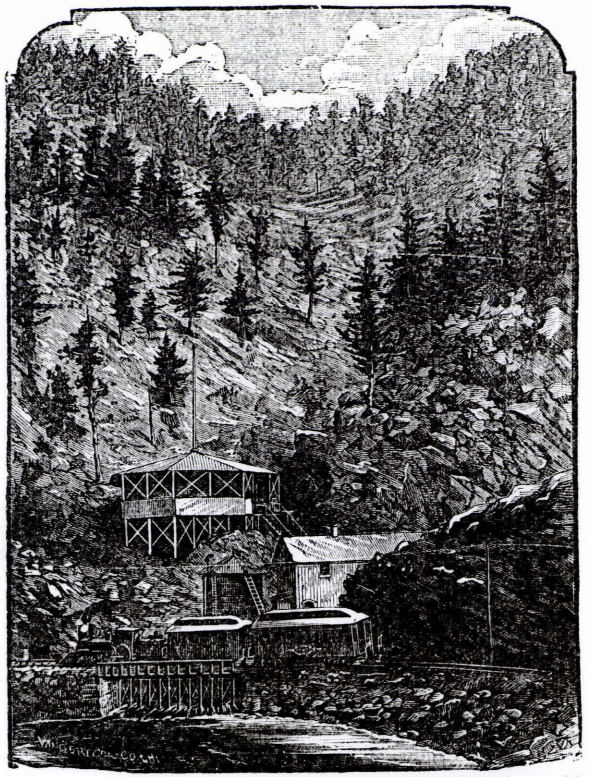
STEERAGE PASSAGE.

Passengers have to provide themselves with a few articles as per lists supplied, which can be best purchased in Liverpool. Steerage passengers by the Allan Line, are recommended to hire the outfit supplied by this Company, which consists of Wood's Patent Life-Preserving Pillows, bed, pannikin to hold 1½ pint, plate, knife, nickel-plated fork, and nickel-plated spoon. The charge for the use of these articles for the voyage will be 3s. 6d. per adult, and 1s. 9d. per child between the ages of one and twelve years.

NOTES.

There are special advantages possessed by the Allan Mail Line, in the fact that on the voyage to Quebec, three days, out of the eight or nine, are spent in the St. Lawrence, in smooth water, and that passengers going the round trip can, if they prefer, return via Baltimore or Halifax, in one of the steamers of the same line.

Intending passengers for Canada should visit the Canadian Library at the offices of the Government Agent, 9 and 10, Victoria Chambers, Victoria street, where the latest newspapers can be seen without charge, and reliable information obtained about land, &c. Several of our farmer friends have spent considerable time there. We will give cards to the secretary to anyone wishing to obtain information there.



How to go to Texas? is a question we are constantly asked. There is the direct steamer to New Orleans, thence by steamer to Galveston. When there is no New Orleans steamer going we can book to New York, thence to Galveston by the weekly steamers of the Mallory Line. We must

confess that we prefer sending passengers to Philadelphia direct, and thence by rail to Texas, as there is no delay in proceeding, but, of course, passengers provide their own food on railway journey. Another excellent route, even a little cheaper than *via* Philadelphia, is by the Allan Mail Line *via* Halifax to Baltimore, thence on to Texas by rail.



A WATERFALL IN COLORADO.

Although Saloon Return Tickets offer the advantage of a reduction in the fare, still "Atlantic" passengers may at certain times of the year suffer both inconvenience and loss through taking them. They should bear in mind, before booking, that the tickets are only available for "any steamer of the Line," *provided there is room*, and for twelve months.

Now the great yearly increasing stream of saloon passengers from America, coming with the early summer, and going back throughout the summer and fall, causes all the cabin berths to be very rapidly filled up and engaged; thus the holder of a return ticket may have to incur hotel and other expenses, waiting for a steamer *with* room—and we know for a fact that a considerable amount of discomfort is frequently experienced by many. This inconvenience *soon* takes away any money advantage. We find, from our experience, another very strong objection to return tickets made by Americans, and more especially by ladies, viz.—that many pleasant travelling parties made in Paris, or elsewhere, have often either to be broken up, or else a loss incurred returning by another steamer. The various Lines of course think it to their advantage to secure the return of a passenger by their own steamers, at a reduced rate, and at the time of booking the return rate does look tempting, but we feel sure all experienced travellers will endorse our remarks. Passengers from this side have not these disadvantages to *so great* an extent, and if they are not returning in the summer months will most certainly do well to book for the round trip, especially as they can go out say to Quebec and come home, *via* Baltimore, by the Allan steamers, unless they have their favourite direct New York Line. Our remarks may prevent some inconveniences to intending passengers on both sides of the Atlantic.

Emigrant Accommodation on Board Atlantic Steam Ships, 1881, Report to both Houses of Parliament by Command of Her Majesty.

MITCHELL LIBRARY

of our best and most experienced officers, and may need the careful consideration of the sanitary officers of our staff at no distant day.

Varying Requirements with varying numbers of Passengers.—I must here however state that there is not only a marked difference between the arrangements of ships on different lines, but that there must necessarily be a marked difference between the arrangements on board of ships of the same line under the different and varying circumstances of different voyages. The number of passengers varies, and the numbers of single males and single females, and of children varies, and therefore the arrangements must vary. To illustrate my point I would refer to the arrangements for berthing passengers on board the "Germanic" (on the occasion of Miss O'Brien's visit), arrangements really perfectly satisfactory in every way; and to the excellent but entirely different arrangements on the Inman steamer "City of Paris" (*see* question 246) on the occasion of my visit to her, where five nationalities had to be put into separate compartments. There can be no hard and fast line, and although I have done my best to make a report on the basis of the general and broad conditions under which every-day work connected with the conveyance of emigrants is carried on, I cannot be responsible for describing, any more than can the shipowner in arranging for, the special and varying wants and arrangements of special and varying circumstances and voyages; nor can I in the limits of this report explain the differences of practice between the arrangements on emigrant vessels at various ports of the United Kingdom.

This report would, however, be imperfect if I failed to mention one fact connected with the conveyance of emigrant passengers, and it is this, that technically "emigrant passengers" are all those persons who are not saloon or cabin passengers, and that certain so called "emigrant passengers" now travel in apartments and under conditions that were not to enjoyed even by cabin passengers some years ago. These though technically known as "emigrants" or "steerages" are "intermediates," they pay a higher sum than the ordinary emigrants, and some of these "intermediates" are berthed in cabins which sometimes contain only two berths, that is to say, a man and his wife, or containing four berths which may be occupied by two married couples or a married couple and a child or children. Seeing that such an arrangement as this has been made to meet the wants and needs of the emigrant without any legislation; seeing also, on the other hand, that so long as a passage is afforded there are persons who will make most valuable members of society, and who will take the cheapest berth available, and will save a sovereign for use on the other side of the Atlantic rather than spend it in luxurious quarters on board ship, I am of opinion that it will be better in the interests of all concerned to leave things to legitimate competition, as far as possible, in preference to interfering in any way beyond suggesting.

I have the honour to be, Sir,

Your most obedient and most humble servant,

THOMAS GRAY.

APPENDIX A.

Copy of a Letter in the "Pall Mall Gazette," May 6, 1881, headed,

"HORRORS OF AN EMIGRANT SHIP."

THE great bay of Queenstown was flooded with light and sunshine when we stepped on board the tender which takes the emigrants to the ship at the mouth of the harbour. I, coming from one of the chief emigrating counties of Ireland, had long wished to see for myself under what conditions the voyage was made, and also to observe the type shown by the emigrants when the individuals were unknown to me personally. The pier was crowded, mostly with young men and women, a few of the latter carrying young children. Each emigrant must bring on board a mattress, tins, and plate. At first, the bustle of departure, in a few instances the farewells, the buying of little pots of shamrock for the love of the old land, and all the coming and going consequent on the moving of luggage, prevented my being able to judge of the individual faces. Once off, however, it became possible to distinguish. Sorrow brings out latent expression, and the evidences of fresh sorrow were on almost every face. Poverty was written in large letters there—ignorance, weakness, too, and indecision. A soft, gentle, innocent looking flock, marked not with crime or even intemperance, but with a hopeless submission to daily want. They were faces needing to be hardened, welded, and ground; not dull, far from it, but inapt, tremulous, long-suffering. Their needs are supplied by America. Whether for good or evil, for righteousness or for wickedness, the Irishman who comes home from America comes home a stronger being; and the strength and independence begotten of American thought is to-day springing like new blood through the veins of Ireland: but, looking on those poor, I thought of the words "sinless sorrow," and felt them true.

Emigrant Accommodation, 1881

The berths are of strong canvas, in rooms or blocks of 20, 10 upper and 10 lower, divided into tiers of five berths each, and intersected by a passage about three feet wide. These blocks or rooms are made portable, and afford when folded and triced up between the beams, table, and seating accommodation for the occupants, an advantage which is unobtainable with the ordinary fixed wooden berths. The division between the blocks is formed of canvas, rolled up during the day to afford light and ventilation. These canvas berths are of the same dimensions and design as the wooden ones, and have been adopted on account of their greater comfort and cleanliness, and also because beds or mattresses are rendered unnecessary. Fore and aft canvas screens, with a passage between, ensure complete privacy between the married and single at night.

The single women are in charge of two experienced matrons, one of them being an interpretress for the benefit of the foreign women.

The lavatories and water-closets are in deck houses, well lighted and ventilated, accessible only from the steerage. Those aft are used only by the females, the married men using those provided forward for the single men. There are 20 closets in all, viz., eight aft and 12 forward, which are kept scrupulously clean and flushed with a constant flow of salt water by a pulsometer. The lavatories forward and aft are provided with wash basins, looking-glasses, and indeed with everything necessary for both ablutions and toilet.

The steerages are ventilated by numerous cowl ventilators and the hatchways, the latter being well grated and guarded, and lighted by 13 inch and 8 inch side lights. The deck or floor is of pitch pine, well scrubbed and thoroughly clean. Access and egress are obtained by broad and easy stairways, quite independent of the hatchways.

The steerage pantry is quite a feature. It contains, besides the ordinary requisites, a large tea and coffee apparatus, similar to that provided for the first class, tea pots for the women, and an ample supply of beef tea and broth for the sea-sick and invalids. Filters are also conveniently placed in the steerage.

There are six hospitals, viz. :—

Two below in the after steerage, for the women.

Two below in the forward steerage, for the men.

Two on deck, for infectious cases.

The service is done by a staff of stewards, and I learn that the surgeons and purser are held strictly accountable, not only for proper discipline, but also for the food being well cooked and served.

Each steamer carries two fully qualified surgeons.

On the main deck is the space appropriated to the steerage passengers, and it appears to me to give them the amplest room for healthful recreation, &c.

I was informed that the ebb and flow of trade is such that whilst large numbers of saloon passengers are coming east, the pressure of steerage is to the westward; consequently the accommodation provided for the former has to be transformed for the use of the latter, the light and ventilation being the same. The substitution of rooms for four, for blocks or rooms for 20, is the main difference.

T. G.

APPENDIX G.

Sections of Passengers Act, 1855. Dietary Scale, Medical Scale, &c.

All passenger ships to be surveyed before clearing out.

19. No "passenger ship" shall clear out or proceed to sea unless she shall have been surveyed, under the direction of the emigration officer at the port of clearance, but at the expense of the owner or charterer thereof, by two or more competent surveyors to be appointed by the said emigrant commissioners [Board of Trade] for each port at which there may be an emigration officer, and for other ports by the commissioners of customs, nor unless it shall be reported by such surveyors that such "passenger ship" is in their opinion seaworthy and fit for her intended voyage. The survey shall be made before any part of the cargo is taken on board, except so much as may be necessary for ballasting the ship, and such portion of cargo, if laden on board, shall be shifted, if required by the emigration officer or surveyors, so as to expose to view successively every part of the frame of the ship. In case of noncompliance with any of the requirements of this section, the owner, charterer, or master of the ship, or any of them, shall for each offence be liable to a penalty not exceeding one hundred pounds nor less than five pounds sterling: Provided always, that in case any "passenger ship" shall be reported by any such surveyors not to be seaworthy, or not fit for her said intended voyage, the owner or charterer, if he shall think fit, may require, by writing under his hand,

Penalty on noncompliance.

Power to Owners to appeal against

have, and they are equally anxious to close the matter. I have enough to compel attention without touching them at all. Under Captain Wilson's undoubted testimony, I now show you my indictment against the system; but I have not my paper of notes, now in Captain Wilson's hands, and must draw it up from memory.

Yours faithfully,
C. G. O'Brien.

Miss C. G. O'Brien to Board of Trade.

No. 4.

Gentlemen, Ardanoir, Foynes, May 25th.

I have written several letters to Mr. Forster and to Miss Forster, but have kept no copies. They are private letters of course, but if Mr. Forster thinks well, I am personally quite ready to submit them all to you. The only letter which was in any sense intended for the public was that in which pretty nearly following Captain Wilson's dictation I expressed my opinion of the "Germanic" as seen the second time.

I intend to go over to London as soon as I have been able to draw together a little direct testimony as to how the present system works, good or bad. I would refer you to Captain Wilson, who thoroughly understands my views, and I shall myself be ready to answer any questions either by letter or in person. I wrote yesterday both to Captain Wilson and Miss Forster; both these letters I shall be glad that you should see; I have also written to the papers asking for information from the emigrants. I can hardly conceive but that the present system must work very badly. It may not, however; of that I hope to acquire knowledge in a few weeks.

The "Germanic" admits, for instance, that all married couples, single women, and children were actually in one room on March 10th. They profess to have had in use their present excellent arrangements. I have not proved my assertion, nor have they proved their denial as to further details.

If I am given the opportunity, I hope to place the matter personally before Mr. Gladstone, referring only to what Captain Wilson and I saw together, not going back to the unsupported testimony of myself and my friends.

Yours faithfully,
C. G. O'Brien.

Miss C. G. O'Brien to Captain Wilson.

No. 5.

Dear Captain Wilson, Ardanoir, Foynes, May 25, 1881.

I suppose a complaint published in the New York papers about the ship "Abyssinia," Guion line, 10th April 1881 (same agency as "White Star" at Queenstown), at Liverpool, must have come before you. She had small-pox on board, and four passengers died, I heard. Should you like to hear what the emigrants say of her; only a man and woman are mentioned *in this letter as having died.* "It was a misfor-
" tunate ship, the men was starved in it, they would not give them only one bun of
" bread and that not half baked" (I suspect this means for breakfast, C. G. O'B.)
(Again) "I would advise anyone not to come in the Guion line, for they would starve
" them, and they would do the same to us (girls, C. G. O'B.), but we were able for
" them; we were *very great with them* (the ship people) the way they would be good to
" us.

Another woman says of the same ship: "It is one of the worst ships that ever sailed,
" they would starve you, we were heartbroken while we were in it."

A third person said they were badly trated (treated), but he sent the cutting from the New York paper and that was lost.

This is just out of one little village, I heard nothing of it till to-day. Now, I have the letters, if you wish to see them. Another thing the first woman says as *apropos* of Castle Gardens, "I would get a place in the Castle Garden, and I would not go until I
" would see Bridget Power, and when I told it to her she was very glad that I did
" not go, *they make regular fools of them* in Castle Garden when they know they are
" greenhorns."

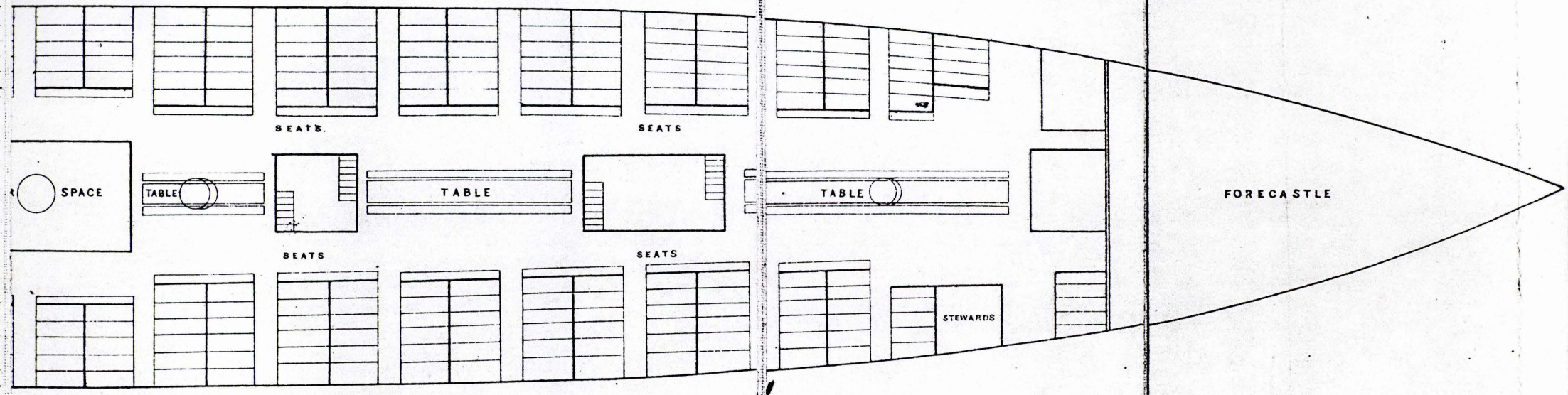
Emigrant Accommodation, 1881

National Steam Ship Co. Ltd.

	S.S. "Spain"	"Egypt"
Tons	4512	4670
Length Ft.	437	452
Breadth	43	44
Nominal H.P.	600	600

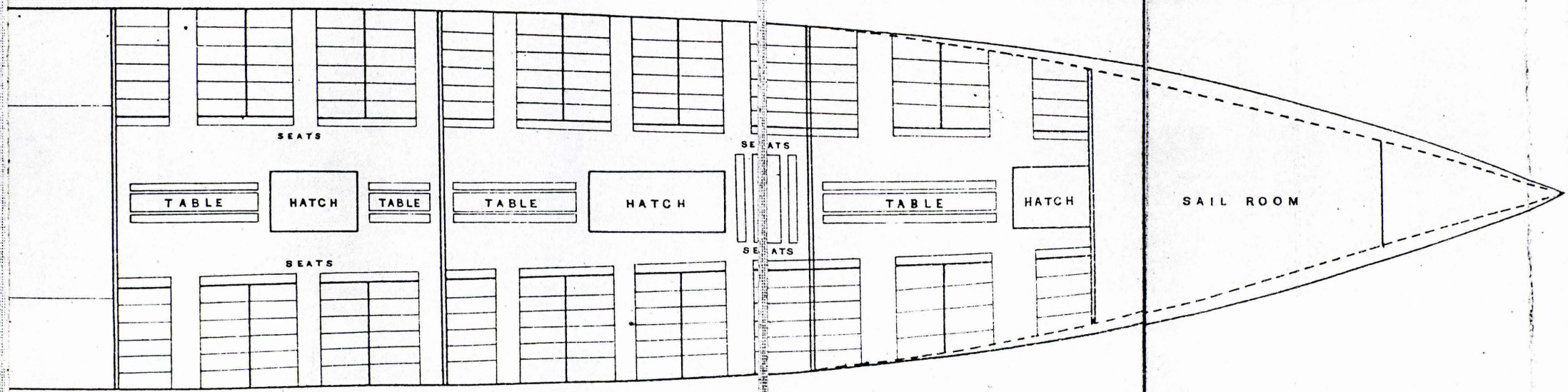
E C K.

each Passenger. Berths 6ft by 2ft.



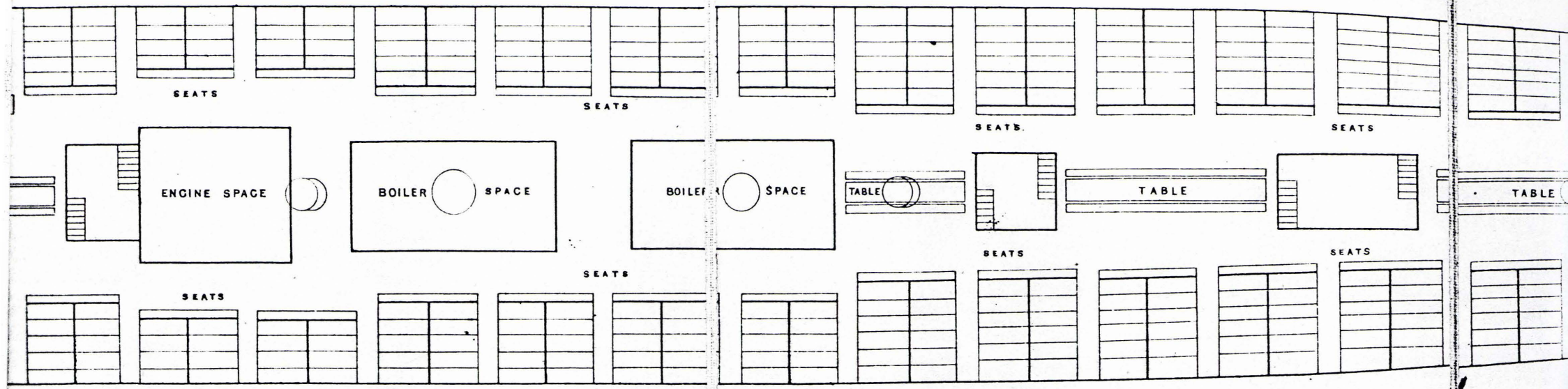
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h Passenger. Berths 6ft by 2 ft.



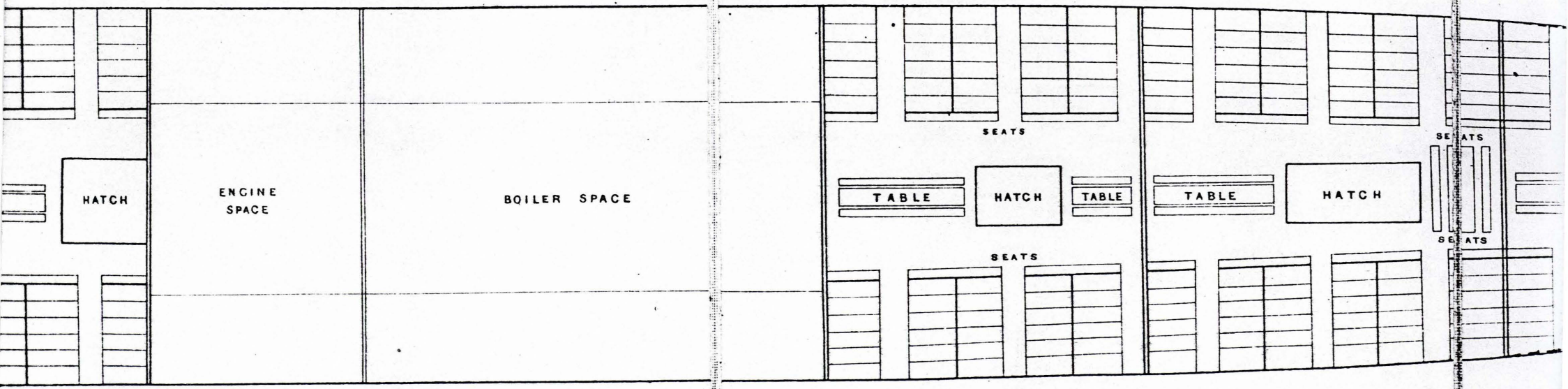
MAIN DECK.

Height 7 ft. 6 ins. 15 Superficial feet for each Passenger. Berths 6 ft by 2 ft.

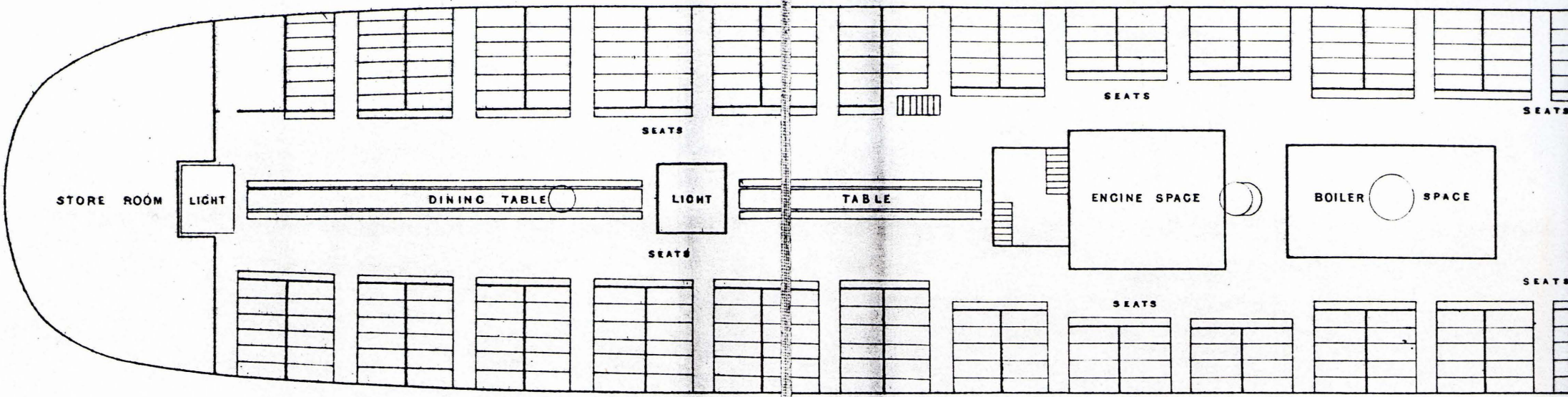


LOWER DECK.

Height 8 ft. 18 Superficial feet for each Passenger. Berths 6 ft by 2 ft.

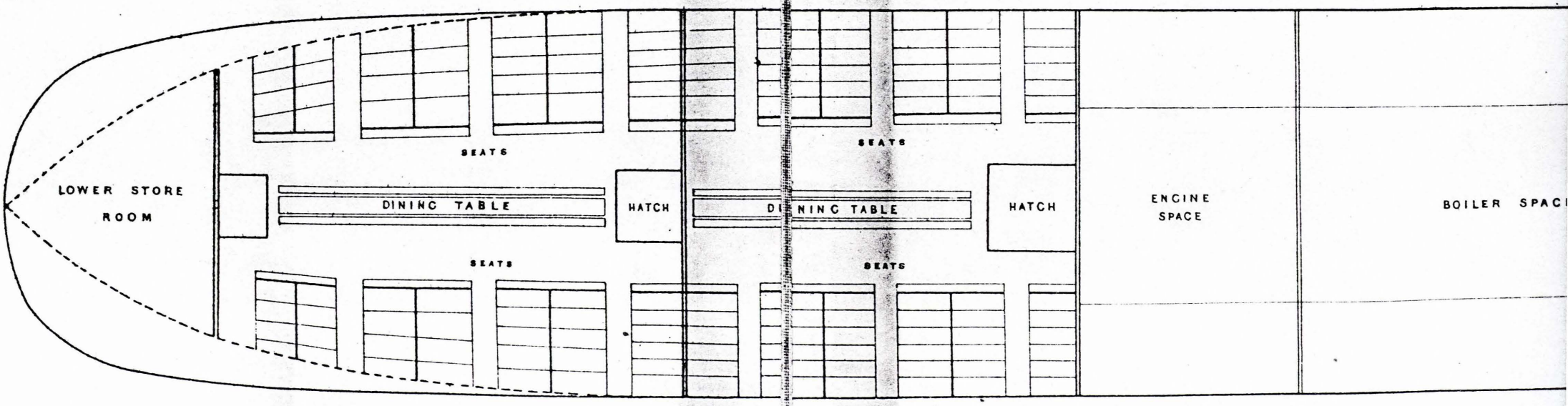


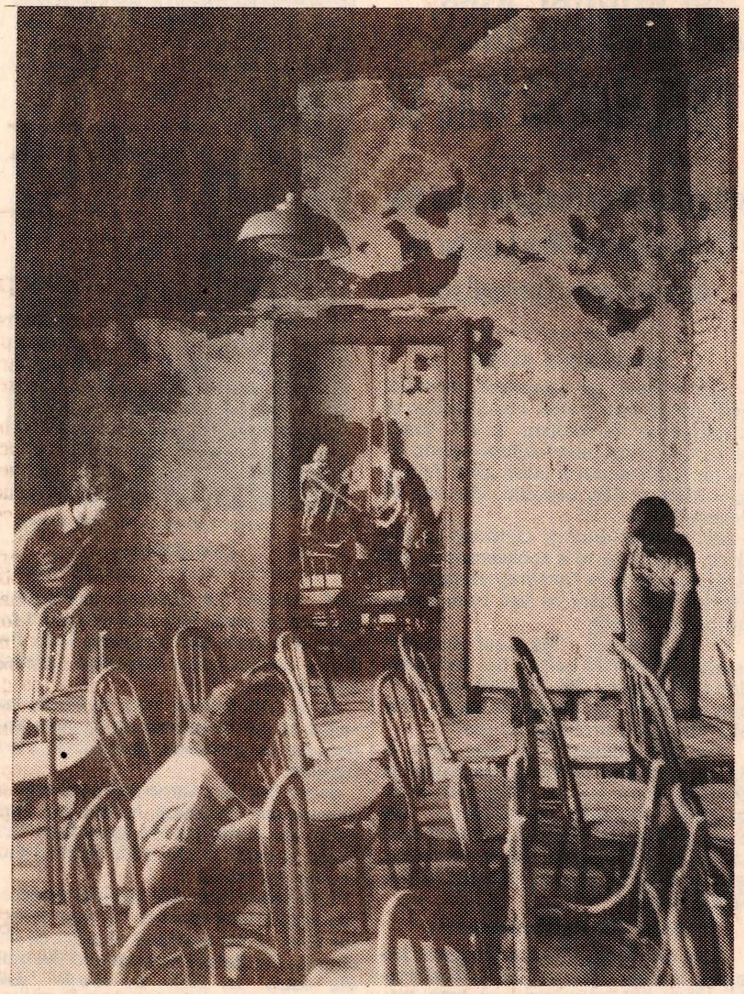
Height 7 ft. 6 ins.—15 Superficial



LOWE

Height 8 ft.—18 Superficial fe







The New York Times / Jack Manning

In the main hall at Ellis Island, Professor Flora Kaplan of the museum studies program at New York University briefs students before the start of the day's search through the island's main building. At left, students sorting chairs in a storage room; National Park Service officials will select those chairs that will be restored.

Archeology Students Searching for Relics of Ellis Island's Past

Archeology students wearing paper smocks, dust masks and hard hats are searching the dank and crumbling rooms of Ellis Island's old immigration center for remnants of its long and colorful history.

They are seven graduate students from New York University's museum studies program working under contract from the National Park Service to retrieve and store more than 8,600 objects in more than 200 rooms of the island's main building.

The four-month expedition, which began June 20, is the second phase of an extensive historical project whose goal is to create a permanent museum collection for the island.

Although it is most famous as the point of entry for more than 12 million immigrants starting in 1892, Ellis Island also served as a point of deportation for the diseased and politically subversive, as an Army hospital during World War I, a detention center for enemy aliens and a Coast Guard station.

The island was abandoned in 1954. It was made part of the Statue of Liberty National Monument by President Lyndon B. Johnson in 1965, but was not opened to tourists until 1976.

Years of neglect have created challenges for the group. Chunks of plaster sometimes fall from the walls and ceilings, rubble-strewn floors are often unstable, and some of the buildings are infested with rats.

"We've just made a habit of always checking the ceilings and surveying the floors before we enter a new section," said John Austin, a member of the team.

Through their work, the students are chipping away some of the mystery that still surrounds the island's daily operation. Two students, Toby Herbst and Jill Hellman, recently concluded that there once was a kosher kitchen to serve the many Russian Jews passing through the center.

I.D. Cards and Log Books

Most immigrants were processed on the island in under five hours, so few artifacts belonging to them have been found. However, some crumpled shoes, floppy women's hats, miniature looms and graffiti resembling Freemason's symbols have been attributed to the new arrivals.

More common are identification cards of those who were deported — some indicating suspected Communists — old radios, documents, office furniture and log books showing the type of food that was served.

Probing the soil with pick and shovel is not necessary, since most artifacts have been found above ground. Before removing artifacts from their resting places to storage rooms, the students design and construct special shelves to hold them. Similar objects from the same time periods are grouped together in areas that are off limits to tourists.

Dating and identifying thousands of pieces has been a demanding job.

For example, of nearly 3,000 dishes collected, some have been identified by studying the designs and type of workmanship, while others were conveniently labeled by the manufacturer for use at Ellis Island.

'This Is the Reality'

Much of the job consists of hard physical labor. So far, the students have lugged hundreds of chairs, cast-iron benches and metal filing cabinets up winding staircases and through dark corridors.

"This is the reality of it," said Prof. Flora Kaplan, the project's director, "though most people associate archeology with scholarly research — sitting in reading rooms and pontificating."

Once the artifacts are collected and stored, National Park Service officials will select those to be preserved and restored. Representative artifacts will be saved and displayed in a number of rooms that are to be restored, said Edward Kallop, staff curator for the North Atlantic region of the Park Service.

Restored areas will reflect the entire span of the center's history and not just the period of immigration, he said.

A spokesman for the Liberty Island-Ellis Island Centennial Commission, which is headed by Lee A. Iacocca, chairman of the Chrysler Corporation, said $25 million had been raised so far from private donations for the restoration projects. The commission hopes to collect $230 million. Work at Ellis Island is scheduled for completion by 1992.

Voyage - Details

The government inspector and a doctor came along with the steamboat and the agents of the Herald. After we set sail the passengers were all called by their names and passed by the doctor who examined them individually. This was also done the day previous to sailing. The passengers were then called and the vessel searched for stowaways. It is learned two youths were taken up out of the hold who had been hidden since the 10th. They had only a small stock of provisions laid up. They were taken back with the steamer to Greenock. I believe that all vessels are searched after leaving the Tail of the Bank for characters of that kind.

The steamer went as far as the Island of Arran with us. Just before it put about the agents called the people to the decks and selected a committee of 8 to keep order and prevent smoking between decks. This done, the steamer put about . We gave threecheers and spread our canvass to the breeze.

The sail down the Firth is beautiful and interesting. The numerous (clocks) or arms of the sea running up amongst the mountains, also the delightful watering places and villas scattered along both sides of the river are altogether pleasing and romantic, and well calculated to raise the dejected feelings of those who may be thinking of friends and home now left behind perhaps for life. It calls forth their attention to view the beauties of nature on a grand scale (at least it so acted upon me). "Ailsa Craig" , which at first sight appeared rising out of the sea, as a very small thing, was now standing 6 or 8 miles ahead and appeared of a conical form a bare looking high rock. But the sun had by this time hidden his face behind the high mountains of Arran. The wind also dieing away we were altogether disappointed of a near view of Paddy's Milcotore.

1850

June 16th. This morning we found that the Herald had made but little way through the night. Ailsie Craig now stood about three miles to the leeward. The morning was beautiful. The sun shone forth his bright rays upon the waters of the deep whose surface was scarcely disturbed by a breath of wind, and the Herald remained almost motionless.

Far West in the distance might be faintly traced the Irish coast, and in a more northernly direction was the Mull of Kintyre more distinctly to view. While in a north and northeasternly direction the high peaks of the Argyle shire coast met the eye, behind which stood in bold relief the lofty summits of the mountains of Arran. While far to the South east and east stretched out the Mull of Galloway like some distant fairyland. Here and there on the surface of the water might be seen the white sails of numerous ships, like birds of passage stretching out their wings to catch the morning's breezes which had now sprung up from the East.

In a short time the sails of the Herald were also filled and immediately her head was brought round from the Southeast to the Northwest, shaping our course for the North channel. The wind proving favorable we cleared the Mull of Kintyre about 1 P. M. It is of a very strange appearance , only large crags while here and there patches of heath were visible on the less

exposed parts of it.

The appearance of the Irish coast at this point much resembled that of the Mull but less elevated. By 3 P. M. we past a roocky looking Island with a light house on it's summit on the Irish side of the channel called Inchhill, Island. We had also a distant view of the Islands of Jura and Islay which was the last land visible on the Scottish side of the channel.

By sunset we had entirely lost sight of all the northern mountains. We were by this time nearly oppositeTory Light house on the Irish coast. The sun was just dipping his face in the waters of the Atlantic Ocean in the far west and his beautiful rays sparkled along the deep. By night there was a number of the passengers ill with the seasickness, especially the females. This closed the first Sunday at sea.

1850 June

17th. This morning we found that we had made but little way through the night. The wind was very light and that was against us so that by night we had not made far from Tory. The sickness still increased.

18th. Tory was still visible, though at a distance, but the wind was still ahead yet a little stronger than yesterday. By night we were fairly out of sight of land on all sides. Sickness was still increasing. I had the good fortune to escape that disagreeable trouble as yet.

19th. Was sailing in a Northernly course all day. Spied a brig to the windward. At sunset we came in sight of a big ship, thought to be the Conrad, which sailed on the 14th. There was little or no looking, though, this day. The decks were almost deserted. no abatement of sickness and the vomiting was extraordinary.

20th. At 3 in the morning the Herald was put about to a Southwest by west course. Some of the sick were getting better. I felt a little unwell but kept walking the decks, also took a little medicine. [illegible]

21st. We were this day sailing in a Northwest by North course. I was better this day although I still felt a little giddy. My wife was able to go about this day. All most the whole sick list was also on the way of recovery. We had a view of two ships away to leeward but at a great distance.

22nd. This day we were sailing in a Southwest course.(The wind being still ahead of us). The whole of the passengers were on deck. The weather was pleasant though somewhat cold to be the longest day.

23rd. This morning being Sunday the passengers were mostly upon deck. After breakfast the ship's bell rang to summon all that were able to the quarter deck to engage in prayers. The ceremony was commenced by singing a psalm, then reading 2 chapters, one in the Bible, the other in the New Testament with a short reflection on the latter. A paraphrase was again sung, the blessing pronounced and the meeting dismissed, The whole was conducted by McCraig, Professor of Geology, who was a passenger on board on his way to America to settle in one of the new states in the far West. The whole was voluntary on his part, as he was not prepared to

give anything like an address. He proposed if spared until next Sabbath to give something at more length.

We were again called below at 7 P. M. where a Mr. --- sang psalms, read and prayed without any explanation. The Captain and his lady attended on both occasions. There was on the whole something sublime as the united chord of voices rose and died away on the evening's breeze on the trackless ocean.

The wind this day was North and by night we were scudding away at 8 knots per hour in a westernly course through the night. The seasickness returned with more than it's usual severity.

1850 June

24th. This was the worst morning of seasickness we had yet. Three fourths of the whole passanger list of 370 were in bed. As the ship was rolling pretty hard the scene between decks was truly painful. I however, escaped clear, although my wife was again taken ill. Before night we had a view of a whale at a distance. It was but very small.

25th. This morning we were again upon a Northwest tack and continued so until night.

26th. The wind being still ahead we were obliged to keep tacking about. We had a sight of about 12 or 14 porpoises. They kept playing about the ship for some time. The porpoise is a short fish, from 5 to 6 ft. long, with a round thick body. The head is tapered with two fins standing up near the head and which are visible as the fish swims. It resembles a little the head of a sow and their flesh is also said to be much the same. The porpoise suckles it's young the same as the whale.

27th. This day the sick had again nearly all recovered, and although we made but little way the weather was beautiful and the time passed pretty cheerfully. There were fiddlers, fifers, and fluters aboard, singers both comic and sentimental. The evenings were generally spent in dancing or singing. There were also other sorts of amusement, such as foot and a half, close feet leaping, pitching draughts, and card playing according to the various tastes of the individuals.

28th. We were this day sailing in a nothernly course as the wind still prevailed from the West. During the course of the day we spied four ships. We had also passed one during the night upon the same tack with us. The Herald was a quick sailer as we soon left the other ship in the distance.

29th. There was a general cleaning amongst the passengers between decks this morning. No fire was allowed to be kindled until the ship was all washed out. All beds and clothes were ordered upon deck and the berths were sprinkled with chloride of lime.

We had also another view of a number of porpoises sporting around the vessel.

30th. Sunday. We were sailing this morning in a westernly course. About 11 o'clock the bell rang summoning the passengers to public worship. On account of the inclemancy of the weather, the morning worship was to be done in the steerage. McCraig performed the service as on the previous Sunday, only he gave us a more lengthy address.

There was a good breeze in the afternoon from the North and we were humming along at 8 knots per hour.

Between 7 and 8 in the evening the bell was again rung for evening prayers but the service was not completed when a circumstance

of a peculiar nature occurred. Itv was this; a Mrs. McQueen from the Parish of Killearn whose berth was along side of ours was taken ill very suddenly, but as she was in an advanced state of pregnancy, the alarm to those who knew her case was not so surprising. A general titter ran through the ship of, at once, mirth and pity, with a mixture of anxiety of what might be the result. However, of this they were not long kept in suspense, for at half past eight, about half an hour only, after she was taken ill, she gave birth to a fine, stout, healthy looking boy.

1850 July
1st. The ocean child and his mother are both doing well. It is rather an unpleasant day on deck, this day. Heavy showers of cold rain are falling in greatv plenty. The wind is again in the West and we are sailing due North.
2nd. We had a strong gale from the West all night and morning. The vessel rolled heavily, so that there was a great commotion amongst water cans, chests and other articles of furniture. When I got upon deck in the morning the Herald was running nearly under bare poles in a northeasternly course. One of the sails had been torn to ribbons during the night. At this time the sea was running pretty high, and although the Herald had very high bulwarks the sea was occasionally breaking overhead. Few of the passengers ventured on deck in the morning. It was so very difficult to keep your equilibrium that theyb preferred their beds to a tumble or a ducking on deck.

About 7 A. M. we discerned a sail far ahead and in 2 hours we were along side of her. She prooved to be the brig, St. Michael of Cork, running on the same tack with us but she was soon left astern. About 12 o'clock we were running South-Southwest. The wind took off during the afternoon and we had a more steady run during the night, but our bed being wet it was rather uncomfortable. I was very sorry to see Mrs. McQueen and her young infant in such a situation. From the rolling and working of the vessel the water gained admittance by some opening in the decks and came dropping down into the beds.
3rd. When I awoke in the morning of the 3rd. of July she was sitting in her bed all drenched with water to the skin, and her young baby in her lap. I was fortunate enough to have a dry bed and I immediately rose and let her into it. It cleared up in the forenoon and the sun shone forth in great splendor, so that there was a general turn out of beds and blankets to be dried. William McQueen had the misfortune to loose a good pair of blankets. They were blown overboard while drying.

This evening the yards of the Herald were squared for the first time since we came out of the channel.(on the 16th. of June.)
4th. This morning is very wet but a good breeze from the East makes the Herald run 7½ knots per hour and everyone looks cheerful. Mrs. McQueen and little Roderick are doing well. I believe he is to be called after Roderick McKindlee, the first mate of the Herald, for his kind attention to them.

2 o'clock, we are now running 10 knots with a sag in the top top sails. The rain is falling in torrents. We met an American

Barque (a 3 master with fore and main masts square rigged and the mizzen mast fore and aft rigged) about 10 in the forenoon but could not make out her name. There is also a ship ahead, (8 o'clock in the evening) The Herald is now making 11½ knots. It is now fair and all on board appear in more than usual cheerfulness.

1850 July
5th. The sun is shining beautifully and we are making 7½ knots. (8 o'clock P. M.) The wind is still Eastwardly and we are making about 6 knots. It is reported that there are 2 cases of smallpox on board. Young Rory and his mother are still doing well.
6th. Considerable excitement was produced amongst the passengers. There were many conjectures to ascertain the species of two or three large, strange animals that passed the ship. About 1 o'clock P. M. we were perfectly becalmed. One of the aforesaid fishes came swimming round the ship. The sea being perfectly calm the life boat was lowered and manned by the first and second mates with 9 seamen. They rowed close up to the animal which was now about 100 yards from the ship. The animal remained until the boat almost touched it. The first mate then struck it with a harpoon but the weapon being too light it had no effect, and the prongs were bent together from the force of the stroke and the hardness of the animal's back. It sank and disappeared immediately. It turned out to be a turtle of a very large size about 6 feet in circumference.

7 o'clock P. M. We are just now (laging) upon the waterand the sailsflapping on the masts but the evening is looking rather gloomy and it's probable that we may have a change before morning.
7th. According to expectation we have a light breeze from the Southeast this morning. A large ship passed us about 10 A. M. on her course for Britain. There were devotions and praises performed on deck as on former occasions, but by another of the passengers I know not his name.

2 P. M. The wind is now blowing pretty hard and we are luffing 9 knots with a reef in our top-sails. 7 P. M. The rain is falling in torrents just now. There is also a smart breeze and all are preparing for a coarse night. We are still making about 8 knots although there are two reefs in out top-sail and one in our main-sail with top Royal and Royal Top Gallant close rolled up. We expect to be at the banks tomorrow.
8th. The wind has fallen considerable since last night. It is Southwest and we are still making good headway. We passed the East Bank of Newfoundland through the night. The wind is a great deal colder as we are approaching the Banks.

The smallpox is spreading amongst the passengers. There are four in the hospital and two other cases besides. The Captain and officers are paying every attention to them, but I am afraid it will spread over the whole ship. Young Rory is doing well and his mother has gotten up and is pretty strong again.

8 P. M. We had another sight of a great school of porpoises some of which were very large. There were also some of them which lifted clear out of the water. They passed close under our stern.

1850 July
9th. The pox is still increasing. There is another man laid up this morning in the hospital. There was a melancholy case this forenoon. A young married woman who had been very ill with the seasickness took the pox on Sunday last, the 7th. Last night she had a miscarriage and this day at 25 minutes to 11 o'clock A. M. she departed this life. There was a rudely constructed coffin immediately looked up and in a short time her mortal remains were brought upon deck by the mate, carpenters and some of the sailors. The coffin was placed on a board upon the bulwarks of the vessel on the starboard side. The whole of the passengers and crew were gathered to behold the last end of all flesh. The English funeral service was then read by one of the passengers and the body was deposited into the deep.

The husband of the deceased appeared very much affected by the case. They had only been married since the 25th. of last May. He appeared to be about 23 and the deceased was said to be only 21. They were both natives of Irland.

We have been sailing due North since 2 P. M. yesterday and the sea breeze is very cold. It is more like a day in March rather than July.

5 P. M. We are now on a Southwest tack. It is still very cold. We are near to the great fishing bank of Newfoundland, and some of the fishing boats are already in sight.

8 P. M. Great schools of porpoises are passing the ship. Attempts are being made by the mate to harpoon some of them but without success. We have also just passed a Portuguese vessel close astern lying at anchor on the bank, employed at the fishing trade. There are also a number of other crafts in the offing similarly employed.

10th. There is little or no wind this morning. A number of the passengers are amusing themselves by fishing. The air is much milder than it was yesterday morning.

7 P. M. We have had a fair wind since noon. Two homeward bound brigs passed us in the forenoon. The pox is still progressing.

11th. 7 A. M. This is a beautiful morning. We have also a fair light breeze

6 P. M. The Herald is now scudding before the wind at 10½ knots per hour. There is no decrease of trouble in the ship yet. Still there is none thought to be dangerous.

8 P. M. Mr. W. Craig, one of the passengers, has been making out a list of articles lost or stolen since we left the Tail of the Bank. They amount to no less than 40 articles. Mr. Craig had an interview with the Captain and there is to be a general search through the ship tomorrow. Meantime there is a watch appointed to prevent any of the articles being thrown overboard. It is to be relieved every 4 hours. Accordingly I volunteered my services and was appointed the first watch.

10 P. M. The wind is beginning to blow a little hard so that although we have three fourths wind the spray is lashing over us. All our light top-sails are furled and still the Herald is dancing over the deep to the tune of 11½ knots per hour. The night being dark the appearance of the sea was beautiful. It seemed as if on fire, sometimes of a bright red color, at

at another of a more livid appearance. At 12 o'clock I was relieved from duty. A little before that time the log was thrown when it was found that we were still only lumming 11½.

1850 July
12th. This morning is rainyand we are again North Northwest. There is no more word of the proposed search. A number of articles have been returned and I think that the matter will never be carried any farther if there are no more things go a missing.

Between 11 and 12 o'clock A. M. we perceived a ship to the windward bearing down upon us. In some time afterwards the approaching ship hoisted a flag of distress, at the sight of which the Herald immediately backed her sails and lay motionless. The wonder and excitement which was produced among the passengers on the approach of the vessel was great. All along the whole side of the Herald next to the coming vessel was lined with anxious spectators and many were the conjectures as to what might be the cause of their distress. At length she bore down close under our stern, a fine, smart looking barque. Captain then hailed her as to what was the matter. He was answered by the first mate that their Captain was sick and that the men had refused to work. At the same time the gig from the Herald had been launched and was now pulling toward her, manned by our first mate and 4 seamen.

By this time the barque had come round on our lee quarter. The sailors were walking on her forecastle, seemingly not the least disconcerted..

In a short time the gig returned to the Herald bringing the first mate of the Sidney on board, (for by this time we had seen her name as she came round.) He had an interview with our Captain in the cabin for a short time. He again returned and our mate went a second time aboard the Sidney.

During his absence we were informed by the Captain that the Sidney of Quebec was bound for London with wood. They had been 17 days out and that the Sidney was a new vessel on her first trip but she had sprung aleak and the men had refused to work any longer at the pumps unless they received more allowance of meat and money for extra work.

In a short time our mate returned and the Herald was again dashing through the waves. The mate afterwards informed us that he found the Captain of the Sidney drunk in the cabin, that the men had been over wrought at the pumps and had absolutely refused to proceed any further but were for returning with the vessel. To this their mate would not agree and hence the result. After some remonstrance by our mate they at last consented to run the vessel into a port in Newfoundland, it being the nearest to where they then were. But although thus promised we could perceive, after our mate left them that the Sidney still remained with her sails unfurled and, so long as we were in sight, continued so.
12th. About 2 P. M. we passed a large homeward bound ship and before night we saw no less than 7 running before the wind.
13th. The wind is again around to the West and we have been making short tacks of 4 hours all day. Mrs. McKinlay is very sick and feverish. The weather is still cold.
14th. Mrs. McKinlay is still very sick but less feverish today. The wind is still West and we are making but little progress.

1850 July the 14th.
We had divine service as formerly in the poop, and prayers in the evening/ The pox has rather abated with the cold weather.
15th. I am happy to state that Mrs. Mckinlay is by the goodness and longsuffering mercy of God considerable recovered. It is a very disagreeable, wet, dark, foggy day, so much so that a man was kept on lookout all day and occasionally blowing a big fog horn. 4 P. M. we were upon St. John Bank.
16th. The fog still continues and the wind is blowing West. We have made but little progress these 2 days. Mrs. Mckinlay is now, thank God, quite whole. The passengers are now becoming anxious to arrive at New York. I am not wearying in the least.
17th. The fog still continues so that the lead is thrown every 2 hours. The last sounding was 45 fathoms. The Captain says that we are not far from land. Some grape and oak leaves were seen floating past but we cannot see 100 yards.
18th. The fog still continues. The pox is on the decrease, but some of them who are in the hospital are, I believe, in a very poor state. The difficulty of cooking victuals on board is extraordinary. It is a morning's work to get a breakfast made. This morning there was a quarrel between a German and a Scotchman about the fire. The Scot would not allow the German to put on his pan, and the latter was as determined that he should have it on. When the Scot laid hold on the pan to put it down the other did the same to prevent him. Between the two some of the water was spilt which so enraged the German that he struck the other on the head with the disputed vessel while the precious contents, only water, fell in a copious shower upon the heads of the combatants. The German was greatly irritated and thundered forth with great volubility about the ears of the astonished youth, sounds to him alike unintelligible and unmusical.
7 P. M. We passed close astern of a fishing boat. They informed us that they were only 18 miles from land and 40 from Halifax.
19th. The fog still continues but not so dense. At 2 P. M. a small schooner passed close athwart our bow. We have dry decks today for the first time these 10 days past.
This was also Market day as it is called. The stores were given out once a week as follows; 7 lbs. of oatmeal, 2½ lbs biscuit, 1 lb. of flour, ½ lb. sugar, ½ lb. molasses and 2 oz. tea. They were ordinary in quality of all sorts.
20th. There is a good breeze from the South. We are sailing at 6½ knots, close reefed. The fog has well cleared off and if the wind is favorable we expect to be in New York by the 23rd. or 24th. There are a number of people sick. Mary Buchanan has been very ill all day. The pox still exists in the ship.
21st. It is a beautiful day this, but almost calm. We have made nothing of it since yesterday. Mary Buchanan is a good deal better.
22nd. The Herald is motionless and the weather is still hazy.
5 P. M. There is a light breeze from the Northwest and we are sailing at 3 knots per hour.
9 P. M. It is a beautiful night and most of the passengers are upon deck. There is not a breath of wind to disturb the surface of the deep. The long (polished) swell moves slowly and

noiselessly along while the silvery rays of the full moon reflect from their crests like a stream of phosphoric fire, which you might trace out to a great distance through the light fog which floated around.

Many are the amusements which are engaged in by the people on board in order to pass away an hour or two in the evening , afte the fatigue of perhaps a sofe day's cooking and baking which is no small undertaking not to speak of airing the beds and other miscellanious duties. There is also something novel in and about these amusements for scarcely a night passes without something new being brought forward by some one of the merry company whose memory is ever on the search for games of boyhood or of bygone years. Last night the performance was a procession. The order of it was as follows; at the head marched the grand masterm walking majestically with a deck scrubber over his shoulder, Then followed the band, consisting of a fife and a water can as a substitute for a drum, next the royal standard, being two pocket handkerchiefs tied to a broom shaft. After it came the people marching in pairs while the rear was brought up with the real order of St. Michael in tin borne triumphantly in the air and by it's side was proudly borne a shaftless broom and some other ornaments of the Royal order.

23rd. I rose this morning about 4 A. M. The sun was shining beautifully but there was no wind and the Herald rose and fell gently on the swell of the ocean but without bringing us one inch nearer our destination. I took the opportunity of having a shower bath of cold sea water by the means of the pump on the forecastle. I felt a great deal refreshed by it and I intend in the future to take advantage of every good morning for that purpose.

2 P. M. The weather has now become nice and warm as we approach the American coast. There has also sprung up a light breeze from the Southeast and we are moving onward a little..

The whole surface of the sea as far as eye can reach is interspersed with numerous small fishing boats rising like specks on the horizon towards the declining sun.

At 4 P. M. it was said by the first mate that land was visible from the rigging with the naked eye, and from the deck by a glass but I can not say that I have seen it yet. There is a large shark hovering along the Herald's side, just now, and the mate is baiting a large hook for him. The breeze has again completely died down and the fog has become more dense since sunset

24th. The weary fog still continues and little or no wind.

At 11 A. M. a Mrs. McDermid was safely delivered of a daughter. They are both doing well.

3 P. M. We observed several large swordfish playing about the ship. There is scarcely a ripple on the waterand the sails are flapping to the mast.

25th. There was a good breeze this morning and we were all in hopes of soon falling in with the pilot boat. Many anxiously looked in the direction in which it was supposed it would make an appearance, but bright Phoebus hid himself in the Western

ocean, yet no pilot came, and we were doomed to another day's disappointment.

1850 July.
26th. I found myself rather unwell.

At 7 A. M. the spirits of all were greatly revived by the appearance of the pilot boat. In half an hour we gave her a hearty vheer. She was a smaftish little thing and glided over the water beautifully.

27th. About 3 in the morning Sandy Hook light appeared above the water and as daylight broke land appeared close by. We kept sailing along the land all day but as I was very unwell I was seldom on deck.

At 8 P. M. we came to anshor in Quarantine 7 miles below the City of New York after a passage of 43 days and 7 hours.

28th. I still continued very sick and symptoms of smallpox began to appear on my arms in the afternoon. My wife went to the Captain and requested him to put me on shore. He came down to where I lay and in a very surly tone ordered me tom be sent forward to the ship's hospital which had just been emptied of it's late inmates by th're being removed to the Marine hospital on shore. To this proposal my wife remonstrated but the Captain swore at her and declared that he would send her along with me. Still she persevered and with tears in her eyes told him that she would not submit to such treatment and insisted that I should be sent on shore to the hospital or if not I should remain where I was. (Be it remembered that the ship's hospital was a miserable, filthy place in the darkest part of the ship, more like a cage for wild beasts than a place for sick people.) My wife, therefo, determined that I would not be sent to it if she could help it, took Duncan McFarlane along with her and went to the first mate, Roderick McKindie, to see if he could do anything for her. The first mate was a fine, pleasant, civil and obliging man, quite a favorite with all on board the Herald during the whole voyage. In fact, had it not been for his kind attention to the passengers there would have been a great deal more unpleasantness. He was brother-in-law to the Captain and had a great deal of influence with him. He therfore told them that he would send me out that night.

So about sunset I got into a small boat and bade farewell to the Herald. I was soon brought on shore and immediately conducted to the smallpox hospital where I remained for 23 days.

The Marine Hospital is a large establishment capable of containing 700 patients. It is under the management of the Commissioners of Immigration and is supported by the maritime trade of New York. All vessels passing up the river pay what is called head money, 5 shillings sterling for each person on board. Coaling vessels exempted . It is situated on the western side of Staten Island and altogether one of the most beautiful sites I have ever seen.

Staten Island is about 15 miles long and 8 broad. It's population is uncertain. It has 3 villages, the principal of which is called Richmond. There are also 2 or 3 public works on the Island, and a great many gentlemen's houses and beautiful cottages all along it's shores. There is an hourly conveyance to and from New York to different ports in it. And upon Sunday these boats

1850 July

are extraordinarily crowded.

It is the county of Richmond and state of New York. The original name of the island was Tomatakahoo. It was bought from the natives for a barrel of rum. During the war of Great Britain with Ameriaa it was occupied by Gen. Washington and was afterwards possessed by the British troops, General (Howie) then commanding that division. He drove Gen. Washington over to Jersey. He also fortified three of the principal heights on the Island and built a gun factory on the northern side of it.

At present there are 3 military stations on it and a bank along the riverside for cannon to be planted upon in the event of an attack upon York from the sea. Such is the information I could learn from my first 3 weeks stay on it. After the first week of my confinement had passed I found the time pass very pleasantly.

The number of vessels from all ports trading in New York is immense, besides the steamboats that ply daily up and down the river. The sight of which is altogether imposing and delightful.

I had but a slight touch of pox but there was one man who came out with the Herald in a fearful state with them. He was 3 weeks badly on board in that filthy hospital and when heb came on shore he had to be rolled up in cotton and oil. I left him in the hospital pretty well recovered. Every attention is paid to the wants of patients in the Marine Hospital and the change from that of the ship's hospital to it can only be known to them who have experienced it.

1850 August

On the 19th of August I left Staten Island for New York in company with a Mrs. Thomson and two children who had had the pox, also passengers of the Herald. She was going to join her husband in Illinois. When we landed in the East River she left me about 4 P. M. in charge of her children and luggage until she would go to the Commissioner of the Marine Hospital to reveive her money which they had received. On her return she lost her way and wandered about the streets not knowing where she went.

Meantime I remained in anxious expectation until past 8 P. M. when I thought it was time to be on the lookout for quarters. But not knowing when she might return I went to inform the police officer in that beat the circumstances of my case, also where she would find me with the children. Not finding one ready by I shouldered one of the children and taking the other by the hand we thus made our entry into the city.

After some time I found a policeman and to him I made known my case. My Scotch accent soon attracted a crowd and I had the pleasure for the first time in my life of calling forth public attention or gaze, any of them you choose. I was soon, however, relieved from this disagreeable position by being sent to the station, where I had to tell my tale anew. After many interrogations it was at last proposed that I should take a stage to Center St. and then find my way to Anthony St. where my wife and Duncan McFarlane had taken rooms and where I intended to go. But here rose another difficulty I had got but one cent in my possession.

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Percy G. Ebbutt, 1886

(Swan Sonnenschein & Co., London)

Voyage - details

the majority of our luggage on board, though there were two cases delayed somewhere, which had to follow on in another steamer. After looking around Liverpool a little we retired for the night to the Union Hotel, and breakfasting early the next morning, went aboard the good ship *City of Brooklyn*, of the Inman Line. Walter and I went on board first with the small luggage, and got it stowed away in our bunks (for we were going to travel steerage as genuine emigrants), and then came up on deck. Well, we waited and waited for the remainder of our party, until we thought we should have to go by ourselves; but just as the ship was off they arrived by the last trip of the tender. We started down the Mersey at eleven o'clock, and arrived the next morning in Queenstown Harbour, where the ship was soon surrounded with bum-boat women, desirous of parting with great quantities of fruit, legs of mutton, fresh butter, eggs, etc. We, having taken in a good supply of apples and the ship a good supply of Irish emigrants besides the mail bags, steam was got up, and we were soon out on the broad Atlantic. A journey across the "Herring-Pond," as our American cousins call this

ocean, has been so often described that it is needless for me to say much about it. We had some rough weather, of course. One night it was so bad that the Irish women were rushing about calling upon the Virgin Mary and all the saints, and making a most tremendous noise. This had no effect apparently, except that it brought the wrath of the steward upon their heads, who told them to "dry up, or he'd lock the hatches on 'em." However, I slept through it all until daybreak, when it still remained very rough, the great waves rushing right over the bulwarks, and drenching every one who attempted to pass along the middle decks. Of course, being in the steerage, we suffered considerable inconvenience at meals, etc., in this rough weather, as we were not provided with such luxuries as swinging tables, that would preserve their equilibrium, such as were in the saloon. It required a little practice before we could get our soup or coffee to take the right direction when everything was at an angle of about forty-five degrees. Our meals were as follows: breakfast, hot rolls, butter, and coffee; dinner, soup, salt-junk, occasionally fresh meat, and potatoes,

varied on Fridays with salt fish (on account of the Catholics), and on Sundays with the addition of plum-duff; for tea, tea or coffee, and ship-biscuits. We all suffered more or less with sea-sickness, but were soon all right, with the exception of Humphrey, who was ill the whole of the time. Our compartment held ten berths around its sides, arranged in two tiers. We all had our places together, although to do that Walter and I had to sleep in one bunk, which was rare fun; for the bunk was so narrow, that when once we were in, there was no turning over or round without a mutual agreement and movement. The other five bunks were occupied by Italians, and one old man, whom we called "the dirty Dutchman," and he was a dirty old man in all truth. He never went on deck once during the whole journey, but laid there in his bunk all day and night, sick or well. We saw very little of interest during the voyage save one or two ships, and a few whales a good distance off. We had a race for two or three days with the steamship *Wisconsin*, and beat her, arriving in New York Harbour a few hours in advance, having accomplished the journey in twelve days.

In passing off the vessel we had to go before the doctor, who had to certify that all arrived in healthy condition; but I guess it was a bit of a farce, for Humphrey was very ill, and upon proper examination after landing, was found to be suffering from typhoid fever. I know the doctor was looking up at the sky when I passed him. I am only surprised that we were not all ill, being cooped up with all those wretched people (there were nine hundred emigrants on board, poor Irish, Dutch, and Italians mostly). But we kept on deck as much as we possibly could. We were landed at Castle Garden, which is a fine Government building where poor emigrants are befriended and lodged previous to being sent west. There is a money exchange bureau at which strangers may exchange their coin for American paper without risk of being cheated, and various other useful accommodation. We only stayed long enough to get our luggage, and then put up at the "Washington Hotel" after sending Humphrey to the hospital.

We spent a fortnight in New York city seeing the sights. We admired the Central Park very much, also some of their fine straight

quantity of oatmeal—a little of the latter mixed with cold water, for a drink, is sometimes relished very much at sea. Red herrings, of superior quality, are good. Well-baked bread will keep for some time; keep a few loaves in a dry part of the provision chest, and they will suffice for your wants for the first few days, till you have recovered from your sea-sickness or laziness, and are able to cook. A good, nicely-spiced currant loaf will keep for weeks; I would recommend you to take a pretty large one. Ginger snaps, or cakes, you will find grateful; gingerbread is good to eat during sea-sickness. Take small quantities of cinnamon and ginger, they are good in a tea-cake. To taste your mouth during sickness, take a few acidulated lozenges and common peppermint. Spanish juice, or liquorice, is useful at sea, for colds; with some it is a preventive of sea-sickness. Apples and oranges are very good. Preserves for making puddings, and 'baking powder,' should not be omitted; without the latter, you will be in a 'fix.' Take a little raspberry vinegar, to mix in your water for drinking; it is not only grateful to the palate, but healthy to the body. Molasses are good at sea, and are much used with boiled rice, &c. Your butter and suet, to keep well, should be packed tightly in jars, the latter cut nicely up, and a little salt mixed up with it. You need not take spirits, except a small quantity of port wine and brandy for medicinal purposes; the less you take the better. Very properly, the ship does not allow you to take above a certain quantity. Very few like biscuits at sea; but of course you will be necessitated to take a few. There is one way I have seen them made into a nice dish. Steep a few in cold water for three or four minutes; take them out, and fry them with a

small quantity of lard or butter and salt in a frying-pan. Some are very fond of them done this way. In making out your stock of provisions, do not take into account those allowed by the ship: provide yourself irrespective of such, and you will not regret it. Instead of living worse on board ship, rather live better than you would on shore. Remember that you are placed in very unfavourable circumstances as regards health, and that great care and attention are requisite."

Information respecting Free and Assisted Passages to the Colonies.

The colonies which at present promote immigration from the United Kingdom by means of their public funds are New South Wales, South Australia, Queensland, Tasmania, New Zealand, Western Australia, the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, and Canada.

New South Wales.—The selection of emigrants for passages to this colony is limited to persons who can pay one-third of the cost, and are of sound health and good character. They must be either married couples not exceeding forty years of age, or single men and unmarried women not exceeding thirty-five years of age. The classes eligible are mechanics, farmers, miners, vine-dressers, labourers, and domestic servants, and a few small working capitalists in any branch of colonial industry. A proportion of the immigrants, not exceeding ten per cent. of the whole, may be German vine-dressers.

The following payments are required to be made by persons selected for passages to this colony, as deposits for bedding and mess utensils:—

1 and under 12 years of age . . .	10s. each.
12 and not exceeding 40 years of age	£1

General Hints to Emigrants, C
Rochwood & Co., London
1, 1875,
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that for which the passages may have been taken, the Governor of the Colony, or the British Consul, is empowered to forward such passengers to their intended destination, if the master of the ship shall not do so within six weeks.

"Passengers are not to be landed against their consent at any place other than the one contracted for, and they are entitled to sleep and be maintained on board for 48 hours after arrival, unless the ship, in the prosecution of her voyage, quits the port sooner."

CHAPTER VI.

THE VOYAGE AND ITS DISCIPLINE.

WHILE much of the comfort of the emigrant during the voyage depends upon himself—the care he takes to procure a proper outfit, of his health, and the cleanliness of berth and person which he maintains—much, doubtless, depends upon the ship and its officers. What has been necessary to be said has been already said in a previous chapter in connection with the ship; a few words may here be useful in connection with its officers. It is scarcely necessary to say that, being "a king" on board his ship, whose word alone is law, the Captain is the principal, and on whose goodness of character, or the reverse, depends much of the comfort of the passengers. It is pleasant to have to write that, as a rule, captains of emigrant ships are kind, considerate, and judicious men, firm in the maintenance of discipline, and yet kind in its administration. There are, however, men precisely the reverse of all this—harsh, unfeeling,

and despotic, and, worse than these, immoral. We had the misfortune to sail to the New World in a vessel commanded by as bad a man morally as could well be met with, and the result of this was a state of matters which were painful in the extreme. It is not often that intending passengers are able to gain correct information as to the character of the captain with whom they propose to sail; yet if they can get it, and find that, however clever he may be in his profession, yet that he is a harsh, unfeeling, or immoral man, we would strongly counsel the emigrant not to go with that ship. It is in no contrary spirit that we say that if he is known to be a "bad living" man, the emigrant may rest assured that he will not be the kind of captain calculated to make the passengers comfortable. We have yet a most painful recollection of the horrors of the voyage we made, where from the captain to the cook all lived in utter defiance of those laws of morality and Christian conduct which alone can secure, as they do secure, happy lives. But while insisting upon the importance of securing good officers in the ship in which the emigrant proposes to sail, we must not the less forcibly impress upon the emigrant himself the necessity there is of maintaining on his own part a good and healthy discipline of moral and religious conduct, without which the best efforts of the best officers will be nearly worthless. It is worth while to remember that while within the confined sphere of "board ship" there is a greater, much more imperative, call for the exercise of those social virtues which make men good and useful neighbours, than there is while on shore; for there is no running away from such circumstances of board-ship life as may crop up from time to time; which cases must be firmly met, if

unpleasant — as not seldom will they be so — in a manly, conciliatory way, so as to render them as easy to all concerned as possible; if pleasant, so met that one's neighbours shall rejoice in them also. While there is of necessity within the confined sphere of a ship much that tries the temper, to the right-thinking mind there will be in like proportion opportunities for the exercise of much that will test the goodness of men. Frequent exercise will there be for the charity of the mind that "thinketh no evil," as well as for that charity which will minister to the material wants of those whose worldly "lives are not cast in pleasant places," for on board every emigrant ship which leaves our shores will be found some, if not many, who are "poor in this world's goods," and to whom it ought to be the duty, as it is the privilege, for those better off to minister. In a word, if the golden rule of Christianity is maintained in force on board an emigrant ship, that ship will be a happy one. "What ye would that men would do to you, do ye so to them."

In order to ensure the maintenance of proper health, so far as rules can ensure that while on board ship, it is essential that order, regularity, and perfect cleanliness of ship and person be maintained, with a due attention to diet, and the condition of the body as regards the performance of its regular functions.

The following is the Order in Council, 7th January, 1864, for promoting order and health in passenger ships to any of Her Majesty's possessions abroad:—

"1. Every passenger to rise at seven A.M., unless otherwise permitted by the surgeon; or, if no surgeon, by the master.

"2. Breakfast from eight to nine A.M., dinner at one P.M., supper at six P.M.

"3. The passengers to be in their beds at ten P.M., except under permission of the surgeon, or, if no surgeon, of the master.

"4. Fires to be lighted by the passengers' cook at seven A.M., and kept alight by him till seven P.M.; then to be extinguished, unless otherwise directed by the master, or required for the use of the sick.

"5. The master to determine the order in which each passenger or family of passengers shall be entitled to the use of the fires. The cook to take care that this order is preserved.

"6. On each passenger deck three safety lamps to be lit at dusk, and kept burning all night, and such further number as shall allow one to be placed at each of the hatchways used by the passengers.

"7. No naked light between deck or in the hold to be allowed at any time, or on any account.

"8. The passengers, when dressed, to roll up their beds, to sweep the decks (including the space under the bottom of the berths), and to throw the dirt overboard.

"9. Breakfast not to commence till this is done.

"10. The sweepers for the day to be taken in rotation from the males above 14, in the proportion of five for every 100 passengers.

"11. Duties of the sweepers to be to clean the ladders, hospitals, round-houses, and water-closets, to pump water into the cisterns or tanks for the supply of the water-closets, to sweep the decks after every meal, and to dry holy-stone and scrape them after breakfast.

"12. But the occupant of each berth to see that his or her own berth is well brushed out; and single women are to keep their own compartment clean in ships where a separate compartment is allotted to them.

"13. The beds to be well shaken and aired on deck,

and the bottom boards, if not fixtures, to be removed, and dry-scrubbed and taken on deck, at least twice a week.

"14. Two days in the week to be appointed by the master as washing days, but no clothes on any account to be washed or dried between decks.

"15. The coppers and cooking vessels to be cleaned every day, and the cisterns kept filled with water.

"16. The scuttles and stern-ports, if any, to be kept open (weather permitting) from seven A.M. to ten P.M., and the hatches at all hours.

"17. On Sunday the passengers to be mustered at ten A.M., when they will be expected to appear in clean and decent apparel. The day to be observed as religiously as circumstances will admit.

"18. No spirits or gunpowder to be taken on board by any passenger. Any that may be discovered to be taken into the custody of the master till the expiration of the voyage.

"19. No loose hay or straw to be allowed below.

"20. No smoking to be allowed between decks.

"21. All immoral or indecent acts or conduct, improper liberties or familiarities with the female passengers, blasphemous, obscene, or indecent language, or language tending to a breach of the peace, swearing, gambling, drunkenness, fighting, disorderly, riotous, quarrelsome, or insubordinate conduct, and also all deposits of filth or offensive acts of uncleanliness in the between decks, are strictly prohibited.

"22. Fire-arms, swords, and other offensive weapons, as soon as the passengers embark, to be placed in the custody of the master.

"23. No sailor to remain on the passenger deck among the passengers except on duty.

"24. No passenger to go to the ship's cook-house without special permission from the master, nor to remain in the forecastle among the sailors on any account."

The following are the clauses of the Passengers' Act referring to the medical department of emigrant vessels:—

"27. A duly authorised medical practitioner (or when the majority, or as many as 300 of the passengers are foreigners, then any medical man), whose name has been notified to the emigration officer at the port of clearance, and not objected to by him, must be carried in the following cases:—

1. When the prescribed length of voyage for sailing ships exceeds eighty days, or for steamers forty-five days, and the number of passengers on board exceeds fifty.
2. When the number of persons on board (including cabin passengers, officers, and crew) exceeds 300.

"29. No 'passenger ship' is to proceed until a medical practitioner, to be appointed by the emigration officer, shall have inspected the medicine chest, passengers, and crew, and certified that the medicines, &c., are sufficient, and that the passengers and crew are free from infectious disease. If no medical man can be obtained to perform this duty, the vessel may sail on obtaining from the emigration officer a written permission for the purpose."

We have said that attention to cleanliness of person is an essential thing to be attended to, although carried out with more difficulty than while on shore. Regularity in meals is also another essential. As a rule, less will

be required in the way of food on board ship than while on land; nevertheless, after the first week or two a steady-going appetite, not at all to be despised or neglected, sets in; indeed at sea the main work of a man is the getting of his meals—they are the centre round which everything revolves. So far as his stock of provisions will enable him to do so, let him secure as much change in the articles and in the way in which they are cooked as possible.

As regards the maintenance of good health, it may be stated that the principal thing to attend to is cleanliness, both of the berth and the person, and further care of the state of the bodily functions. The first great trial with which the majority of emigrants have to contend is sea-sickness. Many things have been recommended for the prevention of this, but none have been successful. After no little experience of it, both in our own and in other cases, we have come to the conclusion that it is one of those maladies which have to be endured rather than cured—at least, that the cure is natural, and comes in its own time. Probably this good time may come all the more rapidly if some palliative measures are adopted. Of these, we know of none better than before going on board to have the bowels in good order by the administration of some opening medicine. If there is any pre-disposition to bile, this should be got rid of before going on board; the more bilious one is on board, the worse will the attack of sea-sickness be, and the longer its duration. A little bit of camphor chewed once a day will frequently act as a palliative, if not as a preventive; in this way also a drop or two of chloroform, or, better still, chloric ether, or of creosote, on a lump of sugar, will be useful. When the sea-sickness has fairly left the emigrant, he will find

frequently that he has got a ravenous appetite. He should be cautious in giving way to this; moderation is indeed essential; for the condition of his bowels will be such that little will be needed to put them out of order. *And in no way can health on board ship be better secured* than by attention to the regular performance of the functions of the bowels. The great disease to be dreaded on board ship is diarrhœa, or, worse still, dysentery. If undue looseness of the bowels should result, let this be attended to at once; on no account should it be allowed to reach a height. To which end the surgeon on board should be applied to at once; or if the emigrant has—as he ought to have—a supply of "chalk medicine," or laudanum, let him take a dose of either one or the other. A dose of 20 to 30 drops of laudanum will be sufficient for a grown-up person.

The bad quality of the water on board ship is most frequently the existing cause of irregularity of the bowels. As little of this should be drunk as possible; but as one is very frequently thirsty on board ship, a capital plan to secure a healthy drink is to fill the tea-pot after the evening or morning meal is done—and in which, of course, the tea-leaves are allowed to remain—with cold water, which is to be used for drinking purposes when required. We considered this to be the happiest discovery we made while at sea; it is surprising how rapidly the tea takes away all bad taste and smell from the water, and how cool and refreshing it feels as compared with the same water drunk in the condition in which it is served out from the ship's stores. Passed through the coffee-pot in which the "grounds" are allowed to remain, the same effect is produced, although not, to our taste, so pleasantly as in the above case. A piece of bread or biscuit highly

toasted, or outside scorched, put into the water, will also take away much of its unpleasant taste, as will also a sprinkling of oatmeal. The addition of any vegetable acid to bad-tasted water will also be beneficial, not only removing the bad taste which ship-board water always has, but will prevent the attack of scorbutic affection induced by long living upon salt or dried provisions. For this purpose a little vinegar may be used, a piece of citric acid crystal dissolved in it, or the juice of a lemon squeezed into it. Vinegar is given out as part of the daily ration, but ship-board vinegar, if of the quality which we had portioned to us, is little better than water so far as strength goes. We would strongly counsel the taking of a bag of "lemons;" they cost very little, and no one but he who has been at sea long can have any idea how gratefully refreshing lemon-juice is. To these a box or two of Seidlitz powders may be added, an ounce or two of Gregory's powder, a box of antibilious and rhubarb pills, and the emigrant's medicine or health chest may be considered complete enough. So far as such simple medicines are concerned, it is better to be independent of the ship's medicine-chest. The following may be an interesting conclusion to this chapter as bearing upon some of the points alluded to in it, and upon those which will be taken up in the opening of the next chapter.

"My First Day in America.—We dropped anchor at two o'clock in the morning, on the first day of June, 18—, off Sandy Hook, Long Island. Wakened up from a confused sleep (by the noise of a set of noisy emigrants, who, overjoyed at the near prospect of landing, had kept up, in fine style, from an early hour the night previous, various entertainments, as singing and dancing), I heard the quick run out of the chain cable,

announcing the welcome fact that the anchor of the good ship *Liffey*, with 500 emigrants on board, bound for the land of freedom, had at last found a resting-place in American soil.

"After a second and more successful attempt at sleep, the noisy fellows having crawled off to bed thoroughly exhausted with their efforts; I rose between the hours of five and six, washed and dressed myself in the easy style of a true emigrant, who has no great regard to the conventionalities of shore life. Having speedily concluded my toilet, I went on deck, but instead of the fair sunny morning I so ardently wished for, I was disappointed to find a thick white fog closely enveloping us, preventing us from distinguishing anything like land. A good many were on deck, earnestly gazing out for a glimpse of it; but the fog was one of your thick, lazy fellows, that seemed to have no desire to move speedily off. At last, after a serious discussion, and grave speculations as to whether we would really get up to the city that day, we heard a steam-boat paddling near, which, to our great joy, was soon seen approaching us. Though presenting a curious sight, with her galleries, and the little boxes perched at either end, high above all, for the steersman, we hailed her approach with unsophisticated joy. Coming alongside, her skipper appeared on the upper deck, and commenced a parley with our captain and pilot. A bargain to tow us up was evidently the subject of discussion, as *we*, who were not among the privileged ones who were allowed to go aft, could gather from a stray word wafted now and then towards us. I can tell you, no set of men ever watched the progress of a discussion with more anxiety than we; for after being tossed on the Atlantic for more than six weeks, now, while

"From the above date was introduced the system still in use amongst bakers, of making a ferment with potatoes for raising dough, instead of what was termed quarter-sponges."

(3.) "The following is a good *substitute for brewers' yeast*, and will be found practically useful:—Boil one ounce of hops in four quarts of water, until the hops fall to the bottom of the pan; strain it, and when milk-warm add six ounces of flour and five of sugar; set the mixture by the fire, stirring it frequently; in forty-eight hours add four pounds of potatoes, boiled and bruised fine; next day bottle the yeast—it will keep a month. One-fourth of yeast and three of warm water is the proportion for baking."

(4.) "Persons who are in the habit of making their own bread can easily manufacture their own yeast by attending to the following directions:—Boil one pound of good flour, a quarter of a pound of brown sugar, and a little salt, in two gallons of water for an hour: when milk-warm, bottle and cork it close, and it will be fit for use in twenty-four hours. One pound of this yeast will make eighteen pounds of bread."—J. Mc I., Hillsborough, in *Gardeners' Chronicle*.

(5.) "To remove the bitterness from yeast produced from highly hopped beer, put a glowing (red hot) lump of charcoal, about the size of a large hen's egg, in say a pint of bitter yeast, and after giving the yeast a good stir, strain it through a fine horse-hair sieve, when it will become perfectly palatable."—*Gardeners' Chronicle.*

Potato Pie.—When what may be called the available meat is taken from ribs or sirloins of beef at the table, there remains much on the bones that will make a good dinner by using it as follows:—Pare the meat off the bones, break the latter and put them in a pan,

cover with water and boil for several hours, replacing the water as it wastes, taking care not to have much more than half a pint of gravy in the pan when required. Pare and well wash nearly as many potatoes as the family will require. Make a paste of flour and dripping, a little salt, sufficient to cover the dish to be used; roll out a part of the paste and cut into narrow strips, wet the edge of the dish and put on the strips of paste; cut the potatoes in bits and put in the dish, which should be a deep one; season to taste, with pepper and salt; cut the meat in small pieces, and put it on the top of the potatoes; put in a teacupful of the gravy from the bones; roll out the remainder of the paste the size of the dish; wet the strips round the edge, and put on the cover, pressing down with the thumb to make the two adhere together; pare the paste neatly off round the edge of the dish. Make a ball the size of half an egg with what is pared off, cut half way through to form a cross, fix on the top in the centre, bake in a brisk oven an hour or longer according to size, taking care the paste does not get burnt. When baked cut the cross neatly out, and pour in the gravy by means of a sauce-boat; replace the cross and send to table. If the flavour of an onion is liked, one can be peeled and shred fine, and added at the time the pie is being made.

"*Sheep's Head and Barley Broth.*—Take a sheep's head, wash it well, cut out the tongue, take the brains and put them in salt and water for an hour; put the head and tongue in a pan with five quarts of water; add half a pound of Scotch barley well washed (to take off the musty taste), three carrots, three turnips, three onions (all cut in small pieces), and a bunch of sweet herbs; let it boil two hours; half an

hour before the time be expired add a good spoonful of oatmeal mixed with a pint of water to thicken it. There ought to be a gallon of good broth. Boil and chop the brains, add to them a little of the broth, dried sage, pepper, and salt, which with the tongue will be an addition to the head, and dine four persons."

"*Take two pounds of Loin of Mutton,* cut off the fat, and dissolve it in the oven to make paste for pies; take the lean mutton, and put it in a pan with three half-pints of water; add pepper and salt, three large carrots, three turnips, three onions (all cut in pieces), and a bunch of sweet herbs tied together; cover well up, and stew for one hour and a half; take out the herbs."

"*Suet Dumpling.*—One pound of flour, six ounces of suet chopped fine, mixed with cold water to a very light paste; put in a floured cloth, tie up, and boil one hour and a half."

"*Fresh Herrings Pickled.*—Take six herrings, clean and wash them; season with pepper and salt; put them in a steam pot, and pour over them six tablespoonfuls of vinegar, fill up with water; cover them, and bake them in the oven till the herring will leave the bone. They will keep several days, and are good eaten cold with bread and potatoes."

"*To Cook Sheep's Pluck.*—Take a sheep's pluck, wash it, put it in a deep dish; shred two fine onions, and chop them with a handful of sweet herbs; add a grated crust of bread, a handful of chopped suet, and as much milk as will make the ingredients into balls, which put into the dish with a pint of water, dust flour over the whole, and bake one hour and a half."

Another way, which is much more thrifty and palatable. Separate the heart, liver, and lights from the windpipe, &c., wash them, put the lights in a good

seized pan with water and a little salt; let them boil two hours, taking off the scum as it rises; when boiled take them out of the pan, cut one-half in slices, and the other half chop very fine; dust a little flour in and pepper, a handful of chopped parsley, a large onion shred fine, and a little bunch of thyme; put the minced and sliced lights with the herbs in a deep dish, with a quarter of a pound of bacon cut in slices, cover well with the liquor the lights were boiled in; bake in a hot oven for an hour; twenty minutes before serving cut half the liver in slices and put in the dish, with a little more of the liquor if there be not sufficient gravy. The above is a very nice dish, and with potatoes makes a good dinner for a family. The day following stuff the heart with a little chopped suet, a few crumbs of bread and sweet herbs, put in a dish, strew a little suet over, and roast in the oven, or in a dutch oven before the fire. Cut the remaining half of the liver in slices and fry with a few slices of bacon; when the liver and bacon are fried lay them round a flat dish, dust a little flour in the pan, and as much water as will make the gravy the consistency of good cream, adding pepper and salt to taste; pour this into the dish, and place the roasted heart in the centre.

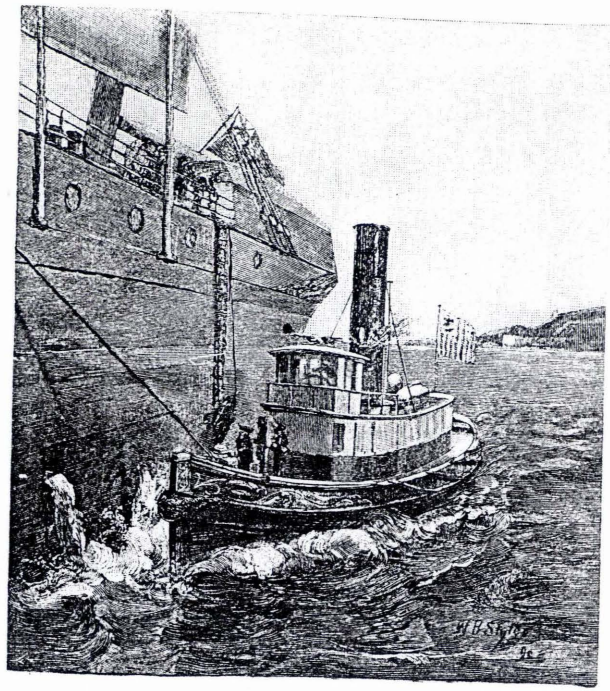
A profitable and tasty way to prepare a shin of beef is to cut off the best part of the meat in thick slices, place them in a stew-pot with six or eight cloves, three or four cayenne pods, three or four onions, dust in a little flour, add a little salt, and cover with hot water, put on the cover, and bake in a moderate oven from three to four hours.

Then put the bones with what meat remains on them in a large stew-pot or mug, cover well with water and put in a little salt, stew in a cool oven till the

Ocean Steamships, Chadwick et al, 1892, John Murray, London

full uniform, supported by his officers, reads the Church of England services, to which all on board are invited. American and British holidays are also observed in a fitting manner, the vessels being always "dressed" for the occasion. These lines also have a parting dinner, usually one or two evenings before arrival in port.

All incoming steamers are signalled off Fire Island or Sandy Hook, their arrival is telegraphed to the Quarantine station and the ship-news office, and in about three hours the vessel reaches Quarantine from Fire Island, or about one hour from Sandy Hook. At Quarantine the health officer boards her, and if it is found that she has no case of contagious disease on board she is permitted to proceed to her dock, which she reaches in about one hour and a half, including the time of examination by the health officer; but if she has any serious case on board she is detained at Quarantine until she receives orders from the health officer to land her passengers. As soon as the vessel is reported inside Sandy Hook the revenue cutter starts down the bay to meet her, with the customs officers on board. The boarding officer places several staff officers on board, who go immediately to the saloon, where declarations are made and signed by the saloon passengers as to the contents of their trunks, etc., and all baggage is searched on arrival of the vessel at her dock, when those who attempt "monkeying" with the customs officials will find out that the little trick does not pay.



Revenue Officer Boarding, New York Bay.

Mitchell Library D 116298

Meantime, how do the steerage folk get on?

Mention has been made of the British Government bill of fare. This was instituted when clipper ships were in vogue. It was ordered that a minimum weekly allowance of raw food should be provided for every adult third-class passenger as follows:

3½ pounds bread, or biscuit, not inferior in quality to navy biscuit; 1 pound flour; 1½ pound oatmeal; 1½ pound rice; 1½ pound peas; 1¼ pound beef; 1 pound pork; 2 pounds potatoes; 2 ounces tea; 1 pound sugar; ½ ounce mustard; ¼ ounce ground black pepper; 2 ounces salt; 1 gill vinegar.

A government inspector saw to it that these items or their equivalents were provided upon the departure of every ship carrying third-class passengers, and that no ship went to sea without being provisioned for thirty days. The allowance, however, proved not to be altogether generous, and many passengers brought stores of their own along. In any event, each passenger had to prepare his own meals at the cook's galley, for the number of cooks furnished was always insufficient. The kitchen is never commodious at the best, aboard ship, and it needs no imagination to picture the struggle of immigrants, one against another, for a turn at the fire. The government requisition is still in force, but it is substantially a dead letter, for not only the British but all European steamship companies now provide ample fare properly cooked and served, for all steerage passengers.

A young man who crossed in the steerage last year described his fare to the writer, thus: "At breakfast," he said, "we usually had oatmeal porridge and molasses, with coffee in plenty, and rolls and butter. This was varied by hash instead of porridge on some days, or perhaps an Irish stew; but fresh baked rolls and butter were always in abundance. There was always soup at dinner, and some boiled

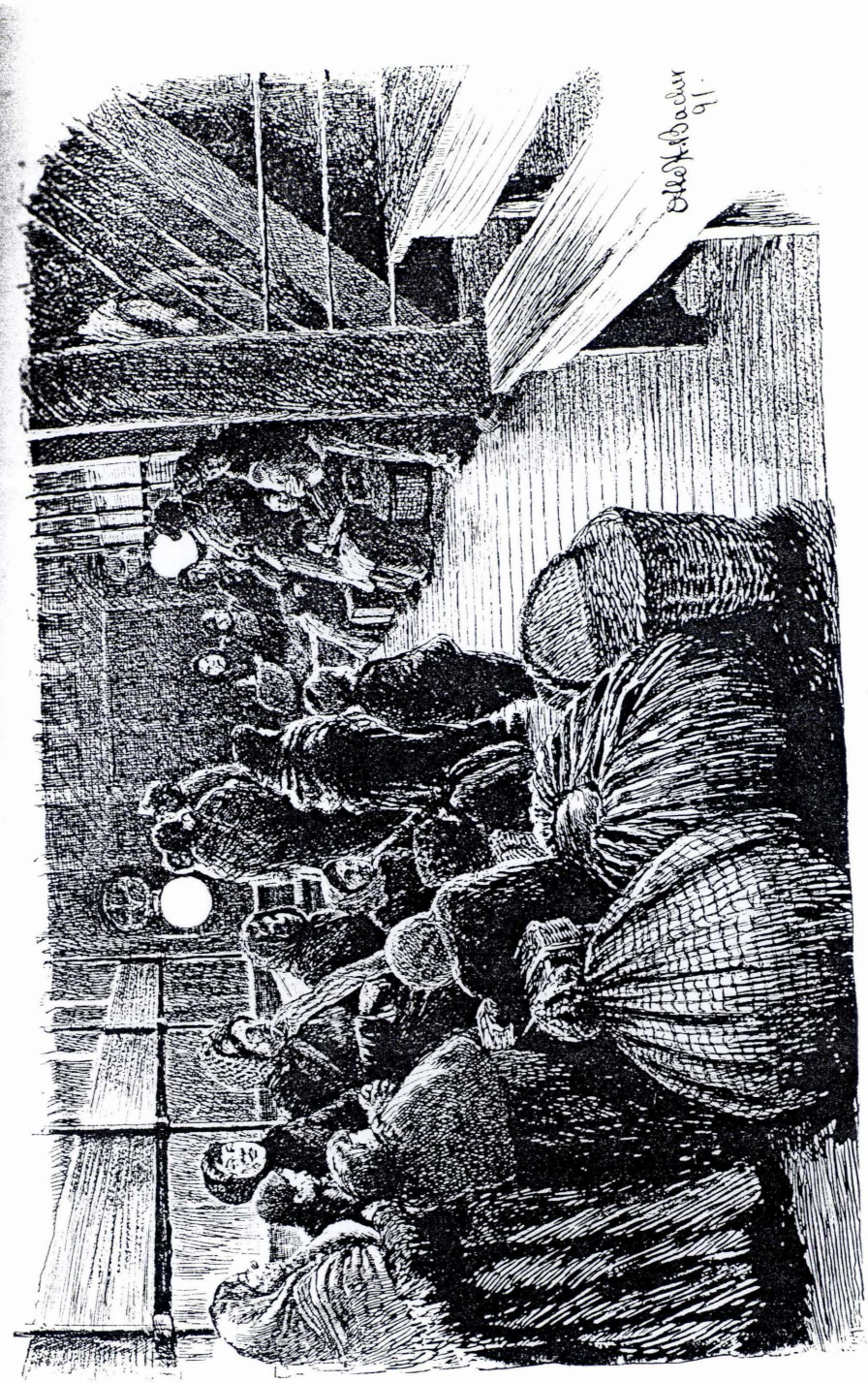
beef, pork, or fish with potatoes and bread. Supper did not amount to much, but there was plenty of plain, good stuff to eat. Roast beef and plum duff were served at Sunday's dinner."

This food was served to the steerage passengers by stewards, but there was no placing of dishes opposite the passenger's plate. The general meal was set down in the middle of the table, and "help yourself" was the order of the day. The steerage passengers do not cook their own food now, but they have to provide their own cups, plates, and other utensils, as well as their own bedding.

All captains of passenger steamships are scrupulously attentive to the needs of their steerage passengers. Not a day passes that they do not make a personal inspection of this department, and they are always approachable in the event of complaints arising on the part of the poorest travellers. It is related of one old-time commander—Captain John Mirehouse—that in order to assure himself of the proper quality and preparation of the steerage food, he invariably had his lunch served from the steerage galley at the dinner hour; and he used to declare that his lunches were as wholesome and palatable as he could desire.

It must not be supposed that steerage passengers are all immigrants. Odd as it may seem, there are many world wanderers who cross and recross in the steerage, who travel over great parts of the world, and who, in their class, are as independent as the more luxuriously accommodated cabin people. Besides these curious characters there are Scottish carpenters and other mechanics who come over here for a few months at a time to take advantage of higher wages, and who return as they came when Christmas draws nigh. It will doubtless cause astonishment to most readers to learn that when the Teutonic made her last voyage to Europe, in December, 1890, she carried 1,400 passengers, more than 1,000 of whom were in the steerage.

The immigrant business has come to be so important a feature in transatlantic passenger traffic, that it may not be uninteresting to conclude this article with a few figures that show somewhat of its



In the Steerage.

growth and proportions, and also the method of handling the immigrants. At least eighty-five per cent. of all immigration to the United States comes through the port of New York. The Board of Immigration was not established until 1847, and previous to that time records were rather loosely kept. The official figures, however, have been obtained,* showing that between 1783 and 1847, 1,063,567 immigrants came to this country; between 1847 and 1873 there were 4,933,562; a marked falling off in the annual average occurring during the War of the Rebellion; between 1873 and 1890, inclusive, 4,910,864. Immigration was heaviest in the years 1881, 1882, and 1883, the figures being 441,064; 455,450; and 388,267, respectively. The greatest arrival of immigrants in any one day was on May 11, 1887, when nearly 10,000 were landed at this port. The greatest number ever brought by a single ship was 1,767, by the Egypt, National line, in 1873. This good ship was destroyed by fire, July, 1890, in midocean, on her way to the eastward, but fortunately not a life was lost.

On the arrival of each vessel at her dock she is boarded by the Immigration Department boarding officer, and the Customs inspector and his assistants; the latter examine the immigrants' baggage, and sometimes add considerable to Uncle Samuel's bank account in the way of duties or the confiscation of smuggled articles. Their baggage is then checked and placed on board the transfer boats and barges, which convey them to the Barge Office, where they are examined by a medical staff and then passed to the registration department in that building; here they give their name, age, occupation, nationality, and destination; if they appear as though they were liable to become a public charge, in compliance with an Act of Congress, they are returned, by the same vessel on which they arrived, to the place from which they came. But an opportunity is given to their friends, if any should call, to guarantee that they will not become a public charge, and they are then allowed to leave the depart-

* Through the courtesy of Mr. George W. Esslinger, assistant to Captain John E. Moore, landing agent.

ment in the custody of their friends. Parties seeking friends call at the information bureau, and if they satisfy the clerk as to their identity they are allowed to take their friends away. On leaving the steamship checks are given to them for their baggage, and it is stored at the Barge Office free of charge, and kept till called for.

There is a railroad ticket office in the Barge Office, where all the trunk lines are represented by one general agent, a sort of pool, and here the immigrant can secure tickets to any point and have baggage checked to destination; and at no other place can tickets be procured at such low rates, nor can anyone but an immigrant get such a low rate. Each immigrant is allowed 150 pounds of baggage free, and the railroad companies transfer them and their baggage from the Barge Office to their respective depots free of charge.

A temporary hospital is located in the Barge Office, where immigrants not seriously ill are kept, and those who may have any serious illness are sent to hospitals under contract with the department for such patients.

Each steamship company was formerly required to pay to the United States Treasury a head tax of $2.50 for each alien steerage passenger; this fee was reduced to $1.00, and some years ago it was still further reduced to fifty cents, the present rate. This tax goes to what is known as the Immigrant Fund.

In conclusion I might truly say that the modern ocean steamship of the great lines I have mentioned is the embodiment of the latest achievements of science and art of this enlightened age. So recent are many of the inventions that such a ship as the City of Paris or the Majestic could not have been built ten years ago at any price. The practical effect of all this to the traveller is to bring him very much nearer to the Old World than his father was, and to make the time spent in crossing the once dreaded ocean a delightful series of summer holidays.

since 1945, as has been the case with Irish Americans, most Scotch-Irish have grown increasingly indifferent to the old country. The sectarian strife in Northern Ireland during the past decade has not evoked any marked response; when the Reverend Ian Paisley, the fiery leader of extreme Ulster Protestantism, visited the United States in 1969 to publicize the Ulster cause, he aroused less enthusiasm among the Scotch-Irish than among conservative southern Fundamentalist churchmen, who saw him as an anti-Communist crusader.

Nevertheless, when in 1972 a subcommittee of the House of Representatives Committee on Foreign Affairs held hearings on Northern Ireland and the U.S. role there, a variety of Scotch-Irish organizations—the Scotch-Irish Foundation, the Loyal Orange Order of the United States, Ulster American Loyalists, and the Northern Ireland Service Council—appeared before it or submitted statements. Their purpose was to extol the Scotch-Irish record in America, to draw attention to Ulster's role in World War II, and to dispute allegations of discrimination against Catholics in Northern Ireland. Although such organizations do not appear to have had any substantial following, their mere existence indicates some survival of Scotch-Irish ethnic self-consciousness.

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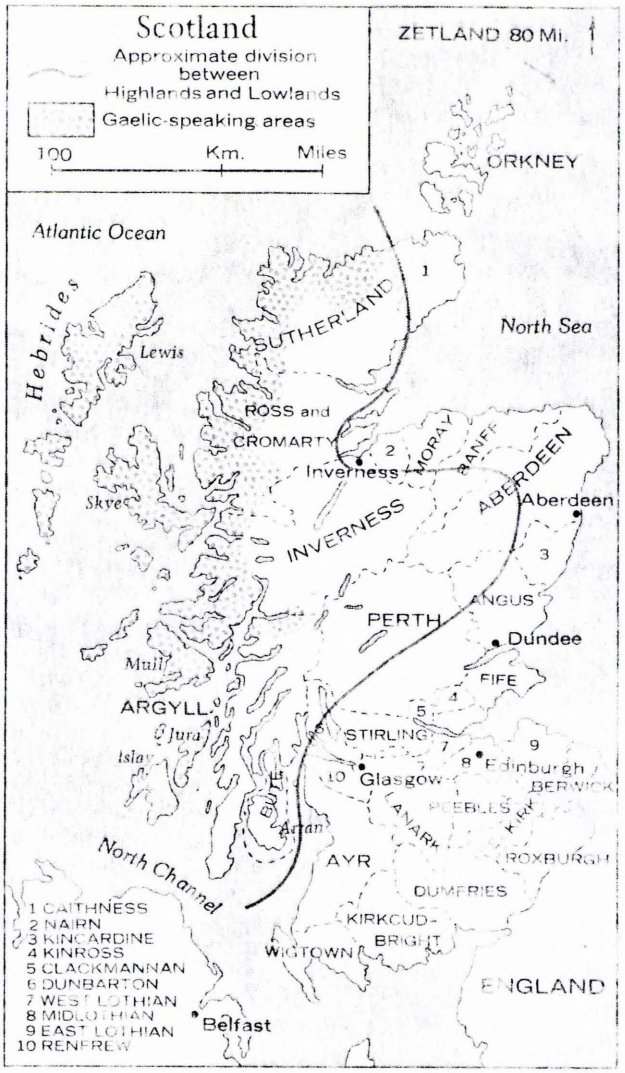
The most satisfactory general account, valuable for its careful background treatment, is the dispassionate study by James G. Leyburn, *The Scotch-Irish: A Social History* (Chapel Hill, N.C., 1962). A useful supplement is Edward R.R. Green, ed., *Essays in Scotch-Irish History* (London, 1969). Despite being uncritically eulogistic and excessively political, two older general works are still worth consulting: Charles A. Hanna, *The Scotch-Irish: Or, the Scot in North Britain, North Ireland and North America*, 2 vols. (1902; reprint, Baltimore, 1968); and Henry J. Ford, *The Scotch-Irish in America* (1915; reprint, Hamden, Conn., 1966). For an analysis of the Ulster background and the organization of the emigrant traffic, see Robert J. Dickson, *Ulster Emigration to Colonial America, 1718–1775* (London, 1966). Interesting material on American aspects of the 18th-century movement appears in Edward R.R. Green, "Scotch-Irish Emigration: An Imperial Problem," *Western Pennsylvania Historical Magazine* 35 (December 1952): 193–209; and Desmond Clarke, *Arthur Dobbs, Esquire, 1689–1765; Surveyor-General of Ireland, Prospector, and Governor of North Carolina* (Chapel Hill, 1957). Wayland F. Dunaway, *The Scotch-Irish of Colonial Pennsylvania* (Chapel Hill, 1944), though marred by extravagant claims, is the most detailed account of the Scotch-Irish in their favorite colony. A similar focus is employed in Guy S. Klett, *Presbyterians in Colonial Pennsylvania* (Philadelphia, 1937). A vivid picture of Scotch-Irish settlements in the Southern backcountry is to be found in Carl Bridenbaugh, *Myths and Realities: Societies of the Colonial South* (1952; reprint, New York, 1965). William F. Adams, *Ireland and the Irish Emigration from 1815 to the Famine* (New Haven, 1932), the most thorough analysis of the early 19th-century movement from Ireland, devotes much space to Ulster and the Scotch-Irish. Details of the 19th-century emigrant traffic from Londonderry may be found in Sholto Cooke, *The Maiden City and the Western Ocean* (Dublin, 1960).

The main collections of primary materials are in the Public Record Office of Northern Ireland and the Linen Hall Library, both in Belfast; the Presbyterian Historical Society and the Historical Society of Pennsylvania, both in Philadelphia; the New York Historical Society; the North Carolina State Department of Archives and History, Raleigh; the University of North Carolina Library, Chapel Hill; and the Library of Congress.

MALDWYN A. JONES

SCOTS

Scottish settlement in America began in the earliest colonial days and has continued ever since. Although immigration statistics are lacking for early periods and are imperfect for later ones, the total number of Scottish immigrants can with some confidence be said to



have approached 1.5 million. Americans who have Scottish ancestry seldom seem to forget the fact, and the activities of numerous societies that aim at keeping alive an awareness of the Scottish heritage are a conspicuous feature of American life. A glance at place names on a map or in a gazetteer indicates the widespread nature of Scottish influence in the United States—though not always as a direct result of actual settlement. There are eight Aberdeens, eight Edinburghs, and seven Glasgows; eight places bear the name Scotland. A great many places are known by Scottish surnames—Campbell (10), Cameron (16), and Douglas (9)—though the second and third of these are place names in Scotland as well. Crawford—again both a place name and a personal name in Scotland—seems to hold the record, with about 30 appearances on the map of the United States. There are well over 100 place names beginning with "Mac" or "Mc," from McAdams, Miss., to McWilliams, Ala.

MIGRATION IN THE COLONIAL PERIOD

There have been Scots in America almost as long as Europeans have populated the continent. When the first

permanent English settlement was made in 1607, England and Scotland had for four years shared a monarch, James VI (Scotland) and I (England). In 1607–1608 full rights as nationals in both countries were granted to all Englishmen and Scotsmen born after 1603. Before this act a number of Scots had migrated to England and had been naturalized there, and at least one Scot, Thomas Henderson, was among the original settlers in Virginia. As Scots ceased to be aliens in England and in English dominions overseas, Scottish settlers began to find their way to all the English colonies.

Although Scotland and England shared a common sovereign from 1603, they continued to have separate parliaments and administrations until 1707, when they entered into a freely negotiated treaty to form the United Kingdom. It was therefore open to the Scots to plant colonies of their own in the New World, following the example not only of England but of France, Holland, and Sweden, as well as Spain and Portugal. From 1620 onward a series of proposals were made for settlement in America, and small colonies, mostly short-lived, were established in Nova Scotia (1629), East Jersey (eastern and northern New Jersey, 1683), and South Carolina (1684), as well as the better-known settlement of New Caledonia at Darién, near Panama (1698). The East Jersey and South Carolina ventures served partly as refuges for religious dissidents—in the former case Quakers, who then suffered vexatious treatment in Scotland as in England, and in the second case, Presbyterians, who were liable to prosecution because at that time the Church of Scotland had an Episcopal constitution.

However, the movement of Scots across the Atlantic was slow to gather momentum. Scots already had a long and strong tradition of migration to other European lands and throughout the Middle Ages had wandered far and wide as pilgrims, scholars, soldiers, and traders. Some Scots had been colonists within the British Isles in the later 16th and early 17th centuries; some migrated from southern Scotland to the West Highlands, the Hebrides, Orkney, and Shetland, and many more moved across to Ulster, which has been called the most successful Scottish colony of all time. Some 50,000 Scots are said to have settled there by 1650, to become the ancestors of the Scotch-Irish, who later contributed to some of the apparently Scottish aspects of American life. (*See* Scotch-Irish.) It was not easy, therefore, to popularize the idea of emigration to America, especially when continental wars were still offering great opportunities to those energetic Scots who felt that they had insufficient prospects in their own country and preferred to follow the old habit of taking service in foreign armies. In fact, in the early proposals for Scottish colonies across the Atlantic, much of the initiative came from somewhat unrepresentative Scots who had been to some extent Anglicized in culture and outlook and were in close touch with English colonizing enthusiasts.

A fair number of the Scots who did reach America in the 17th century did not go of their own volition but were deported as criminals, as economic failures, or as members of the losing side in civil or ecclesiastical strife. The system of deportation, then and long afterward called transportation, involved forced labor in a colony for a term of years, a recognized mode of punishment. Three times between 1648 and 1651 Scottish armies were defeated by the forces of Oliver Cromwell, and on each occasion several hundred prisoners were sent to America. The Scottish government had contemplated transportation as a form of punishment as early as about 1620 and had recourse to it after 1660 to deal with some of the recalcitrant Presbyterians as well as with criminals: in 1685, for instance, nearly 200 persons, some of them guilty of participation in a rebellion led by the Earl of Argyll, were deported from Scottish jails to East Jersey. Although this element of compulsion was an important one, other Scots did go freely to find employment in the colonies, especially to Virginia, as traders or tobacco workers. By 1700 the Scots can be said to have established a tradition of voluntary settlement in America.

In the 18th century over 1,400 Jacobites defeated in the rebellions of 1715 and 1745 and criminals were transported overseas, but from the 1730s voluntary emigration became far more significant. Very likely the parliamentary union of England and Scotland in 1707, which brought the two peoples closer together and opened up free trade between Scotland and the colonies, encouraged Scots to look to America as a land in which they had a right to settle, but economic and social factors also stimulated emigration, especially in the Highlands, which were still very much a distinct entity.

The east and south of Scotland, constituting the Lowlands, were inhabited by people partly of Teutonic origin and speaking a Teutonic tongue—the form of English that became Lowland Scots—while the Highlands of the center and west were the home of a Celtic population, speaking the Gaelic that had come from Ireland in the 6th century and was still called "Irish" by the Lowlanders. The barren Highlands had probably never been self-supporting. In earlier times their meager produce had been supplemented by armed raids on the more fertile and prosperous Lowlands, but when the extension of law and order made such raiding impossible, it became evident that the Highlands had more people than the land could sustain. Simultaneously, and partly for the same reason, the maintenance of clans as bodies of fighting men ceased to be necessary. This change depressed the status of the tacksmen, large leaseholders who served as the chiefs' lieutenants in organizing the subtenants as the military rank and file of the clans. Among the earliest Highland emigrants, therefore, were tacksmen who had in effect been driven out of business at home.

In the 1760s emigration from the Highlands increased, and the reason often given was the raising of rents. The total Scottish emigration between 1763 and 1775—the first period for which any estimate can be made—has been put at about 25,000. While a handful of the migrants went to Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island, the great majority settled in the thirteen colonies. At the time of the American Revolution most Scottish colonists, not least the Highlanders, seem to have been loyalists. Afterward a good many of them, declining to live in a country that was no longer under the British crown, left the United States, either to settle in Canada or to return to Scotland. Even so, people of Scottish stock (some of them, however, really Scotch-Irish) still made up over 6 percent, or some 260,000 of the population of the United States in 1790.

19TH- AND 20TH-CENTURY MIGRATION

After the Revolution the main destination was Canada, which long remained the most serious competitor of the United States as a receiving area for Scottish, as indeed for other British, emigrants. Britain's war with France (1793–1815), which toward its close also involved war with the United States, caused further interruption in the outward flow from Britain. After peace was restored, however, emigration again became substantial. There was a period of economic depression, unemployment, and unrest in the Lowlands, while in the Highlands the introduction of extensive sheep farming forced a large-scale dispersal of tenants. Although at this stage few of them went directly overseas, their uprooting started a movement that ultimately often led to emigration.

The 1840s—the hungry forties—again brought difficult conditions: failure of the potato crop in the Highlands made imperative the reduction of population living on the margin of subsistence there. In the Lowlands, too, there was much distress, unemployment, and agitation. Organized migration overseas was often the remedy to these problems. The interest of emigrants, however, continued for some time to focus on Canada. The continuous official record of immigration to the United States begins in 1819 and shows that between 1820 and 1851 the number of Scots arriving very seldom reached four figures in a year and was sometimes less than 100. The total over the period was only 10,525. From 1852 onward, however, the annual number was nearly always several thousand, and the lead of Canada over the United States was much reduced. All along, it must be remembered, some immigrants to Canada later moved to the United States.

Clearly the 1850s represent a turning point in Scottish immigration to the United States. Biographical data for some 7,000 Scottish immigrants who arrived over an extended period ending in 1854 make it possible to present a sample of their origins, places of settlement, and occupations. In 5,737 cases the place of origin is reasonably certain, and no part of Scotland was unrepresented. Table 1 gives the percentages of emigrants from various areas, and for comparative purposes, the percentages of the Scottish population in each area. With allowance for counties that were partly Highland and partly Lowland, especially Dunbarton, Argyll, Perth, and Caithness, the figures represent a migration of roughly 45 percent from the Highlands and 55 percent from the Lowlands. The Highlands must therefore have produced more than their due proportion, for they contained not much more than a third of the population of the country. The proportions, of course, were not constant over the long period to which the figures relate. Most likely the majority of the 18th-century emigrants were from the Highlands, and the Lowland preponderance was due largely to emigration after 1815.

Table 1. Region of origin of 5,737 Scottish settlers in the United States from colonial times through 1854.

Region	Percentage of Scottish population	Percentage of Scottish emigration
Edinburgh and Lothians	12.5	10.6
Eastern borders	4.5	4.4
Glasgow, Lanark, Renfrew, and Ayr	24.2	21.7
Southwest	7.2	8.9
Fife, etc.	6.8	4.5
Stirling and Dunbarton	4.7	3.1
Aberdeen, Kincardine, and Angus	15.0	5.5
Perth	6.9	8.7
Inverness	4.5	9.3
Ross and Cromarty	3.5	3.7
Argyll	4.9	13.9
Sutherland, Caithness, Orkney, and Shetland	5.3	3.1

Source: Donald Whyte, *Dictionary of Scottish Emigrants to the U.S.A.* (Baltimore, 1972).

After 1852 the number of Scots entering the United States only twice fell below 1,000 a year and even in the 1850s and 1860s often totaled more than 5,000 annually. From 1870 onward the annual figures commonly exceeded 10,000 and in 1910 reached 20,000. In the half century following 1870, the ascendancy of the United States not only over Canada but over all other receiving areas was established; 53 percent of all Scottish emigrants went to the United States, though in some phases, notably at the beginning of the 20th century, Canada occasionally again received more Scots. A total of 478,224 Scots entered the United States between 1852 and 1910.

But greater emigration was still to come. An important factor in stimulating emigration had, of course, always been economic depression, and there had been decades before World War I when more than 200,000 Scots left their homeland—217,418 in 1881–1891 and 254,042 in 1901–1911. But all previous records were easily surpassed by the 391,903 Scottish emigrants in the years of severe depression between 1921 and 1931. The magnitude of the crisis is shown by the fact that this decade is the only one on record when Scotland's population dropped (by 40,000); even in the hungry forties it had increased by 270,000. As unemployment was mainly in heavy industry and textiles, most of the emigrants now came from industrialized areas. The United States continued to be the principal magnet, and in that decade (when the proportion of Scots to immigrants from other countries was higher than at any other time) more Scots than English entered the United States, although the population of England was about eight times that of Scotland. Whereas only 78,357 Scots settled in the United States between 1911 and 1920, 159,781 immigrated between 1921 and 1930.

Therefore the number of people of Scottish birth in the United States continued to rise: 233,473 in 1900; 261,034 in 1910; 254,567 in 1920; and a peak of 354,323 in 1930. In the last-named year the number of American citizens of Scottish birth or parentage was 899,591. Despite these very high figures, the Scots no longer constituted anything like their earlier proportion of Americans, owing to the vast influx of other ethnic groups. Their percentage had fallen from over 6.0 in 1790 to 3.1 in 1850, 2.4 in 1900, and only 1.9 in 1920. With the mass immigration of the 1920s, the proportion climbed to 2.5 in 1930.

After 1930 the pattern changed, and Scotland ceased to make substantial additions to the American population. In the early 1930s the Great Depression drove many Scots home again. Moreover, throughout that

decade the economic situation in Scotland was slowly improving, so that there was less incentive to emigrate. Emigration fell off sharply, to no more than 6,887 between 1931 and 1940, and it did not recover until 1946. A total of 16,131 Scots emigrated to the United States in 1941–1950, nearly all after 1945. Since 1950 emigration as a whole from Scotland has often been heavy, but relatively few Scots have gone to the United States—many have gone no farther than England. For the six years 1962–1967 the total emigration from Scotland to the United States was only 21,000, a yearly average of no more than 3,500. The number of people of Scots birth in the country dropped to 244,200 in 1950 and 170,134 in 1970, by which date the number of Americans of Scottish birth or parentage had fallen to 581,255.

SOCIAL TIES AND MIGRATION

Loyalties associated with blood relationships, tenurial links, and written or customary obligations of service had given considerable local cohesion to Scottish society. In medieval times, a great family and its following had formed a social and even a political unit, and most Scots were accustomed to look to some great man for leadership and to feel strong affinity with other members of his following. Such ties were eliminated in the Lowlands by the 17th century, but they persisted in the Highlands, where clans continued for another century and more to accept the authority of a chief or a tacksman.

Scottish emigration, therefore, was very often less of individuals than of groups. Emigration from the Highlands in particular tended to be a movement under leadership, sometimes of a chief or tacksman, but when such leadership became less relevant or was not available, the role might be assumed by a clergyman—a priest if the clan was Roman Catholic, otherwise a Presbyterian minister. The clan structure provided a ready-made unit on which organizers of emigration, or propagandists for emigration, could build. Somewhat similarly, men from certain Highland regiments, recruited from clans, sometimes settled in America after fighting there in the 18th-century wars.

A different kind of corporate action, this time in the Lowlands and on a territorial basis, came about through associations formed for the mutual help and encouragement of emigrants, the earliest of which, so far as is known, came into being at Wigtown in 1773. The weavers of Renfrew and the farmers of Stirling also formed companies or societies for the cooperative purchase of land in America. Handloom weavers in the cotton industry, once the aristocrats of Scottish artisans, were hard hit when power looms were introduced and were conspicuous among 19th-century emigrants. During the period of distress about 1820, societies were again formed, largely by weavers, to aid emigration by cooperative means; in 1826 there were upward of 30 such societies. In the hungry forties such societies were revived: in 1843 an organization of United Emigration Societies was based mainly on the textile area of Renfrew and Lanark. Weavers' societies continued to aid emigration until the 1860s. Besides the contributions of prospective emigrants and their friends, a good deal of charitable assistance came from public-spirited men who, at a time when there was much concern about unemployment and poverty, readily thought of emigration as the obvious remedy.

From the 17th century onward the immigrants' personal letters home, telling of their success and prosperity and describing the favorable aspects of their surroundings, exerted much influence within the smallest social groups—the family, the kindred, and the circle of close acquaintances. The mere fact that education was widespread in Scotland and that so many Scots were literate may have helped to make emigration the "epidemic" kind of movement it sometimes became. It was not uncommon for a successful settler to remit funds to enable family members to follow—wife or sweetheart, brothers and sisters, and sometimes ultimately the parents as well. This feature, unlike the clan structure, persisted and was still influential in the 1920s. The fact that in that decade the numbers of male and female immigrants from Scotland were almost equal may indicate that families rather than individuals were migrating.

There was also the influence of printed propaganda, in the form of letters in the press, pamphlets, and books. Even in the days of the Nova Scotia colony of the 1620s, the promoters appealed in print to their fellow countrymen. In the 1730s when recruits were being sought for the new colony of Georgia—and were found in large numbers in the northern Highlands—Sir Robert Mountgomery wrote *A Discourse Concerning the Design'd Establishment of a New Colony to the South of Carolina, in the Most Delightful Country of the Universe.* Later in the 18th century various pamphlets encouraging emigration circulated in Scotland, and more books came in the 19th century: John Bradbury, a Scot, wrote a book to encourage immigrants to the Missouri Valley; Alexander Forbes, a Scottish merchant at Tepic, Mexico, recommended the colonization of California in 1839; and in 1852 John Regan, an Ayrshire schoolteacher who had settled in Illinois, produced *The Emigrant's Guide to the Western States of America.* Another kind of printed propaganda was the press advertisement, often by shipowners whose commercial interest lay in conveying emigrants overseas.

After the pioneering phase was over, Scots who came to the United States knew that they had a fair chance of finding fellow Scots when they arrived, and not infrequently they would obtain assistance from some of the Scottish societies (mentioned below) that had been formed in the United States partly to assist immigrants from Scotland. Knowledge that such societies existed may well have helped to focus the minds of emigrants on certain areas.

SETTLEMENT PATTERNS

In the 17th century most Scots settled in the southern and middle Atlantic states; a fair proportion also settled in New England. Much the same distribution prevailed through the 18th century. The men who were transported as rebels or as criminals went mainly to Massachusetts, New Jersey, Maryland, Virginia, and the Carolinas. The chief area of Highland settlement was the Cape Fear River and its tributaries in North Carolina; South Carolina and Georgia also received a number of Highland immigrants. Others found homes in the Mohawk Valley of New York. In 1790 Pennsylvania,

Virginia, and North Carolina had the highest proportion of Scottish stock among their inhabitants.

Secondary movement from the eastern coastal states westward began fairly early. By 1773 some Scots were in Kentucky, and by 1779 they were across the Ohio River. Some of the descendants of the North Carolina settlers pioneered in Tennessee and Missouri. As time went on, enterprising settlers from the East pressed on through Detroit to the rest of Michigan, Indiana, Illinois, and the Mississippi Valley. Scots from Canada also arrived through Detroit, especially in days when communication was easier between Canada and the United States than within Canada. Scots reached Illinois at an early stage in its growth—there were nearly 5,000 of them there in 1850—and they were among the founders of Chicago. A Scotland County was formed in Missouri in 1841; in Iowa there were 700 Scots in 1850 and 3,000 in 1860. Some Scots had settled in Texas as early as the 1820s; quite a number joined them there before Texas was admitted to the Union in 1845. Settlement in the Midwest was preceded by settlement in the South and in the Far West, in the latter case by people who made the journey by sea rather than overland. The few Scots who have been traced in California before it became part of the United States seem to have been among the first non-Spanish inhabitants of the region. The gold rush in 1849 brought more Scots to California, as it brought others.

The following list gives some indication of the pattern of settlement in the earlier phases, before the massive immigration that began in the middle of the 19th century. It gives the percentage of Scots who were residing in each of the states listed, based on some 5,000 who immigrated before 1855 and whose place of settlement can be ascertained: New York, 20.0; Pennsylvania, 12.0; Virginia, 11.5; North Carolina, 10.0; Massachusetts, 9.5; South Carolina, 7.2; Maryland, 5.7; New Jersey, 5.0; Georgia, 3.8; Ohio, 2.7; Illinois, 1.2; Louisiana, 1.1; and Connecticut, 1.0.

The pattern up to this point probably had not altered much over the generations, except for the penetration beyond the eastern seaboard. Some allowance, but possibly not enough, has been made for the fact that New York City, Philadelphia, and Boston were landing places from which immigrants dispersed, so the figures for the states of New York, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts may be somewhat misleading. States accounting for less than 1 percent of the group are not listed. However, the residences of those 5,000 Scottish immigrants included places in every state that was in the Union in 1855, as well as a good many more in areas that were not yet states.

In the second half of the 19th century with the advent of the railways, immigrant trains crossed the continent and opened up the whole of the inland United States. Although the number of Scottish settlers in some states never became large, it is almost startling to find a place name like Leith not only in Alabama and Arkansas but in North Dakota and Nevada as well. Most of the Scots continued to be attracted to the eastern parts of the country, though the southern Atlantic states became far less important destinations than they had been earlier. The census of 1920 shows the largest numbers of people of Scottish birth or descent in the Northeast and Mid-Atlantic states; next in importance were the midwestern states, especially Ohio, Illinois, and Michigan. These were followed by the Pacific coast, especially California, which had the fifth highest number of inhabitants of Scottish origin after New York, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, and Illinois.

The great immigration between the world wars altered the pattern little: in 1940 New York had by far the largest number of persons of Scottish birth, followed by five states with almost the same figures—Michigan, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, and California—and then Illinois and Ohio. In 1970 New York still had the highest number of persons of Scottish birth or parentage, but California had climbed to second place—presumably as a result of movement within the United States—followed by New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, Illinois, Florida, and Ohio. Every census continued to show that some Scots, however few, were still settling in every state.

Occupational Distribution

In the colonial period a fair number of Scots in America were traders or merchants, some of them not permanent residents. At that stage, however, settlement on the land was the main attraction for Scottish immigrants, coming as they did from an essentially rural economy. In the late 18th and early 19th centuries, an appreciable number of the Scottish immigrants had been skilled men of one kind or another at home and found similar employment in professions and crafts across the Atlantic. An analysis of 3,624 adult male immigrants who had come to the United States by 1855 shows that 960 were the victims of transportation, all of whom had arrived by 1748 and who figure prominently in any list because they are well documented. Table 2 shows the percentages of the chief occupations of the remaining 2,664. There must be a certain distortion, in that the humbler occupations are likely to be underrepresented, and figures covering such a long period do not disclose the declining importance of rural occupations even before 1850. The listed occupations

Table 2. Occupations of 2,664 Scottish emigrants to the United States from colonial times through 1854.

Occupation	Percentage
Professionals	
Ministers	4.1
Physicians and surgeons	3.0
Teachers	1.8
Officials	1.6
Lawyers	1.0
Craftsmen	
Weavers	5.0
Construction workers	3.8
Tailors	2.4
Wrights	2.3
Smiths	1.5
Mariners	1.5
Shoemakers	1.4
Merchants	9.2
On the land	
Farmers	22.0
Planters, landowners, and "gentlemen"	6.0
Unskilled workers	
Servants (including farm servants)	11.1
Laborers	5.3

Source: Donald Whyte, *Dictionary of Scottish Emigrants to the U.S.A.* (Baltimore, 1972).

made up 83 percent of the total. In addition, a remarkable assortment of trades was represented by groups ranging in size from 23 to 1: gardeners, coopers, watchmakers, jewelers, miners, clerks, shopkeepers, printers, bakers, butchers, cooks, barbers, saddlers, and many more, including 3 wigmakers and 2 portrait painters.

Clearly the simple pattern of earlier times had already begun to alter in the first half of the 19th century, and it altered more in the second half. The determining fact was that Scotland, like Britain as a whole, had been far ahead of the United States in industrial development of almost every kind—textiles, machinery, engineering, and the exploitation of mineral resources. Therefore, as the United States began to develop its industries, it obtained both machines and skilled workers, from Britain. For a time Britain had tried to check the export of machinery and even, by an act of 1782, the export of craftsmen; but the restriction on the migration of trained men came to an end in 1825. Scotland thereafter began to export skilled workers in large numbers. The first development seems to have been in cotton manufacture, which had been expanding in Scotland since about 1780 and had become a major industry there. James Montgomery, a Scot who had become the owner of a cotton mill in New England in 1836, wrote a pamphlet to stimulate the immigration of textile workers. Table 2 indicates that the most numerous group of skilled craftsmen to immigrate before 1855 were in fact weavers, and to them we should probably add a good many female spinsters, who in those days may actually have been textile workers rather than merely unmarried women.

The movement of textile workers increased sharply after the Civil War, when cotton manufacture in Scotland slumped and the United States imposed tariffs to encourage its own production of cotton thread and cloth. Men who immigrated found the faster pace of work more difficult, but the wages were much higher than in Scotland. Scottish thread-manufacturing firms set up branches in America and staffed them with experienced workers from their factories at home: George A. Clark, from Paisley, founded works at Newark, N.J., and the more famous Paisley firm of Coats founded works at Pawtucket, R.I. Apart from cotton, Scottish woolen-cloth makers went to American factories, as did carpet weavers trained in Kilmarnock, especially in Thompsonville, Conn.

Comparable developments took place in the heavy industries at a time when the whole world was a market for British products and eager to learn British skills. Scottish engineers therefore took their experience to the American iron and steel industries; some served their apprenticeship in Scotland and then followed their trade in the United States. Scots were prominent in marine engineering and shipbuilding; in a San Francisco shipyard in 1905 there was "hardly a man . . . who did not speak with a strong Scottish accent." During depressions in Scotland, coal miners were apt to move to the United States for a season or two and could be found by the thousands in states from Maryland and Pennsylvania to Illinois and Ohio. Quarriers, too, went out: New England granite was worked by Scots who had learned their trade in Aberdeen, and the masons who followed on the heels of the quarriers established communities in Massachusetts, Maine, and New Hampshire; it was remarked that Scots left their mark on American tombstones.

However, as American industry developed, the need for imported skilled men dwindled. In iron and steel manufacture the United States no longer needed Scottish guidance after about 1870; in the mining of coal and iron the turning point was about ten years later. The importance of Scottish contributions to textile processes petered out about 1900 and was probably one reason for the temporary falling-off in immigration to the United States after that point. There continued to be some specialized Scottish craftsmen outside the fields of large-scale industry, as in type founding, portrait painting, architecture, building, and engraving. Scottish gardeners, who had acquired a reputation in England in the 18th century, were highly esteemed in the United States.

The contribution of the Scots to agriculture, on the other hand, became much less significant. The 1890 Census listed only 3 percent of the immigrants from Scotland as agricultural workers. Throughout the 19th century some Scots had continued to come as farmers and had settled in New York, Illinois, Wisconsin, Iowa, Florida, Minnesota, and south-central Virginia. However, those Scots who were drawn across the Atlantic by the vision of easy possession of limitless acres of fertile land began to find the prairie country of Canada, as it was opened up, more attractive, and this may have been a factor in reducing immigration to the United States at the very end of the century. By 1920 nearly 196,000 Scottish-born Americans lived in urban areas and 58,000 in rural areas; in 1940 the round figures were 230,000 and 49,000, respectively. The percentage of Scots living in urban areas was above the national average, though they appear to have preferred moderate-sized towns to the largest cities.

In 1900 first- and second-generation Scots concentrated in the building trades, manufacturing, mining and quarrying, textiles and clerical work, with agriculture at the foot of the list. In 1950 the Scottish-born showed a higher proportion than other groups in the professions, clerical work, skilled labor, and private household service.

DISTINGUISHED SCOTS

The part that Scottish immigrants and their descendants played as men of distinction in the United States is hardly capable of statistical demonstration. Out of over 13,500 persons who qualified for inclusion in the *Dictionary of American Biography*, only 214 were of Scottish birth, though it should be noted for comparison that only 724 were of English birth. It would no doubt be possible to determine that a large number of the 13,500 Americans were of Scottish descent, but it would hardly be meaningful, for the other strands in any individual's ancestry might be more numerous and significant. The figures given earlier for the occupations of Scottish settlers down to 1855 showed that professional men made up almost precisely 10 percent, but this indication is misleading, as such men tended to be better documented than laborers, for example. Later figures show that whereas the proportion of professional men among immigrants from the British Isles was as a whole far higher (over 3 percent) than that of most other

ethnic groups, Scotland's share was actually a little less than England's.

The signatories of the Declaration of Independence included two native-born Scots, James Wilson (1742–1798) and John Witherspoon (1723–1794); the latter, a Scottish Presbyterian minister, was the only clergyman among the signatories. Of 56 members of the Continental Congress that adopted the Declaration, eleven were of Scottish extraction. Hugh Orr (1715–1798) cast guns for the American army, John Paul Jones (1747–1792) founded the navy, and James Craik (1730–1814) organized the army's medical service. Since the Revolution, over 100 men of Scottish descent have served as state governors, and of 50 justices of the U.S. Supreme Court from 1789 to 1882, at least 15 were of Scottish descent.

The contribution of Scots to education began earlier, to some extent as a by-product of the association of the churches with education. Apart from teachers at lower levels—it was said in 1773 that the Virginians imported all their tutors and schoolmasters from Scotland—the succession started with James Blair (1656–1743), founder of William and Mary College (1693). He was followed by William Smith (1727–1803), provost in 1755 of the College of Philadelphia, which was the forerunner of the University of Pennsylvania; John Blair (1720–1771), professor of theology in the Presbyterian College of New Jersey (later Princeton University); John Witherspoon, principal of that college from 1768 to 1794; Charles Nisbet (1736–1804), first president of Dickinson College (f. 1785); John Beveridge, professor at Philadelphia under Provost Smith; James McClurg (c. 1746–1823) and William Small, professors at Williamsburg; Andrew Ferrier (c. 1796–1867), minister in Pennsylvania and president of Madison College; and James McCosh (1811–1894), who became president of Princeton College in 1868.

The church, education, and other professions were all associated with the dissemination of knowledge by the printed word, and Scots were also active in printing and publishing. Among the skilled craftsmen who went out from Scotland were printers like Robert Aitken (1734–1802), a native of Dalkeith, who was a printer and publisher in Philadelphia in 1769; David Hall (c. 1714–1772), a native of Edinburgh and a skilled printer employed by Benjamin Franklin; and William Hunter, partner in the *Virginia Gazette*. In later generations George Bruce (1781–1861) introduced stereotype and Adam Ramage improved the printing press. Publishing and journalism were closely associated; John Regan, an Ayr schoolteacher, became editor and proprietor of the *Messenger* in Illinois in 1857 and James Gordon Bennett (1792–1872), from Banff, founded the *New York Daily Herald*. Booksellers and stationers operated in a humbler sphere, but it is interesting that William Adam (c. 1800–1883) served as a minister in Scotland and the United States before becoming a bookseller in Washington, D.C. Thomas Allen (1795–1826), a bookbinder and stationer in New York in association with his brother-in-law Samuel Campbell, was the first American agent for the *Encyclopaedia Britannica*. Alexander Wilson (1766–1813), a Paisley weaver who got into trouble for associating with radical agitators, emigrated in 1794; he became a schoolmaster near Philadelphia but turned to ornithology and produced the pioneering great work in American bird study, *American Ornithology* (1808–1814).

Religious Life

There were various strands in the Scottish ecclesiastical tradition: a few areas in the northeast, the southwest, and the West Highlands had either retained Roman Catholicism after the Reformation or had subsequently been proselytized by missionaries from Ireland, and in the 19th century a massive immigration of Irish raised the Catholic population of Scotland tenfold. From the Reformation until 1690 the reformed church was sometimes Episcopal, sometimes Presbyterian; after 1690, when the Presbyterian system was finally established, there was still a strong Episcopal church in Scotland. In the 18th century the majority of emigrants were Presbyterians; a fair number of emigrating Highlanders were Roman Catholics, however, and Episcopal clergy went to America in some numbers at a time when their church was under certain disabilities at home. On the eve of independence there were at least 13 Scottish Episcopal ministers in Virginia; others were serving in Connecticut, South Carolina, and New York. This may explain why Samuel Seabury (1729–1796), who had been a medical student in Edinburgh, applied to the Scottish bishops for consecration as the first American bishop in 1784 and why the Protestant Episcopal Church of America adopted a communion service similar to that used in Scotland.

At first Scottish Presbyterians in America sometimes found it hard to obtain ministers (who in those days probably had better material prospects at home), but some ministers were always ready to go out to the colonies, either to settle or to serve for a time, a tradition that has continued ever since. American Presbyterianism did not derive only from Scottish immigrants; English nonconformity made its contribution, and the Scotch-Irish contributed even more, although their Presbyterianism derived from Scotland, and they always looked to the churches in Scotland as their fountainhead. Thus American Presbyterianism, whether at first or second hand, stems largely from the Scots and is apt to regard Edinburgh as its Geneva; many American divinity students go to Scotland for part of their training. Presbyterianism is strongest in Pennsylvania, New York, Ohio, Illinois, Virginia, North Carolina, Texas, and California. The general resemblance in the distribution of Presbyterianism and of Scottish influence is unmistakable.

Presbyterian schisms and secessions originating in Scotland crossed the Atlantic (sometimes by way of Ulster), and Scots in America also developed new sects of their own. The Glassites, who attempted to return to primitive and apostolic models, were known in America as Sandemanians, after Robert Sandeman (1718–1771), a son-in-law of the founder. A group called MacDonaldites, who originated in Prince Edward Island, brought their beliefs to Boston in 1895. The Campbellites, bearing the name of the clan that was the principal rival of the MacDonalds, were founded by an Ulster Scot, Alexander Campbell. And a group known as the Christian Catholic Apostolic Church in Zion was founded in San Francisco and then in Chicago by Alexander Dowie, a native of Edinburgh.

SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS

Among Highland Presbyterians in the United States, the Gaelic language as well as religion was for a time a bond, especially as long as services in Gaelic were provided. With the passage of time, intermarriage, and general absorption into the surrounding life, however, Presbyterian churches ceased to be ethnic or linguistic enclaves, and Gaelic services died out after about 1860. Otherwise, language can have done little to maintain a sense of identity among the Scots; although in the first generation many new immigrants must have spoken strong Lowland dialects, they were no more difficult to understand than many English dialects. Lowland Scots was close enough to standard English or standard American for any awareness of linguistic identity to be eroded within a short time.

Medieval Scottish migrants to the European continent had established guilds whose corporate activity was often the endowment of an altar in a church. It was not long before Scots in America likewise founded associations, beginning, so far as is known, with the Scots Charitable Society of Boston in 1657; among others that followed within a century were those at Philadelphia, New York, and Savannah, Ga. Their purpose was partly charitable and helped to smooth the path of immigrants from Scotland, but it was also partly convivial. The first St. Andrew's Society seems to have been founded in New York in 1756, and this time-honored name is now borne by associations widely spread over the United States. Annual dinners on the festival of Scotland's patron saint (November 30) kept his memory alive when it was almost forgotton in Scotland; they are occasions when the thoughts of Scottish Americans turn to the ancestral homeland.

Some of the activities that give cohesion to Scots in the United States now are perhaps less authentic than the links of blood, faith, and language. Some popular festivities were a true part of folk tradition in Scotland, like those associated with Halloween and Hogmanay (New Year's Eve), but for a long time more attention has been focused on January 25, the birthday of Robert Burns, acclaimed as the Scottish national poet. A Burns supper was held in New York as early as 1820, only 24 years after the poet's death, and in the course of time a set of rites has gathered around such suppers, held by Burns clubs in many places.

Americans have been equally captivated by the modern cult of clans and tartans, much of which is deplorably unhistorical, especially when adopted by descendants of Lowlanders who thought the only good Highlander was a dead Highlander. An order of Scottish clans was founded in St. Louis, Mo., in 1878 but soon had its most important center in New England and the Mid-Atlantic states. The "clans" were in effect lodges that adopted the names and supposed tartans (mostly modern commercial productions) of Highland families. In addition societies bearing the names of individual clans, like the Clan Donald Society of America, had many local branches. Despite their egalitarianism, Scottish Americans always seem ready to make a fuss over a visiting peer, especially if he professes to be the head of some "clan." Highland games, another supposedly traditional aspect of Highland life, was widely taken up in Scotland in the 19th century and spread to the United States. In 1836 the Highland Society of New York held its first meeting, and within a few years the fashion had spread. There are now Gaelic clubs, Scottish country dance clubs, and bagpipe bands. The ostentatious character of Highland dress and the activities that go with it make Scottish ethnic groups conspicuous; the very ostentation creates an appeal to many who have no claim to Scottish origin.

Two traditional Scottish games were taken across the Atlantic. One was the winter sport of curling, which was well established in America by 1867, when about 30 constituent local clubs formed a Grand National Curling Club. The other was golf, which had its origins on the natural links of Scotland's east coast; it is said to have been introduced to the United States in 1818, and it flourished by the late 19th century.

The interaction of Scotland and the United States through immigrants was not a one-way traffic, although few Scots carried their enthusiasm for their native country so far as to return for more than occasional visits; it was remarked that Scotland might be the land of dreams but Pennsylvania was the land of dollars. Men of relatively humble standing in the New World doubtless sent money home to aged parents and other kinsfolk, but in addition there have been conspicuous instances of Scottish Americans making munificent gifts or bequests to their places of origin. The outstanding example was Andrew Carnegie (1835–1919), son of a Dunfermline weaver, who made a vast fortune in iron and steel and gave away hundreds of millions of dollars for educational and other purposes in Scotland. Others were Charles Bruce, who immigrated to Philadelphia before 1820, became a successful physician, and left £2,000 to the poor of his native Musselburgh; Alexander Milne (1742–1838), who immigrated in 1776, made a fortune in New Orleans and left $100,000 to create a school in his native town of Fochabers; and James Dick (1743–1828), a native of Forres, who bequeathed a part of his American fortune to benefit schoolmasters in Aberdeen, Banff, and Moray. Apart from the material benefits, such gifts served as an incentive by bringing to young Scots the knowledge of their countrymen's success overseas.

Among the characteristics of Scots overseas have been their adaptability and capacity to assimilate. In the United States, they were generally willing to identify with other Americans of British descent, and in a wider sense their obvious affinities with many of the existing inhabitants facilitated their assimilation. But it was also to their advantage that they could be remarkably tolerant of the ways of others; their egalitarianism helped them to accept peoples of varied social backgrounds, and they had some familiarity, within Scotland and within Britain, of living alongside diverse peoples. Another link lay in the sharing of religious beliefs by Protestant Scots and Protestant Americans. For a time Scots and Americans probably held in common a provincial or dependent cultural relationship with England. It was also an advantage to the Scots in their dealings with other groups that, with a broader and less insular outlook than the English, they did not regard all ways of life other than their own as backward, quaint, or barbarous. Possibly the most noticeable out-

come of the Scots' readiness to merge with other peoples is that one seldom meets Americans who claim more than a partial Scottish ancestry; they very often claim no more than one Scottish forebear, which strongly suggests that, far from associating only within their own ethnic group, many Scots intermarried with people of other origins.

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GORDON DONALDSON

SEMINOLES: *see* AMERICAN INDIANS

SENECAS: *see* AMERICAN INDIANS

SERBS

The Serbs are one of the national groups, along with the Croats, Slovenes, Macedonians, and others, that make up the population of modern Yugoslavia. While none of the Yugoslav groups has an absolute majority, the most recent census (1971) shows that the Serbs compose 40 percent of its total population of 20.5 million. To these might be added the 2.5 percent who indicated their nationality as Montenegrin, for the Montenegrins share a common cultural tradition with the Serbs, though in modern times they have had their own political identity. The second largest nationality, the Croats, make up 22 percent of the population.

The Serbs belong to the same vast Slavic linguistic family as the Russians, Ukrainians, Poles, Czechs, and Slovaks, but are most closely related to the other South Slavs—the Slovenes, Croats, Macedonian Slavs, and Bulgarians. The name Yugoslavia means "land of the South Slavs," and in the 19th century the Yugoslav idea of cultural and ultimately political unification included the Bulgarians as well. All the South Slavic languages are similar enough that their speakers can understand one another, though with varying degrees of difficulty. Both the Serbs and Croats speak various dialects of those languages, some of which are distinctly either Serbian or Croatian. The Croats are Roman Catholic and use the Latin alphabet modified by diacritical marks to reflect the spoken language. The Serbs are Orthodox and use the Cyrillic alphabet (as do the other Orthodox Slavs), also modified—by the Serbian lexicographer Vuk Karadžić (1787–1864)—to suit the requirements of their spoken tongue. Aside from the alphabet used, the literary language of the Serbs and the Croats is virtually identical. It is called Serbo-Croatian or Croato-Serbian.

The cultural affinities of the various Yugoslav peoples are undeniable, but circumstances have nonetheless led them to develop distinct communities both in their European homeland and in the United States. Some of the earliest immigrants, notably the Serbs and Croats, lived in close contact. The ones who came before the 1880s had lived in the same provinces along the Adriatic coast that then belonged to the Austro-Hungarian Empire, and they did not hesitate to settle in the same communities abroad. Subsequently, however, they developed separate communities, though at times, particularly before World War I, they would still cooperate in certain ventures. The first mutual-aid societies, beginning with the Slavonic Illyric Mutual and Benevolent Society of San Francisco (f. 1857) and the United Slavonian Benevolent Association in New Orleans (f. 1874), the earliest cemeteries, choral concerts, Sokol (gymnastic society) meets, anti-Austrian political rallies, and the like, were all joint endeavors. But Old World political differences eventually drove them apart. Religion, too, played a role in this estrangement. The Serbs, even though their individual religious convictions varied, wore their Orthodoxy as a badge of ethnic identification and used their church parishes as a basis for communal life in the United States. Religion consequently influenced other spheres of their organizational life—fraternal societies, choirs, literary clubs, newspapers, and sports clubs—and in the end drove them apart from their Roman Catholic neighbors, the Croats and Slovenes.

The Orthodox religion in its Serbianized form makes the Serbian ethos distinct even from the Orthodox culture of their fellow Slavic Ukrainians, Russians, Bulgarians, and Macedonian Slavs, not to mention the non-Slavic Orthodox Greeks, Romanians, or Syrians. The Serbian Church may share its dogmas and ritual and some organizational forms with the other Orthodox, but not its administration, customs, or the whole panoply of Serbian saints after whom so many Serbian churches in America have been named. Chief among these is St. Sava, the 12th-century founder of the autonomous Serbian Orthodox Church. St. Sava is to the Serbs what St. Patrick is to the Irish. Perhaps the most distinctively Serbian form of folk religion is the *slava*, or family patron-saint's day, which is inherited through the male line and symbolic of each family's ancestral conversion to Christianity.

The Cyrillic alphabet in its Serbian form is another badge of identity, though one that presents increasing difficulty for younger generations of Serbian Americans. A particular conception of the Serbian past also contributes to the special feeling of *Srpstvo*, often translated in the Serbian-American press as Serbianism. This is especially evident on such exclusively Serbian holidays as St. Sava's Day on January 27 and Vidovdan, or St. Vitus's Day, on June 28, which commemorates the Battle of Kosovo in which the Serbs were defeated by the Turks in 1389. Like the Orthodox Russians, and unlike the Greeks, Romanians, Bulgarians, and some other Orthodox groups, the Serbs still cling to the Julian or Old Style calendar in determining the date of their religious observances, though they customarily designate the day in New Style terms. In this century the difference between the two calendars is 13 days. Thus, for example, the Serbian Orthodox Church observes Christmas on January 7, which is December 25 according to

a Guide to Glasgow and its environs ; Mrs. B. Baddeley, 1888

Voyage - details

and a little further we cross the *Great Western Road* (Station), beyond which the old route from Cowlairs comes in. At Kilbowie (8 *m.*), the manufactory of the Singer Sewing Machine Coy. is conspicuous with its huge clock, which has four illuminated dials of iron and glass, each 26 feet in diameter; then comes (13 *m.*, *p.* 84) *Bowling*, and, beyond it, Dumbarton Castle, seen on the left. Between *Dumbarton* station (16 *m.*) and *Dalreoch*, where is the junction for Loch Lomond, we cross the Leven estuary, and looking up it, see the tall chimney-stalks of Renton and Alexandria. Neither these nor the town of Dumbarton, on the left, have aught of the fascinating about them, and it is rather a relief to get into a tunnel and emerge on to the green wave-lapped shore of **Cardross** (19½ *m.*). The site of *Cardross Castle*, in which Robert Bruce breathed his last (1329) is almost over this tunnel. In front is the flat woody promontory of Ardmore, and across the water Port-Glasgow may probably be identified by its smoke. Craigendoran Pier is close at hand (for steamer-routes hence see *p.* 84, etc.), and then we reach the terminus at

Helensburgh.

Hotels: *Queen's*, ⅔ *m.* from station, nearer to Craigendoran (Cab-fare from either 1s., without luggage); *Imperial* (smaller), on the esplanade, 200 yds. from station; last desp. of letters to south about 6.50; resident *pop.* about 5000.

Helensburgh is a favourite residential resort with Glasgovians, and a pleasant and convenient place of sojourn for strangers. It consists mainly of a few streets of shops and ranges of villas laid out on a rectangular plan. There is a fair but not striking esplanade, with an obelisk in honour of Henry Bell (*see p.* 19), and a pier, chiefly used by steamers (about 8 a-day) running between it and Greenock. The shore is shingly, but the tide does not recede far. Bathing moderate; the best place is between Craigendoran Pier and Ardmore Point. The town owes its name to the wife of Sir James Colquhoun of Luss, the owner of its site.

There are not many land excursions from Helensburgh, but a walk or drive of 5 miles out will introduce the visitor to a good view of Loch Lomond. At one time a coach made the tour daily by Loch Lomondside to Tarbet, returning by Arrochar and the shores of Loch Long and the Gare Loch, but it didn't pay. The driver was a local wit and philosopher. An English clergyman had been wearying him out one day with question piled on question; and "Pray what are those chimneys yonder?" asked his reverence. "These," replied Jehu, "are the chimneys of Alexandria, and ye 'll see by the smoke that 's curling

aboot, that the bombardment 's going on still." On another occasion, two English "mashers" took their seats on either side of him, and at once adopted a tone of long and familiar acquaintance. A ragged party of gipsies were encountered on the road. "James," quoth masher No. 1, "these are, I suppose, specimens of your famous Scotch peasantry." "Na, na," retorted James, "ye may ken there 's a kind o' folk they ca' English tourists gangin' aboot the country noo; that 's some of them."

(2.) Glasgow to Greenock *by rail.*

Fares:—Single, 1s. 3d., 1s., 9d.; Return, 2s. 6d., 2s., 1s. 6d. Passengers for the boats are booked through to their destinations (*see p.* 76).

There are two routes with about 20 trains each, accomplishing the distance in from forty minutes to an hour and five minutes. The *Caledonian* (23 *m.*) takes about five minutes less time than the *Glasgow & South-Western* (25½ *m.*). The former is more convenient for the town, the latter for the steamers, their station being connected with Prince's Pier by a covered way, whereas the Caledonian Station is from 200 to 300 yards from Custom House Quay.

Both routes pass through **Paisley** (7 *m.*, *p.* 57), beyond which station—

(*a*) The *Caledonian* descends to the south bank of the Clyde, which it reaches after passing through a short tunnel beyond Bishopton (12 *m.*). Hence, hugging the shore, it passes (20 *m.*) **Port-Glasgow**, a grimy town of 13,000 inhabitants, once, as its name implies, the Port of Glasgow, but now of third-rate importance, except for its ship-building yards.

(*b*) The *Glasgow & South-Western* route gradually ascends from Paisley, till at **Kilmalcolm** (pronounce Kilma*comb*, 17 *m.*) it attains a height of 400 feet. The Hydropathic is conspicuous on the right. Three miles further we look down upon the Clyde from above Port-Glasgow, and for the rest of the way to Greenock have a very fine view across the estuary to the mountains of Loch Lomond and Loch Long.

Greenock (Hotels, *Tontine*, *White Hart*, in middle of town; *last mail to the south about* 8.30. Pop. 70,000) as a town, has little to interest the pleasure-seeker, though it occupies a naturally picturesque site, and the views across the Clyde from its upper parts are very fine. It has large docks (the "James Watt" dock is accounted the finest wet dock in the kingdom), ship-building yards, and sugar refineries, besides ironworks. Its chief architectural feature is the new *Municipal Buildings*, completed in 1884, in the central square, French Gothic in style, with a fine clock-tower. The *Custom House*, Grecian in style, is at the principal business quay. There are good views from Well Park, above the Caledonian Station, and from the New Cemetery.

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A Guide to Glasgow and its Environs

James Watt was born at Greenock in 1736. The house, No. 6 William Street, at the corner of Dalrymple Street, has been pulled down, and at present the site remains vacant. The *Watt Memorial*, at the west end of the town, contains the town library and a replica of Chantrey's statue of Watt, with an inscription by Lord Jeffrey.

In the disused churchyard of the Old West Kirk, at the foot of Nicholson Street, is the *grave* of "*Highland Mary*" with an elaborate sculpture by Mossman, representing the parting of the lovers. (For keys apply to the beadle opposite the gate.)

At the west end of the town, close to the Glasgow & South-Western Station, business gives way to pleasure; dirty streets to clean roads bordered by villas, and a wide esplanade, which extends a considerable way towards **Gourock** from centre of town (2¾ *m.*). Trams at frequent intervals from both stations at Greenock (*fare*, to Gourock pier, from *Caledonian Station*, 4d.; from *Glasgow & South-Western Station*, 3d.), an attractively situated watering-place, but rather a residential than a holiday resort. It is singularly lacking in hotel accommodation. The cars run on to Ashton (1¼ *m.*) beyond Gourock pier, and the fares range from 1*d.* (from Caledonian to Glasgow & South Western Station at Greenock) to 5*d.* for the whole distance (4½ *m.*).

For the pedestrian, the best route from Greenock to Gourock is over the hill in the rear of the high road, by a good road recently constructed mainly for the purpose of employing the unemployed. On the way we pass Sir Gabriel Wood's *Mariner's Asylum*. The highest point reached ("*Lyle Hill*") commands a very fine view, including the entrance to the Gare Loch, Loch Long, and the Holy Loch, and the mountain ranges in the background. A winding road takes us back into the main road. The new line in process of construction by the Caledonian Railway Company from Greenock to Gourock is expected to be opened during the summer of 1889.

Beyond Gourock the road hugs the coast almost to **Inverkip** (8 *m.*, hotel), passing (5 *m.*) the *Cloch Lighthouse*, just opposite Dunoon, and going inland round the back of the charming domain of *Ardgowan* Castle. It is a delightful drive or walk (locally accounted one of the finest in Europe), but there is no public conveyance. From Inverkip it is 2½ miles to Wemyss Bay.

(3) **Glasgow** (*Bridge Street*) **to Wemyss Bay** *by rail* (30½ *m.*). *Single*, 2s. 2d., 1s. 8d., 1s. 2d.; *Ret.*, 3s. 6d., 2s. 5d., 2s.

The Wemyss (pronounce "Weems") Bay line branches out of the Caledonian line to Greenock, half-a-mile beyond Port-Glasgow (20½ *m.* from Glasgow), and at once begins to ascend, reaching (23 *m.*) *Upper Greenock* a little above the Lynedoch Station of the Glasgow & South-Western, which line has just been crossed. Fine view across the Clyde. The route then goes inland, up one verdant valley and down another to *Inverkip* (28½ *m.*, hotel), and

Wemyss Bay (*Hotel* and *Hydropathic*), which is quite a modern watering-place, opened up chiefly by the extension of the railway. Close to the station is the *Steamboat Quay*, from which there are regular boat services (*p.* 75) to Innellan and Rothesay, and to Largs and Millport, as well as at least one service a day to Arran. The geological formation hereabouts is New Red, giving a warm and cheerful appearance to the neat array of villas of which the village mainly consists. The most imposing building is *Castle Wemyss*, the seat of John Burns, Esq., of the well-known shipping firm of that name. The views across the Clyde to Bute and the Cowal district are very pleasing.

Between Wemyss Bay and Largs, whether by sea or land, we pass (1½ *m.*) **Skelmorlie**, a little watering-place with finely situated castle, and (3½ *m.*) the ruin of *Knock Castle*.

(4.) **By boat from the Broomielaw to Greenock** (21 *m.*; *abt.* 2 *hrs.*).

Between 7 A.M. and 4 P.M. about 15 pleasure steamers leave the Broomielaw or Bridge Wharf for the Clyde watering-places, the chief ones being the *Columba* for Ardrishaig, and the *Lord of the Isles* for Inveraray about 7. All these boats call at Greenock, where the majority of passengers join them, having left the St. Enoch or Central Station about an hour later than the steamer leaves the Broomielaw.

Starting from the west side of the Caledonian railway bridge we pass the *Sailor's Home* on the right, and for a mile or more steam slowly down between a line of quays on both sides. Then, on the right, behind *Stobcross Quay*, from which the vessels of the Anchor line start, *Queen's Dock* is passed, and on the left the suburb of *Govan*, whereat are the ship-building yards of Robert Napier & Sons, the builders of the greater part of the Cunard fleet. Opposite to Govan is *Partick*, and, at the mouth of the Kelvin, the yards of Messrs. Henderson & Co., whence most of the Inman liners have been launched. The spire of Govan church is after the graceful model of that at Stratford-on-Avon. A mile further, opposite *Whiteinch*, we have on the left the largest ship-building yards on the Clyde, those of John Elder & Co. Another mile and we pass between *Scotstoun House* on the right and *Elderslie* on the left. The latter is said to have been purchased from a lineal descendant of Sir William Wallace a century ago, but the reputed birth-place of the "peerless knight of Elderslie, who waved on Ayr's romantic shore the beamy torch of liberty," is some distance away, beyond Paisley.

Behind Elderslie is the small and stagnant county-town of **Renfrew**, the first settlement of the royal family of Stewart in Scotland, and on the opposite side the village of *Yoker*; then in the angle formed by the Clyde and its tributary the Cart, which has had the full benefit of passing through Paisley, is *Blythswood*

The town, standing 500 feet above sea-level, on the left bank of Blackadder Water, has a station on the Berwickshire loop-line of the North British, 14¼ miles NE of St Boswells, and 7½ SW of Duns. A burgh of barony, it was the county town from 1696 till 1853, but now divides that dignity with Duns. The original town stood 1¼ mile to the SSE on the 'green,' round, isolated 'law,' or hill, that gave it name. The present town was founded towards the close of the 17th century, and, for a short time promised to become a central seat of trade for the county, but never, in point of either size or commerce, has risen to be more than a village. Its market cross, supposed to have been erected in 1696 by the celebrated Sir Patrick Hume of Polwarth (afterwards Earl of Marchmont), was taken down in 1829 to make room for the County Hall, but in 1881 was discovered in the basement part of the church tower, and was again set up on the W side of the town. Shaft and Corinthian capital were entire; but the surmounting lion-rampant, the Marchmont crest, was gone. Greenlaw comprises a spacious square, with three or four short radiating streets, and has a post office, with money order, savings bank, and telegraph departments, a branch of the Royal Bank, insurance agencies, one or two inns, a library, a Good Templar hall, curling and angling clubs, horticultural and ornithological societies, a grain mill, and an agricultural implement and a woollen manufactory. On the S side of the square stand the old county court and jail—the latter, a narrow gloomy structure. The new jail, to the W, was built in 1824, and has served since August 1880 for prisoners whose period does not exceed a fortnight. The new court-house, erected in 1834, is a handsome edifice in the Grecian style, with a hall 60 feet long, 40 wide, and 28 high; and is used for jury courts and county meetings. The parish church, a venerable building, adjoins the old jail, of which the under part of its tower formerly was part, known as the Thieves' Hole. There are also a Free and a U.P. church. A sheriff court, and one for the recovery of small debts, are held monthly. The justice of peace courts for the Greenlaw district are held at Duns. Pop. (1831) 895, (1861) 800, (1871) 823, (1881) 744, (1891) 669.

The parish is bounded N by Longformacus, NE by Polwarth, E by Fogo, SE by Eccles, SW by Hume, and W by Gordon and Westruther. Its utmost length, from NNW to SSE, is 8 miles; its breadth varies between 1⅞ and 3½ miles; and its area is 12,200 acres, of which 51 are water. BLACKADDER Water, formed by two head-streams in the NW of the parish, winds 3½ miles south-south-eastward along the Westruther and Gordon border, and 3⅝ miles south-eastward through the interior to the town, thence bending 1⅞ mile east-north-eastward to the boundary with Fogo, which it traces for 7 furlongs north-north-eastward. Faugrist Burn, coming in from Longformacus, drains most of the northern district to the Blackadder; and Lambden Burn, a little tributary of Leet Water, flows 2⅜ miles north-eastward along the boundary with Eccles. The surface declines along Lambden Burn to 260, along the Blackadder to 290 feet above sea level. Between these streams it rises to 563 feet near Elwarthlaw, 633 at Old Greenlaw, and 680 at Foulshotlaw; beyond the Blackadder, to 677 feet near Whiteside, 786 near Hallyburton, 780 near Hule Moss, 813 at Hurd Law, and 1191 at DIRRINGTON Little Law, a summit of the Lammermuirs on the northern border. A moorish tract occupies most of the northern district, and an irregular gravelly ridge, called the Kaimes, 50 feet broad at the base, and from 30 to 40 feet high, extends fully 2 miles in semicircular form across the moor, whilst on the S side of the Kaimes lies Dogden Moss, 500 acres in extent, and in some parts 10 feet deep. The southern district, comprising rather more than one-half of the entire area, presents, for the most part, a level appearance, but is diversified with several isolated, rounded hillocks of the kind called Laws. Sandstone has been quarried at Greenside; and peats, nearly as good for fuel as coal, are cut and dried upon Dogden Moss. The soil of the southern district is deep and fertile; that of the northern is mostly moorish and barren. In the NW are several cairns or barrows; remains of an ancient camp, called BLACKCASTLE, are at the confluence of Blackadder Water and Faugrist Burn; and a number of gold and silver coins of Edward III. were found in 1832 in the line of a trench running southward from this camp. Two religious houses, subordinate to Kelso Abbey, were formerly in the parish, but have entirely disappeared, as also has a castle near Old Greenlaw, which, in the 12th, 13th, and 14th centuries, was a seat of the Earls of Dunbar, ancestors of the noble family of Home. Mansions are Lambden, Old Greenlaw, and Rowchester. Much the largest proprietor is Sir J. H. P. Hume-Campbell, Bart., of Marchmont House, who is also superior of the burgh. Greenlaw is in the presbytery of Duns and synod of Merse and Teviotdale; the living is worth £411. Its public school, with accommodation for 292 children, has an average attendance of about 170, and a grant of nearly £160. Pop. (1801) 1270, (1831) 1442, (1861) 1370, (1871) 1381, (1881) 1245, (1891) 1110.—*Ord. Sur.*, sh. 25, 1865.

Greenlaw, a hill in Insch parish in the county of Aberdeen.

Greenloaning. See ARDOCH.

Greenmill, a village in CAERLAVEROCK parish, Dumfriesshire, containing the parish church.

Greenock, a parish of NW Renfrewshire, bounded N by the Firth of Clyde, E by Port Glasgow, S by Kilmalcolm, and W by Innerkip. Extending 4¾ miles along the Firth, and from 1⅜ to 5⅜ miles inland, it has an area of 6247¼ acres, of which 166 are foreshore and 230 water. The last is made up by two or three rivulets running direct to the Firth, by Whinhill Reservoir, and by the upper part of Gryfe Reservoir (2 miles × ¼ mile). Loch Thom (1¾ × ½ mile), also belonging to the Greenock Waterworks, falls just within Innerkip parish. The shore is fringed by a strip of level ground, 5 to 7 furlongs in breadth, that marks the old sea-margin of the Firth. The soil of this level portion is light, mixed with sand and gravel; but has been rendered very fertile, owing to the great encouragement given to cultivation from the constant demand for country produce by the numerous population. Beyond, the surface is hilly, attaining 400 feet at Caddle Hill, 813 at Whitelees Moor, 727 near Gryfe Reservoir, and 1175 in the extreme S. The lower slopes are diversified with patches of loam, clay, and till. Farther up, and towards the summits of the hills, the soil for the most part is thin and in places mossy, the bare rocks appearing here and there. The land in this quarter is little adapted for anything but pasturage for cattle and sheep. On the other side of the heights, except a few cultivated spots on the southern border of the parish, chiefly on the banks of the infant Gryfe, heath and coarse grass prevail. The views from the Greenock hills are varied, extensive, and grand, combining water, shipping, the scenery on either shore of the Clyde, and the lofty Highland mountains. The declivities of the hills overlooking the town and the river are adorned with villas, and diversified with thriving plantations, so that they present a very pleasant appearance. The part of the hills directly behind the town, too, is cloven to a low level by a fine narrow valley, through which run the road and the railway to Wemyss Bay. The contour of the declivities both towards this valley and towards the Clyde is rolling and diversified; and the general summit-line, in consequence of being at such a short distance from the shore, looks, from most points of view, to be much higher than it really is. Hence the landscape of the parish, particularly around the town, is decidedly picturesque. The rocks are chiefly the Old Red sandstone, with its conglomerate, near the shore, and various kinds of trap, principally basalt and whinstone, throughout the hills. The sandstone and the trap are quarried for building purposes.

The Clyde opposite the parish of Greenock varies in width from 1½ to 4 miles. In the middle of the Firth there is a sandbank called the Pillar Bank, which, com-

mencing almost immediately below Dumbarton Castle, or 7½ miles above Greenock, and running longitudinally, terminates at a point nearly opposite the western extremity of the town, well known to mariners and others by the name of the 'Tail of the Bank.' During spring tides, part of the bank opposite to the harbour is visible at low water; and the depth of the channel on the south side of this bank is such as to admit vessels of the largest class. Between Port Glasgow and Garvel Point, a remarkable promontory at the E end of the burgh, the high part of the bank is separated from the upper portion (part of which, opposite to Port Glasgow, is also dry at low water) by a narrow channel significantly called the 'Through-let,' through which the tide, passing from the lower part of the Firth in a north-easterly direction, and obstructed in its progress by Ardmore, a promontory on the Dumbartonshire side, rushes with such impetuosity as to produce high water at Port Glasgow a few minutes earlier than at Greenock. The submarine island which is thus formed, and which is commonly called the Greenock Bank, to distinguish it from the high part of the bank opposite to Port Glasgow, was granted by the Crown to the corporation of the town of Greenock for an annual payment of 'one penny Scots money, if asked only.' The charter by the Barons of Exchequer on behalf of the Crown, dated 5 July 1816, contains the following words expressive of the object which the corporation had in view in applying for the grant:—'Pro proposito ædificandi murum, vel acquirendi ad ripam antedictam ex australi latere ejusdem quantum ad septentrionem eadem possit acquiri,'—'for the purpose of building a wall or of gaining to the foresaid bank from its S side as much as can be gained to the N.' The southern channel is the only one for vessels passing to and from the different ports on the river, the greatest depth of water in the 'Through-let' being quite insufficient in its present state to admit of vessels of any considerable burden passing that way. The width of the navigable channel, opposite to the harbour of Greenock, does not much exceed 300 yards. Ascending, it rapidly diminishes in width—a circumstance which, but for the application of steam to the towing of ships, must continually have presented an almost insuperable obstacle to the progress of the shipping trade of Glasgow.

Prior to the Reformation Greenock was comprehended in the parish of Innerkip, and being at a great distance from the parish church, the inhabitants had the benefit of three chapels within their own bounds. One of them, and probably the principal, was dedicated to St Lawrence, from whom the adjacent expanse derived its name of the Bay of St Lawrence. It stood on the site of the house at the W corner of Virginia Street in Greenock, belonging to the heirs of Mr Roger Stewart. In digging the foundations of that house, a number of human bones were found, which proves that a burying-ground must have been attached to the chapel. On the lands still called Chapelton there stood another chapel, to which also there must have been a cemetery attached; for when these grounds were formed into a kitchen-garden many gravestones were found under the surface. A little below Kilblain there was placed a third religious house, the stones of which the tenant of the ground was permitted to remove for the purpose of enclosing his garden. From the name it is apparent that this was a cell or chapel dedicated to St Blane. After the Reformation, when the chapels were dissolved, the inhabitants of Greenock had to walk to the parish church of Innerkip, which was 6 miles distant, to join in the celebration of public worship. To remedy this inconvenience, John Shaw, the Superior of Greenock, obtained a grant from the King in 1589, authorising him to build a church for the accommodation of the people on his lands of Greenock, Finnart, and Spangock, who, it was represented, were 'all fishers, and of a reasonable number.' Power was also given to build a manse and form a churchyard. This grant was ratified by parliament in 1592. The arrangement resembled the erection of a chapel of ease in our own times. Shaw having, in 1592, built a church and a manse, and assigned a churchyard, an Act of Parliament was passed in 1594, whereby his lands above mentioned, with their tithes and ecclesiastical duties, were disjoined from the parsonage and vicarage of Innerkip, and erected into a distinct parsonage and vicarage, which were assigned to the newly erected parish church of Greenock; and this was ordained to take effect for the year 1593, and in all time thereafter.

The parish of Greenock continued, as thus established, till 1636, when there was obtained from the Lords Commissioners for the Plantation of Churches a decree, whereby the baronies of Easter and Wester Greenock, and various other lands which had belonged to the parish of Innerkip, with a small portion of the parish of Houstoun, were erected into a parish to be called Greenock, and the church formerly erected at Greenock was ordained to be the parochial church, of which Shaw was the patron. The limits which were then assigned to the parish of Greenock have continued to the present time; though, for some purposes, it has been subdivided since 1754 and 1809 into the three parishes of Old or West Greenock, New or Middle Greenock, and East Greenock. Ecclesiastically, again, it is distributed among the following parishes:—Cartsburn, East, Gaelic, Ladyburn, Middle, North, South, Wellpark, and West. Pop. of entire parish (1801) 17,458, (1821) 22,008, (1841) 36,936, (1861) 43,894, (1871) 59,794, (1881) 69,238, (1891) 66,247, of whom 39,035 were in West parish, 5311 in Middle parish, and 21,901 in East parish, whilst 11,104 were in Cartsburn *quoad sacra* parish, 8485 in East, 2312 in Ladyburn, 5311 in Middle, 3401 in North, 10,585 in South, 921 in Wellpark, and 23,962 in West.—*Ord. Sur.*, sh. 30, 1866.

The presbytery of Greenock, in the synod of Glasgow and Ayr, comprises the parishes of Cumbrae, Erskine, Fairlie, Gourock, Greenock (with its ecclesiastical subdivisions), Innerkip, Kilmalcolm, Langbank, Largs, Newark, Port Glasgow, and Skelmorlie; the chapelries of Augustine and St Paul's (Greenock), and a mission church (Newark). Pop. (1881) 96,876, (1891) 97,258, of whom 10,713 were communicants of the Church of Scotland in 1895. The Free Church presbytery of Greenock embraces 20 churches, 10 being in Greenock, 3 in Port Glasgow, and 7 in Cumbrae, Erskine, Fairlie, Gourock, Innerkip, Kilmalcolm, and Largs. The U.P. Church presbytery embraces 22 charges, viz., 7 in Greenock, 2 in Port Glasgow, 2 in Rothesay, and 11 at Campbeltown, Dunoon, Gourock, Innellan, Inveraray, Kilcreggan, Kirn, Largs, Millport, Southend, and Wemyss Bay.

Greenock, a parliamentary burgh, seaport, and seat of manufacture, the seventh town of Scotland in point of population. It is situated in the parish of the same name in Renfrewshire, in N latitude 55° 57′ 2″, and W longitude 4° 45′ 30″, by water being 21¼ miles WNW of Glasgow, 7¼ W of Dumbarton, 4 S of Helensburgh, and 7½ E of Dunoon, whilst by rail it is 22½ miles WNW of Glasgow, 15¾ WNW of Paisley, and 3 W by N of Port Glasgow. According to the popular view, Greenock received its name from a 'green oak' which once stood on the shore; but this derivation has no other foundation than the obvious pun, the oak being wholly apocryphal. Even when this etymology is disposed of, there is considerable doubt as to the origin of the name. One suggestion is the ancient British *graen-ag*, 'a gravelly or sandy place;' another, the Gaelic *grian-aig*, 'a sunny bay;' and a third, the Gaelic *grian-chnoc*, 'the knoll of the sun.' The two first derivations receive some countenance from circumstances, the soil of Greenock being gravelly, while the Highland portion of the present inhabitants pronounce the name like *Grian-aig*. The Gaelic etymology also receives acceptance in some quarters, because of supposed confirmation of it found in other places, such as Greenan in Ayrshire, and a farm of the same name in Perthshire, which are conjectured to have been seats of sun worship. The bay on which Greenock lies is a comparatively narrow one seaward, but it is long and expanded along the shore, and

appointed by the town council and half by the proprietors. It was transferred to the school-board in 1881. It is governed by a rector, assisted by a lady superintendent, 13 masters, 4 mistresses, etc. Besides this academy, the burgh school-board has under its control eleven public schools, upwards of £70,000 having been spent in the erection of new schools, in addition to those taken over by the board. A handsome new school (Ardgowan) was erected by the board in 1896-97. The other schools in the town embrace a number of ladies' and other 'adventure' schools, 2 schools maintained by the Episcopalian church, a charity school in Ann Street, and 2 schools maintained by the Roman Catholic Church. There are also a school of art and a school of navigation and engineering, to afford scientific training to the seafaring men, of whom the burgh is so productive.

There are in the town an industrial school, a night asylum for poor persons, a philosophical society, a medical and chirurgical association, a horticultural society, an agricultural society, a society for promoting Christian knowledge, Sailors' Home and reading-room, public baths, etc. Letterpress printing was established here in 1765 by Mr MacAlpine, who was also the first bookseller. It was confined to handbills, jobbing, etc., till 1810, when the first book was printed by William Scott. In 1821 Mr John Mennons began the printing of books; and many accurate and elegant specimens of typography, original and selected, issued from his press. There are two newspapers published in the town—the *Greenock Telegraph*, with which is incorporated the *Greenock Advertiser* (1802), a halfpenny evening newspaper established in 1857, the first in Great Britain; and the *Greenock Herald*, established in 1852, issued on Saturday at a penny.

Sir Gabriel Wood's Asylum for Mariners, already referred to, is an edifice in the Elizabethan style, in Newark Street, on the high road to Gourock, beyond the western outskirts of the town, built in 1851 at a cost of about £60,000, and liberally endowed for the maintenance of aged, infirm, and disabled seamen belonging to the counties bordering on the Clyde. This fine institution arose out of a bequest of £80,000 by Sir Gabriel Wood, who died in London in 1845. A beautiful new cemetery, extending to 90 acres, and already well decorated with tasteful monuments and other designs, has been laid out in the western outskirts of the town. From its higher points magnificent views are to be had. It contains a handsome memorial to Mr Robert Wallace, M.P., another, with bust, to Mr Walter Baine, provost and M.P., and other good monuments, notable among them being one in the form of a cairn, to the memory of Watt, embracing stones in marble, granite, freestone, etc., sent from many parts of the world, and many of them bearing appropriate inscriptions.

There are in Greenock branches of the Bank of Scotland, the Royal Bank (two offices), the British Linen Co.'s Bank, the Clydesdale Bank (two offices), the Commercial Bank (two offices), a Provident Bank, the National Bank of Scotland, and the Union Bank. The Greenock Bank, founded in 1785, was in 1843 amalgamated with the Western Bank of Scotland, which failed in 1857. The Renfrewshire Bank, established in 1812, continued to do business for 30 years, and was sequestrated in 1842. The town has numerous insurance agencies, a Lloyd's register, a Lloyd's agent, a local marine board, a chamber of commerce, a merchant seamen's fund, a fishery office, and full staffs of officials connected with the harbour and the public revenue. A weekly market is held on Friday; and fairs are held on the first Thursday of July and the third Tuesday of November. Nearly opposite the new post office, in Cathcart Street, are the Exchange buildings, finished in 1814 at a cost of £7000, and containing two assembly rooms and other accommodation. A news-room, coffee-room, and exchange was opened in Cathcart Square in 1821. Greenock Club is a handsome building in Ardgowan Square, part of which Square is occupied by the Ardgowan Bowling Club. The gas-works were constructed on the Glebe in 1828, and cost £8731, but in

1872 new gas-works were erected on Inchgreen, at the E of the town, at a cost of £150,000. The gas supply is in the hands of the corporation. There are three gasometers, with a total capacity of 1,750,000 cubic feet, the latest addition to this number having been made in November 1892, at a cost of over £6000. Its dimensions are 125 feet in diameter by 50 feet deep, with a capacity of 60,000 cubic feet. The new poorhouse and lunatic asylum for Greenock and the Lower Ward of Renfrewshire is a large and imposing building in the Scottish Baronial style, erected in 1874-79 on an elevated position at Smithston, to the S of the town. They were estimated to cost £50,000, but were only erected at a cost of £100,000. The infirmary in Duncan Street was built in 1809, and enlarged in 1869, from a legacy of £30,000 left by the late Mr Ferguson, sugar refiner. The Craigieknowes Hospital for smallpox is situated in Sinclair Street above the town to the E, where also provision is made for a cholera hospital. The Eye Infirmary, in the cottage-hospital style, and erected in 1893, at the corner of Nelson Street and Brisbane Street, was virtually the gift of Mr Anderson Rodger, shipbuilder, Port-Glasgow, and cost about £2000. Extensive and elegant premises were erected in the same year in Roxburgh Street for the Greenock Central Co-operative Society, at a cost of over £10,000.

Greenock is well provided with places of public recreation. Well Park was presented to the town in 1851 by Sir Michael Shaw Stewart, who later, in 1872, gifted the Wellington Park, on the higher ground behind, with cricket, bowling, and play grounds. The summit of the Whin Hill, beyond the Wellington Park, is also open as a public park. In 1879-80, during a depression of trade, the burgh police board gave employment to a large number of men in constructing Lyle Road, now one of the most delightful resorts of the people. It proceeds over the hill behind the Mariners' Asylum; and at 'Craig's Top,' 500 feet above sea-level, it affords a magnificent view. The road is 2 miles long, and descends in zigzag fashion to its termination at Gourock toll bar. The ground was gifted by Sir Michael Shaw Stewart, and the cost of the work was £17,000.

The railway passenger arrangements of Greenock, which were at one time of a rather unsatisfactory nature, the difficulty of the site preventing good station accommodation from being obtained, are now very complete. The Glasgow, Paisley, and Greenock railway was one of the earliest in Scotland, and now forms part of the Caledonian system. (See CALEDONIAN RAILWAY.) The old Cathcart Street station has now been remodelled, and almost entirely rebuilt, and the line continued on to Gourock. Cartsdyke station and Bogston, on this line, accommodate the most eastern portion of the town, where the new docks are situated. These are well provided with railway accommodation by both the Caledonian and South-Western companies. The last-named company is proprietor of a line on a higher level, which brings passengers to Lynedoch station, at the top of Dellingburn Street, on the southern elevated part of the town, and thence runs down to Princes Pier through two tunnels. From Princes Pier the Anchor line of steamers to America embark their passengers, who travel from Glasgow by special train upon this line. A third railway access to Greenock is provided by the Wemyss Bay section, the connection being at Upper Greenock, where there is a passenger station. From the two principal railways service lines run down to the various harbours and basins, so that the facilities for loading and unloading goods at the port are of a comprehensive kind. The Vale of Clyde Tramway Company has a line through Greenock, extending to Gourock and Ashton along the coast a distance of about 4 miles, the Greenock portion of which is owned by the corporation, who have also, by an Act of Parliament in 1893, acquired power to purchase the Gourock section of the line.

The water supply of Greenock is copious and excellent. The rainfall at the gauges at the waterworks shows great diversity, but in every year the fall is large. The Shaws Waterworks, incorporated as a private com-

Pocket History and Guide to Brechin,
D. H. Edwards, 1884.

her father in Ayrshire. Only four weeks prior to her death we heard her sing, with touching sweetness, a beautiful song, entitled "Jean Armour's Lament." She was one of the small surviving remnant who beheld, not with infant, but with adult eyes, the birth, development, and old age of this marvellous nineteenth century.

In March, 1882, Mr James Smart, manufacturer, gave the sum of £500 for the purpose of founding a bursary in the branch of mechanical engineering in connection with University College, Dundee—the first bursary established in connection with the College. It was Mr Smart's intention to have given this £500 towards the erection of a new hall for the Mechanics' Institution. The Town Council, however, having resolved to erect a new hall, the directors of the institution gave up the scheme; and Mr Smart, seeing his intended benefaction was not required, resolved to give it a wider scope. In October 1883, a gas engine of 10-horse power was erected at Glencadam Distillery—the sixth engine of the kind in the city—the largest number in any town of its size in the United Kingdom.

The Model Lodging-house "returns" for the first year of its existence (1881) afford an interesting subject for reflection and comment. From Mr Brown's carefully prepared statement we find that the total number who took advantage of this institution was 9725—5945 males, 1952 females, and 1828 children. These visitors included 30 each waiters and masons. Joiners followed close in the wake with the somewhat moderate number of 26, succeeded by cabinet-makers, plasterers, and schoolmasters, who, singularly enough, are represented by 20 respectively. This is somewhat astonishing, and it is a remarkable circumstance that teachers should be found to have exceeded printers as itinerants by 3, and to have outnumbered

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bricklayers and bookbinders. There were a round dozen "quack salving knaves," while the noble company was further swelled by the addition of two clergymen—of what denomination it sayeth not—who were fain to take up their quarters with two Punch and Judy men (the Church and Stage in Union), and four sleight-of-hand men. Among such a miscellaneous gathering a high order of morals is not to be looked for; but the state of matters revealed by Mr Brown, the keeper of the Brechin "Model," is enough to strike despair into the hearts of social reformers. Of the number who visited the house during the year 1882, 3276 were males, 1490 females, and 807 children. Of the former, no fewer than 1100 went to bed under the influence of liquor, 200 were locked up in an outhouse drunk and incapable, and kept there till sober, while the behaviour of five others resulted in their being brought before the police. Of the women, 500 went to bed intoxicated, while 70 others were quartered as incapables amongst straw in the outhouse. Perhaps the most deplorable circumstance, however, in these statistics is the fact that of the 807 children there were only 11 who could read a little. Another noteworthy particular is the extraordinary preponderance of the Irish element "on the road." Of the males 2152 were Irish, 700 English, 197 Scotch, 105 German, 50 Italian, 42 American, 20 Welsh, 4 negroes, 4 French, and 2 Jews. So, too, we find that of the females 1362 were Irish, 60 Scotch, and 59 English. Many of Mr Brown's patrons would, it can be imagined, trade on their infirmities. Thus we find that the male possessors of only one leg numbered 72, while 63 were one-armed, and other 12 were blind. Two of the females were one-armed, one was blind, while another was minus a leg. Religious services are conducted by the city missionary every Sunday.

from the head of Loch Ness; and a canal cut of 5 miles 35 chains, with locks at Kytra and Aberchalder, goes thence to Loch Oich. The summit-level of navigation, Loch Oich lies 105 feet above high-water mark at Clachnaharry and Fort William; measures 3 miles 56 chains along the line of navigation; is, in many places, very shallow; and varies more than 9 feet in depth, according to the season. It thus presented great difficulties to the formation of a ship-passage—difficulties that were only overcome by the construction of a reservoir in Glengarry, for feeding it when low. A canal cut of 1 mile 65 chains goes from Loch Oich to Loch Lochy; and has two locks—the one a regulating lock to meet the occasional flooding of Loch Oich, the other having a fall of 9½ feet to suit the difference of level between the two lakes. Loch Lochy (93 feet) is 9⅝ miles long; and, for the purposes of the navigation, was raised about 12 feet above its natural level, by closing up its effluence into the river Lochy, and forming a new outlet for it at a higher level, so as to send off its effluence into the river Spean. A permanent weir, partly constructed of masonry, partly excavated from solid rock, was formed across the new outlet; and occasions the effluence to fall into the Spean at a point about 600 yards SE of the exit of the navigation from Loch Lochy. A regulating lock occurs at Gairlochy, near the foot of Loch Lochy; a canal cutting, 6¾ miles in length, extends thence to Banavie; a series of eight locks, commonly called Neptune's Staircase, occurs at Banavie; and another canal cut, 1¼ mile in length, with a descent of two more locks, extends thence to the sea-lock at Corpach, in the vicinity of Fort William. The navigation from end to end is so direct as to measure but 4 miles longer than a mathematical straight line; and has been so well maintained in its artificial portions as to make wonderful resistance to the abrading action of storm and flood. Twenty-eight locks are on the line—14 between the Moray Firth and Loch Oich, and 14 between Loch Oich and Loch Eil; and each is 170 feet long by 40 wide. The depth of water in the shallowest parts of the canal, at the standard level, is 17 feet. Steam tugboats have been put on for tugging vessels through the lochs and estuaries on the line of the navigation.

The canal, though a magnificent public work, cannot be said to have ever satisfactorily attained its purpose. It affords great facility to the transit of the northern fishing boats, insomuch that in one year over 500 sailed through it in an almost unbroken line; it also has considerable value, both commercially and for tourists, in affording prompt regular transit to steamers between Inverness and the Firth of Lorn; it likewise has given important aid or impulse to several departments of local trade; but it never has answered well the grand design, for which it was formed, of carrying sea-borne vessels from sea to sea along Glenmore. The annual receipts, too, as compared with the annual expenditure, tell no very flattering tale—the latter sometimes exceeding the former considerably. New lock-gates were (1892-93) provided throughout the canal, at an estimated cost of £20,000, met by Government grant.—*Ord. Sur.*, shs. 83, 73, 63, 62, 53.

Caledonian Railway. A railway originally designed as a trunk line connecting Edinburgh and Glasgow with Carlisle, but now embracing an extensive district, and forming the second in point of mileage and the first as regards traffic receipts of the railway systems in Scotland. An elaborate examination of the various proposals for providing railway facilities between England and Scotland was made by a Royal Commission, whose final report, 15th March, 1841, gave the preference to what is now the Caledonian system. It was not till 1845, however, that a Bill was brought into Parliament for its sanction. After a very severe contest an Act for its construction was passed in July, 1845, embracing a main line from Carlisle to Carstairs, in Lanarkshire, dividing there into a fork reaching Edinburgh on the one hand and Glasgow on the other, with a spur from the latter arm of the fork to join the Scottish Central railway at Greenhill for Stirling, Perth, and the North of Scotland. In constructing this, 122½ miles in length, there was also taken in a portion of the Glasgow and Garnkirk and Wishaw and Coltness railways, lines opened in 1831 and 1834, and ranking early in the railway enterprise of the kingdom. For the original line, which was completed in 1848, the authorised capital was £2,100,000 in shares and £700,000 in loans. By extensions, amalgamations, leases, and working agreements the Caledonian railway now consists of 864 miles of railway owned by the company, 127 miles worked under agreement, 49½ miles of other companies' lines used under running powers, and the Forth and Clyde Canal, 52¾ miles, being a total of 1093¼ miles of public communications in the hands of the company. Of the system there are 2½ miles consisting of four lines of railways, 495 miles consisting of double line, the remainder consisting of single line. At July 1891 the capital expenditure of the company amounted to £42,997,512, of which there was raised in shares £33,494,492 (of which sum £11,797,084 stood as 'ordinary stock,' £2,784,693 as 'deferred' stock, and the remainder as 'guaranteed' and 'preference' stocks), and in loan and debenture stock £8,158,513, with some minor items of receipt. This capital total is to a certain extent fictitious, owing to the creation of nominal capital in consolidating various guaranteed and preference stocks, formerly carrying various dividends into stock at one uniform rate; and the 'deferred' capital is also nominal, being created to represent the claims of some of those consolidated stocks to contingent rights of dividend under certain specified circumstances.

In the half-year last reported, the railway carried 599,716 first class, 208,503 second class, and 10,514,301 third class passengers, making with 14,205 season-ticket holders, a total of 11,336,725 passengers, yielding a total revenue of £466,720. The goods revenue amounted to £859,625, the total revenue for the half-year being thus over 1¼ million of money. To carry this trade the company possessed 681 locomotive engines, 1731 passenger vehicles (including horse boxes, luggage vans, etc.), and 42,938 waggons, 30,644 of the latter being engaged in the vast mineral traffic of the company. In the course of the half-year those vehicles traversed in all 6,728,637 train-miles, of which there were run for passenger traffic 3,426,883 train-miles, and for goods and mineral traffic 3,301,754 miles. The gross revenue per train-mile was 54·48d., the passenger train average being 40·05d., and the goods train average 69·36d. per mile. As the main route of the mail service in Scotland, the Caledonian received in the half-year the sum of £33,957 for the conveyance of mails. The affairs of the company are controlled by a board of directors, fourteen in number.

As now extended, the Caledonian railway system covers a large portion of the railway map of Scotland, having Carlisle for its southern, and Aberdeen for its northern terminus, touching on the W Dumfries, Portpatrick, Ardrossan, Kilmarnock, Irvine, Wemyss Bay, Gourock, Greenock, Glasgow, Stirling, Bridge of Allan, Dunblane, Callander, Oban, Crieff, and Perth, and on the E Aberdeen, Arbroath, Dundee, Edinburgh, Leith, Carstairs, and Peebles. North-west of Perth the country is served by the Highland, and north and west of Aberdeen by the Great North of Scotland and allied railway systems. The various parts composing the Caledonian railway will be incidentally noticed under the name of the district where they occur; here only the general scope of the system will be detailed, proceeding from S to N.

From Carlisle to Beattock the line, which was opened in 1847, passes through a richly varied district, chiefly agricultural. Eight miles of the line are in England, and between the junction with the North British Longtown branch at Gretna and the Gretna Junction, a bridge over the Sark brings the line into Scotland. At Gretna Junction the Glasgow and South-Western main line strikes off to Annan and Dumfries, the traffic of that line into Carlisle being conducted under running powers. The next junction on the Caledonian system is at Kirtlebridge, where the Solway Junction line, sanctioned in 1864, branches off, crossing the Solway to Brayton, on

the Maryport and Carlisle line. The portion of the Solway Junction railway N of the Firth from the important town of Annan, was purchased by the Caledonian in 1873. The first town of importance on the main line is Lockerbie, where important lamb fairs and other stock markets are held, and where the line branches off to Dumfries, Stranraer, and Portpatrick. The Dumfries, Lochmaben, and Lockerbie Company was incorporated in 1860, to construct a line 14½ miles long, running through a pleasing district, opening up to view the numerous lochs which give the old burgh of Lochmaben its name, and giving Dumfries an important outlet to the N and E. The line was amalgamated with the Caledonian in 1865. Westwards from Dumfries, to Castle-Douglas, the railway, 19½ miles long, is in the hands of the Glasgow and South-Western Railway Company, and from Castle-Douglas to Stranraer and Portpatrick, the line (the Portpatrick) is now owned and worked by the Caledonian, Glasgow and South-Western, London and North-Western, and Midland Companies jointly. These companies have also running powers and facilities granted under statute to work over the Castle-Douglas railway from Dumfries to Castle-Douglas. The working companies through the Portpatrick railway provide an important connection with Ireland by means of steamers between Stranraer and Larne, now the shortest sea route since the passage formerly maintained between Portpatrick and Donaghadee was given up. The total mileage of the Portpatrick railway is 61½ miles, including the branch to Stranraer harbour.

Returning to the main Caledonian line, it is found to proceed northward through Annandale, till Beattock is reached. A branch line, opened 1883, to Moffat, 2 miles from Beattock, brings that favourite spa into connection with the railway system. North of Beattock there are deep rock cuttings, and the line ascends on a steep gradient to the summit-level, where an elevation 1012 feet above the sea is reached, about 10 miles beyond Beattock. The basin of the Clyde is now reached, at the lower parts of which the Caledonian railway has its greatest source of traffic and revenue. At Symington, a branch to Biggar and Peebles, 19¼ miles long, is thrown off. This railway was constructed to Broughton, 8 miles, under an Act of 1858, and in 1860 the extension to Peebles was authorised, and the line was amalgamated with the Caledonian in 1861. The main line is at this point, and for some distance northward, passing through a moorland and mountainous district, giving little promise of local traffic, but there are few parts of the railway system of the country where a larger or more important through traffic is carried. At Carstairs is an important junction. On the first construction of the line, it was merely the place where the lines for Edinburgh and Glasgow bifurcated, but it is now also the junction for the Lanark, Douglas, and Ayr route, and for a branch to Dolphinton, as well as a central goods and mineral yard for general traffic. The Dolphinton branch, 11 miles in length, was constructed in 1867. From Cleghorn, 2¼ miles beyond Carstairs, the Lanark and Douglas branch, authorised in 1860, leaves the main line, but the passenger traffic is now worked direct to Carstairs. In 1865, a line of 11 miles was authorised from Douglas to Muirkirk, and on the opening of the 'Ayrshire lines' of the Glasgow and South-Western railway in 1872, running powers gave the Caledonian direct access to Ayr.

The Edinburgh section of the original line is 27½ miles long, and is now augmented by a series of branches and extensions. At Midcalder Junction the railway is joined by the Cleland line, 21 miles, constructed in 1868 to afford a short route between Edinburgh and Glasgow. This extension, which was opposed by the North British, was eventually constructed under an agreement by which the Caledonian consented not to oppose further the Tay Bridge scheme and other works then contemplated by the North British Company. An arrangement subsists by which all through passenger traffic between Edinburgh and Glasgow is shared between the two companies in certain proportions, irrespective of the number of passengers carried by each. Nearer Edinburgh a loop line, 5¼ miles, constructed in 1874, leads to Balerno and Currie, rejoining the main line at Slateford. In the immediate vicinity of Edinburgh various connections have been made, being loops to facilitate the transference of traffic from the Leith branch, etc. A junction with the North British was also formed, by which the transfer of the North of Scotland traffic to the Company's own (Princes Street) station is made instead of to the North British 'Waverley' station. The Granton and Leith branches, 8 miles in all, were constructed as goods lines merely under Acts of 1857 and 1862, but in 1880 the Leith line was opened as a suburban passenger railway, with several stations, affording facilities to residents N and W of Edinburgh. The western breakwater at Granton harbour is used as a quay for railway traffic, and there, as well as at Leith docks, the Company derives a large traffic outward and inward. The terminus in Edinburgh is at the W end of Princes Street, where a handsome and commodious passenger station was erected in 1892-93. Large goods and mineral yards have been laid out at Lothian Road and Morrison Street.

From Edinburgh, the Caledonian holds running powers over the North British railway to its own station at Larbert in Stirlingshire, and from this line there is a branch to Grangemouth, where the Company has constructed extensive dock and harbour works, and where the Forth and Clyde Canal has its eastern connection with the sea. This canal, which was acquired by the Company in 1867, was opened from sea to sea in 1790, and is 37 miles in length, with a summit-level of 150 feet, reached by 20 locks on the E side and 19 locks on the W. The capital, on amalgamation with the railway, was £1,141,333, on which the railway company guaranteed a dividend of £71,333 annually, or 6¼ per cent., converted in 1881 to a 4 per cent. stock by the nominal increase of the capital at that rate to absorb the amount of the annuity.

Reverting to Carstairs Junction, the western fork proceeds to Gariongill, at which point, as already indicated, the route follows, as far as Glasgow, lines made under powers taken some of them as early as 1826, comprising 19 miles in all. Between Gariongill and Glasgow, by means of branches to a large number of outlying places, the map here presents a complex network of lines, the greater part of which is in the hands of the Caledonian. The main trunk route to the N, over which the 'limited mail' travels, diverges at Motherwell, proceeding to Castlecary and Lower Greenhill, where the Scottish Central section, subsequently referred to, carries the line to Stirling, Perth, etc. Approaching Glasgow from the S, the route principally followed until lately was by the old Garnkirk route, reaching Buchanan Street station. The Central station in Gordon Street, with a splendid bridge over the Clyde above Broomielaw and parallel to Glasgow Bridge, was opened in 1879, at a cost approaching two millions sterling, since which time both the S traffic and the trains by the direct Cleland and Midcalder route to Edinburgh have been conducted to the new station. After crossing the river on leaving Glasgow, this line follows the route of the Clydesdale Junction, constructed in 1849, and incorporated as part of the Caledonian original system. It must suffice to say that the Caledonian in this district possesses lines to Larkhall and Lesmahagow, Stonehouse, Strathaven, Hamilton, East Kilbride, etc., and numerous mineral connections over and above its passenger lines. The Greenock and Paisley railway, opened in 1841, was taken as part of the Caledonian system in 1847, under a dividend guarantee, with a separate board for financial purposes. The Greenock branch was extended to Gourock in 1889, where the trains run alongside a new pier constructed by the Company. A fleet of well-appointed saloon steamers ply daily at short intervals between Gourock, Kirn, Dunoon, Innellan, Rothesay, and the West Highlands, and the steamers 'Columba,' 'Iona,' 'Lord of the Isles,' and 'Ivanhoe' call during the season. The Wemyss Bay railway, 10 miles, was constructed in 1865, and is worked by the Caledonian, and, by means of an extensive service of steamers, provides a favourite

route to the watering places of the Clyde and the West Highlands. By an Act passed in 1869, the Caledonian became joint-owner with the Glasgow and South-Western of the line to Kilmarnock. The Lanarkshire and Ayrshire Company's line, which is worked by the Caledonian Company, extends from Lugton station on the Glasgow, Barrhead, and Kilmarnock joint line to Kilwinning, Saltcoats, Ardrossan, Kilbirnie, and Irvine, and affords another route from Glasgow and Lanarkshire to these places, and to Arran in opposition to that of the Glasgow and South-Western Company. The distance from Glasgow to Ardrossan by the new route is 29½ miles and by the old route 31½. A pier and dock have been constructed at Ardrossan at great expense to meet the requirements of the passenger, mineral, and goods traffic by the new route.

The Scottish Central railway, projected in 1845, was completed from Greenhill to Perth in 1848, this portion being 45½ miles in length, and some additions were subsequently made to it prior to its amalgamation with the Caledonian in 1865, this amalgamation being carried after a fierce parliamentary contest. The extensions before and since amalgamation embrace a branch to Denny, 3 miles, and a branch to Alloa. The Caledonian Company also work the Kilsyth and Bonnybridge Railway in conjunction with the North British Company. At Dunblane, the Dunblane, Doune, and Callander, 10½ miles, branches off. This line was opened in 1858, and was leased by the Scottish Central, being subsequently amalgamated by it, and so eventually brought into Caledonian hands. The importance of this branch has been increased by the construction of the Callander and Oban railway, 72 miles, separately noticed, which is worked by the Caledonian Company. Near Auchterarder, a branch to Crieff, 9 miles, strikes off from the main line, and forms a circular route with the Crieff and Methven Junction, 11½ miles, and the Methven and Almond Valley to Perth, 6 miles, both now included in the Caledonian railway system. At Moncrieff, the North British Perth line *via* Fife joins the Caledonian, over which line they have running powers into Perth General Station. This station is the key of the whole of the traffic in the N of Scotland, and is in consequence a railway centre of great importance. The Caledonian Company possesses two routes out of Perth, one by the Dundee and Perth, 20½ miles to Dundee, and the other by Coupar-Angus to Forfar and Aberdeen. The line to Dundee, opened in 1847, was amalgamated in 1863 with the Scottish Central, and in 1865 with the Caledonian. From Dundee, the Caledonian holds the Newtyle line, 14¼ miles, which formerly left the town by a series of steep slopes worked by stationary engines, but was subsequently taken round by Lochee on better gradients, thus providing a line to that important suburb of Dundee. The Newtyle joins the other line from Perth, above referred to, near Meigle. The Dundee and Arbroath railway, 17 miles, was opened in 1838, and at an early period in its history was leased to the Scottish North-Eastern, by whom it was subsequently amalgamated as part of the Caledonian system. In 1879, carrying out a scheme originally sanctioned when the Tay Bridge Act was passed, this line was converted into a 'joint' possession of the Caledonian and North British companies, managed independently by a directorate elected by the two boards, so that this 17 miles forms an integral part of both systems. From the neighbourhood of Broughty Ferry is another cross line, joining the northern section from Perth. This is the Dundee and Forfar, or 'Forfar Direct' line, 17½ miles long.

The railways last described do not reckon as part of the main 'through' route to Aberdeen, that being on the other line proceeding N from Perth, but the Dundee and Arbroath line is continued to join the main line near Guthrie, forming a less direct through route. The first section of this route beyond Perth was constructed in 1848 as the Scottish Midland Junction line, reaching to Forfar 33¼ miles. A short distance from Perth this line receives on the left the Almond Bank and Crieff railway, already mentioned, and at Stanley Junction the Highland railway, which enjoys running powers over the Caledonian from this point to Perth, branches off. From Coupar-Angus, a branch leads to Blairgowrie, 5 miles, this being part of the original scheme; at Meigle, a branch to Alyth, 5¼ miles, joins the main line, constructed under an Act of 1868, and amalgamated with the Caledonian in 1875. Another branch, 3½ miles, goes to Kirriemuir, this having also been part of the original Midland Junction scheme. From Forfar on the one hand, and Arbroath on the other, there is a line, 15½ miles, originally a separate undertaking to unite those two towns, and opened as early as 1839. When the Aberdeen railway was projected, this line was incorporated as a fork, the railway to Aberdeen leaving at Guthrie Junction, 50¼ miles from Aberdeen, and having a junction fork at Friockheim towards Arbroath, thus affording access to both the routes to Perth that have been described. Branches from Bridge of Dun to Brechin, and Dubton to Montrose, diverge from the main line, Guthrie to Aberdeen. In 1866 the whole of the lines now described from Perth to Aberdeen, which had already been associated as the Scottish North-Eastern, were incorporated with the Caledonian system.

The district commanded by the Caledonian Company is very much diversified, both as regards the scenery of the line, the character and occupation of the population, and the nature of the traffic drawn from the various sections. In no part of its system does it present memorable engineering works, although the difficulties of crossing some of the mosses on the original line from Carlisle, the solid rock tunnels on the Greenock and Gourock line and at Moncrieff Hill, the heavy cuttings near Beattock, the romantic and adventurous route through Glen Ogle on the Callander and Oban line, the bridge over the Forth at Alloa, the bridge over the Clyde at Glasgow, and the Central station there may deserve special notice. In Glasgow it forms the principal means of communication between this centre of the cotton, iron, and shipbuilding interests of Scotland, and the famous mineral district of Clydesdale. At Ardrossan, Greenock, Glasgow, Grangemouth, Granton, Leith, and Dundee, a large shipping trade is done, carrying coals and iron for export, and receiving a varied traffic in the imports from the Continent and America at those various ports. The line from Carlisle to Perth forms the main artery in Scotland of the great postal stream borne through the country by the 'limited mail,' and to Callander, Oban, and Aberdeen the mail is carried forward by rapid trains, as it is beyond Stanley over the Highland line. As a passenger line the Caledonian takes high rank, its stations embracing all the 'eight large towns' in Scotland, as well as nearly every populous district in the kingdom. As a means of access to the picturesque parts of Scotland, it occupies a position of great advantage, and issues an extensive programme of routes for tourists, embracing, on its own line, Bothwell, 'Tillitudlem,' and the Falls of Clyde near Glasgow, with Edinburgh, Stirling, Oban, Perth, and Aberdeen amongst the attractive towns, and a journey of unexcelled interest through Perthshire and Argyllshire to Oban and the West Highlands. It also offers a series of circular tours through the Highlands and islands by means of the steamboats and railway companies with which it is in alliance. It forms part of the west coast route of communication between England and Scotland, acting in close alliance with the London and North-Western Railway Company. In this relation the Caledonian enjoys a large share of the traffic to and from England, and a practical monopoly of the railway traffic between Liverpool and Scotland.

Calf, a small island and a sea-strait in the NE of Orkney. The island lies off the NE extremity of Eday; measures about 1½ mile in length, and ¾ mile in extreme breadth; and is entirely pastoral. The strait is comparatively narrow, and forms a good harbour.

Calf or Calve, a small island in Kilninian parish, Argyllshire, lying nearly across the entrance of Tobermory harbour, on the NE coast of Mull.

Calfa, a small island near Tiree, Outer Hebrides, Argyllshire.

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are Craigie, Claypots, and Duntrune. Dundee is the seat of a presbytery in the synod of Angus and Mearns. It ranked till 1834 as one parish, but was served by two ministers from the Reformation till 1609; it acquired a third minister in 1609, a fourth and a fifth in 1789; and it now is divided into the *quoad civilia* parishes of Dundee proper, St Mary, St Clement, and St Paul, with much of St David and St John, and contains whole or part of the *quoad sacra* parishes of St Matthew, St Mark, St Andrew, St Enoch, Chapelshade, Clepington, Wallacetown, Rosebank, and Logie, and the chapelries of Maryfield and St Thomas.—*Ord. Sur.*, shs. 48, 49, 1868-65.

The presbytery of Dundee comprises the old parishes of Dundee, Abernyte, Auchterhouse, Inchture, Kinnaird, Liff and Benvie, Longforgan, Lundie and Fowlis, Mains and Strathmartine, Monifieth, Monikie, Murroes, and Tealing; the *quoad sacra* parishes of Broughty Ferry, Broughty Ferry-St Stephens, Dundee-St Matthew, Dundee-St Mark, Dundee-St Andrew, Dundee-St Enoch, Chapelshade, Clepington, Wallacetown, Rosebank, Logie, Lochee, and Lochee-St Luke; and the chapelries of Dundee-St Thomas, Maryfield, Invergowrie, Downfield, and Monifieth-St Margaret, and Beach Mission. Pop. (1881) 163,732, (1891) 178,795, of whom 24,808 were communicants of the Church of Scotland in 1892. The Free Church also has a presbytery of Dundee, with 18 churches in Dundee, 3 in Broughty Ferry, 2 in Monifieth, and 7 in respectively Abernyte, Liff, Lochee, Longforgan, Mains, Monikie, and Tealing. The U.P. Synod has also a presbytery of Dundee, with 14 churches in Dundee, 2 in Kirriemuir, 2 in Broughty Ferry, and 5 in respectively Alyth, Blairgowrie, Ferry-Port-on-Craig, Newbigging, and Newport.

See Mackie's *Historical Description of Dundee* (1836); Maxwell's *Historical and Descriptive Guide to Dundee* (1858); Thomson's *History of Dundee* (1847); Warden's *Linen Trade Ancient and Modern* (1864); Warden's *Burgh Laws* (1872); Norrie's *Dundee Celebrities of the Nineteenth Century* (1873); Norrie's *Handbook to Dundee Past and Present* (1876); Beatts's *Municipal History of Dundee* (1873); Maclaren's *History of Dundee* (1874); Hay's *Charters, Writs, and Public Documents of Dundee* (1880); Millar's *Roll of Eminent Burgesses of Dundee* (1887); Maxwell's *Old Dundee* (2 vols., 1884-91); Lamb's *Dundee, its Quaint and Historic Buildings* (1893); and the *Dundee Year-Book* (Leng & Co.)

Dundee and Arbroath Railway, a railway in the S and SE of Forfarshire, from Dundee east-north-eastward to Arbroath. It was authorised, in 1836, on a capital of £266,700 in shares and £88,900 in loans; was opened in April 1840; became amalgamated with the Scottish North-Eastern in July 1863; and passed, with the North-Eastern, to the Caledonian in July 1866. On Feb. 1, 1880, the North British Railway Co. became joint owners of the line with the Caledonian Co. It is 17 miles long; traverses the parishes of Dundee, Monifieth, Barry, Panbride, St Vigeans, Arbirlot, and Arbroath; and has junctions at Broughty Ferry with the northern terminus or Dundee-ward fork of the North British railway, and at Arbroath with the E end of the Arbroath and Forfar railway, and through that with the Aberdeen section of the Caledonian. It commences at Trades Lane in Dundee; runs parallel with Dock Street; crosses, for about a mile, a baylet of the Firth of Tay; traverses a very deep rock cutting on the Craigie estate; intersects, at two different points, the road between Dundee and Broughty Ferry; goes along Broughty Ferry links, and through the barren sands of Monifieth and Barry; traverses thence, for 6½ miles, a tract of little interest; and has, in its course, both under and over it, a number of beautifully constructed bridges.

Dundee and Forfar Railway, a railway in the S of Forfarshire, from Dundee north-north-eastward to Forfar. It was authorised, in July 1864, on a capital of £125,000 in shares and £40,000 in loans; is 17¼ miles long; and was opened in Nov. 1870. It belonged, at first, to the Scottish North-Eastern Company; and passed, with the rest of the North-Eastern system, to the Caledonian. It gives direct communication between Dundee and Forfar, in lieu of the circuitous route by way of Arbroath; and connects, at Forfar, with the lines thither from respectively Arbroath and Perth. A plot of 9 acres for its use at Forfar was purchased, on the eve of its opening, from the Forfar Town Council.

Dundee and Newtyle Railway, a railway in the SW of Forfarshire, from Dundee north-westward to Newtyle. It was originally a single truck line, 10½ miles long, formed on an authorised capital of £140,000 in shares and £30,000 in loans, and opened in 1831; was leased in perpetuity, under an act of 1846, to the Dundee and Perth Company, with further authorised capital of £50,000 in shares and £16,666 in loans; underwent alterations and extensions, under both that act and an act of 1859, with still further authorised capital of £70,000 in preference shares; was again extended and improved, to the aggregate length of 4½ miles, under acts of 1862 and 1864, on further authorised capital of £49,000 in shares and £14,900 in loans; became amalgamated as part of the Dundee and Perth system with the Scottish Central in 1863; and passed, as part of the Scottish Central system, to the Caledonian in 1865. It originally left Dundee on an inclined plane 800 yards long, with a gradient of 1 yard in 10, and proceeded through a shoulder of Dundee Law in a tunnel 340 yards long; and had a branch for goods traffic, through the streets of Dundee to the terminus of the Dundee and Perth railway; but these features of it have disappeared. A new reach, in lieu of the discarded portions, and measuring 7¾ miles in length, was opened in June 1859; and a branch to Lochee, 6 miles in length, was opened in June 1861. It traverses the parishes of Dundee, Liff and Benvie, Mains and Strathmartine, Auchterhouse, and Newtyle; ascends an inclined plane, in the gorge of the Sidlaws, to a summit-elevation of 544 feet above sea-level, and descends a second inclined plane, through the Slack of Newtyle, into the valley of Strathmore; connects there, with the North-Eastern section of the Caledonian system, by branches, some of which were originally its own; and communicates, through these, with Coupar-Angus, Meigle, Glamis, and Forfar.

Dundee and Perth Railway, a railway in Forfar and Perth shires, from Dundee west-south-westward, along the northern bank of the Tay, to Perth. It is 21¾ miles long, and, opened in May 1847, was amalgamated in 1863 with the Scottish Central, with which it passed to the Caledonian in 1865. It commences at Yeaman Shore, in Dundee; skirts the western part of that town on a sea embankment; runs along the face of the romantic cliff of Will's Braes; traverses the charming beach of Invergowrie Bay, near Invergowrie village; crosses the great sandstone quarries of Kingoodie on a stupendous viaduct; passes near Inchture Bay and Powgavie Harbour; sheers off to some little distance from Errol, and northward of Inchyra; coincides again with the river's bank, past Kinnoull; crosses the Tay, from Barnhill, on a magnificent bridge of great length, in the form of a segment of a circle, with the central part resting on an island; terminates at the Princes station in Perth; and connects, at its E end, with the Dundee and Newtyle railway—at its W end, with the several railways radiating from Perth. The scenery along its course, through the Carse of Gowrie, and past Kinnoull Hill all onward to Perth, is everywhere beautiful, in many places brilliant, from Glencarse to Perth superb. The final meeting of the shareholders as an independent company was held on Jan. 6, 1882.

Dundavid. See DUNTULM.

Dundelchack or Dun na Seilcheig, a loch on the mutual border of Daviot and Dores parishes, NE Inverness-shire, 8½ miles SSW of Inverness. Lying 702 feet above sea-level, it has an utmost length from SW to NE of 3⅜ miles, whilst its breadth varies between 2⅜ furlongs and ·1 mile. It sends off a rivulet eastward to Loch Clachan, and thence to the river Nairn. Trout and red char are plentiful, the former running up to 4 lbs., but