

Economic Imperialism

Let us ask, where is your conscience? I have heard that the smoking of opium is very strictly forbidden by your country; that is because the harm caused by opium is clearly understood. Since it is not permitted to do harm to your own country, then even less should you let it be passed on to the harm of other countries – how much less to China!

—Lin Zexu, Chinese Commissioner in Canton,
letter to British Queen Victoria, January 15, 1840

Essential Question: What economic factors contributed to the imperialism in the global economy between 1750 and 1900?

For centuries, India was the world's leading supplier of finished cotton textiles. By the late 18th century, the Industrial Revolution and a new source of cotton from America had allowed Britain to flood the market with inexpensive textiles, pushing independent Indian textile artisans out of business. By the late 19th century, India was producing only raw cotton for Britain, not cotton textiles. After Britain's textile factories processed India's cotton, the colonial government sold some of its factory-made or "finished" textiles back to the Indian subcontinent at inflated prices.

Another critical raw material for Britain was the drug opium. The poppies from which it is obtained grew easily on South Asia's fertile lands, and selling it to the Chinese became very profitable for Britain. The Chinese, as Lin Zexu expressed in the letter to Queen Victoria, objected to the export of opium to their country, and the conflict resulted in the first Opium War. The Chinese paid a heavy price for their attempt to curtail the opium trade and ended up losing much trading independence.

The Rise of Economic Imperialism

The agricultural influence and power of raw materials shifted away from Asia and Latin America to industrialized states such as Britain, the United States, France, Japan, and Germany between the late 19th century and the beginning of the 20th century. **Economic imperialism**, a situation in which foreign business interests have great economic power or influence, developed as businesses took advantage of natural resources beyond their borders. People, raw materials, and refined materials were the main resources exploited. Cash crops and mineral resources were produced on a large scale. As in the colonial

era of the 15th and 18th centuries, colonial powers served their own economic interests by turning colonies into export economies that produced goods not for domestic use but to be sent to colonial powers to sell for profit.

Economic Imperialism in Asia

England's defeat of the Spanish Armada in 1588 created an opening for the British and Dutch to take over the spice trade in Asia from the Spanish and Portuguese, who formerly had a monopoly on it.

India The English **East India Company** formed in 1600 to engage in the lucrative spice trade. However, the company soon ran into opposition from the Dutch. By the mid-1600s cotton and silk textiles from India had replaced spices as the East India Company's major import, and by the 1700s the company dominated the world textile trade. Indian weavers learned to create fabrics with patterns that would appeal to European tastes. With the Industrial Revolution, India began supplying raw cotton to the textile mills of Britain, and the demand for finished Indian textiles decreased.

Dutch East Indies The **Dutch East India Company** had a monopoly on trade with the Dutch East Indies in present-day Indonesia, where the **Spice Islands** were located. By the second half of the 18th century, it had switched its focus from shipping to agricultural production. The Dutch government revoked the company's charter in 1799 and took direct control of the Dutch East Indies. In 1830, the Dutch government introduced the **Culture System**, which forced farmers to choose between growing cash crops for export or performing **corvée labor**, compulsory unpaid work. Under this system, villagers either had to set aside one-fifth of their rice fields for such export crops as sugar, coffee, or indigo, or work in a government field for 66 days if they had no land. If the crops failed, the villagers were held responsible for the loss. The practice was finally abolished in 1870.

China Chinese goods such as porcelain, silk, and tea were in great demand in Great Britain. However, the Chinese were not interested in British goods, and in this trade imbalance, British silver reserves became very low. To make up for this shortfall, the East India Company began forcing farmers in India to grow **opium**, an addictive hallucinogenic drug that also relieves pain and reduces stress. The company then sold it for silver in China, where there were millions of people addicted to the illegal drug. The company then used its profits to buy tea and other goods.

The Chinese emperor criminalized the use of opium in 1729. However, the ban had little effect. The Chinese objection to the importation of this drug led to the first **Opium War** (1839–1842). The Chinese government seized the British opium warehoused in the port of Canton (Guangzhou). War broke out when British warships destroyed a Chinese blockade keeping ships from Canton, the only port China allowed to trade with foreigners. The British attacked and occupied Canton and engaged in several other successful battles, finally capturing Nanking (Nanjing).

The conflict between Britain and China revealed the fate of nonindustrialized nations. China had not anticipated the power that industrialized nations were gaining or the shift in the balance of power that was taking place. Industrialized nations in Europe would begin to dominate and defeat states that lacked the military technology needed to stand against British steamships and weaponry.

The resulting **Treaty of Nanking** required China to open up four additional ports to foreigners, cede the island of Hong Kong to Britain, and pay damages. It also forced the Chinese to allow free trade, which the British took to include trade in opium.

Neither Britain nor China was completely satisfied with the Treaty of Nanking. The British wanted the use of opium legalized, while the Chinese were unhappy about the concessions they had been forced to make. Hostilities erupted in October 1856 after Chinese officers boarded a British trading ship, searched it, lowered the flag, and arrested some Chinese sailors. The French joined the British in what came to be known as the second Opium War (1856–1860). The Treaty of Tientsin (Tianjin) following that war allowed foreign envoys to reside in Beijing, opened several new ports to Western trade and residence, and allowed freedom of movement for Christian missionaries. After additional negotiations, opium was legalized, and China ceded to Britain the southern portion of Kowloon Peninsula, which was adjacent to Hong Kong. (Connect: Compare how Western states and the Qing Dynasty treated the Chinese population. See Topic 4.7.)

Spheres of Influence Japan, France, Germany, Russia, and the United States sought the same trading privileges that Britain attained after winning the Opium Wars. By the end of the century, these nations began forcing China to give them exclusive trading rights in areas known as **spheres of influence**. It was at this time that the Open Door policy, proposed by the United States, allowed for a system of trade in China to be open to all countries equally in order to keep any one power from total control of China. (See the map on the next page.)

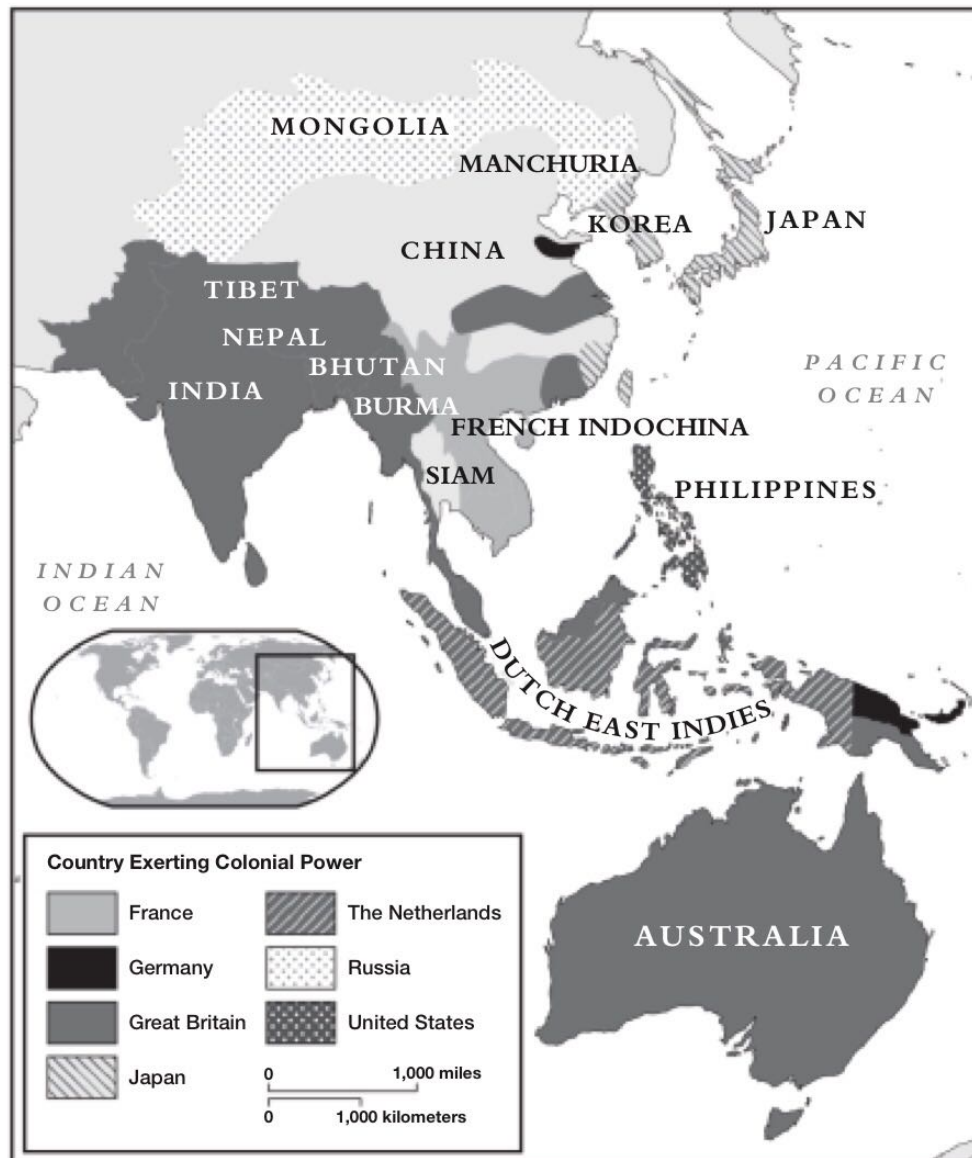
Economic Imperialism in Africa

Before colonization, most farming in Africa was to raise food crops. After colonization, land that had been devoted to growing food was converted to cash crop production to provide raw materials for European industries and goods for European markets. In exchange, the Africans received cotton textiles, canned food, and alcoholic beverages. This unequal trade structure made the colonies economically dependent on the imperial powers.

Reliance on a single **cash crop**, one grown to be sold, in a country or region left many Africans vulnerable during periods of drought, economic decline, or falling world prices. Food production declined as farmers chose to plant cash crops such as cotton, which would increase the value of their land. Food shortages, even famines, could arise because the most arable land was devoted to growing crops for export.



Spheres of Colonial Influence in Asia



Egypt had embraced cotton as a cash crop before the American Civil War and more than doubled production between 1861 and 1863. By the end of the century, cotton accounted for 93 percent of Egypt's exports. It was also the leading cash crop in **Sudan**, where the Plantation Syndicate, a group of British weaving companies, dictated land use to farmers. When the British colonized **Uganda**, they encouraged cotton as a cash crop there as well, and it soon replaced enslaved people and ivory as the chief export.

In **Kenya**, most native peoples were herders. Groups like the Kikuyu were moved to reserves with poor soil and bad climates. In the fertile Rift Valley, the colonial government gave the land to white settlers, forcing most Africans to relocate. Those who remained were forced to provide cheap labor for white farmers. African farmers were also forbidden to participate in export of any cash crops, and prohibited from growing some cash crops, such as coffee and tea.



After missionaries introduced it to the area in the 1880s, cocoa became the major cash crop on the **Gold Coast**. This region soon became the largest cocoa producer in the world. Cocoa was also an important cash crop in the Ivory Coast, Nigeria, and the Portuguese colonies of São Tomé and Angola.

Palm oil, palm kernels, and peanuts (also called groundnuts) were already major exports from West Africa before colonization. It was a valuable raw material because it was used as a lubricant for the machines of the industrial revolution in Europe.

Slavery in Africa Slavery was outlawed in British colonies in 1833, but it persisted elsewhere in Africa. The French army often paid its African soldiers in slaves, and French colonial administrators relied on slaves for many of their staff. It was not until 1912 that slave raiding and trading was suppressed in most of Africa. Slavery was not abolished by law throughout Africa until the first quarter of the 20th century.

Slave labor was used to produce many of the cash crops, especially oil palms (which produced palm kernels as well as palm oil), coffee, and cocoa. Some companies felt a moral responsibility to oppose the use of enslaved people in the production of the raw materials they used. For example, cash crop production in French-ruled colonies in Africa came about as a result of the end of the slave trade in the French Empire in 1848, along with the economic transformations brought about in France by the Industrial Revolution. Quaker-owned Cadbury's, for example, stopped buying slave-grown cocoa from Portuguese African colonies in 1908 after the slave trade was exposed.

Imperial Exploitation of Colonial Crops			
Commodity	Imperial States	Origin of Commodity	Consequences
Opium	Great Britain	Middle East or South Asia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Opium addiction weakened many people in China. • China's economy weakened as massive amounts of silver went to Britain to pay for opium.
Cotton	Great Britain and other European countries	South Asia, Egypt, Sudan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cotton became central to the global slave economy. • Food supplies declined as farmers switched to growing only cotton.
Palm Oil	All industrialized countries in Europe	Sub-Saharan Africa	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • European states created and controlled a monocrop economy, while local populations did not profit from the industry. • European powers met native resistance with brutal retaliation. • Imperial states created railroads and pathways to transport goods back to Europe.

Economic Imperialism in Latin America

In the second half of the 19th century, Latin America was subjected to imperialist aggression from both Europe and the United States. The “new imperialism” was concerned with a world capitalist economy as the industrialized nations of Europe and the United States sought raw materials, low-wage labor, and new markets for their goods. The emerging middle classes of Latin America were hungry for the latest European news and fashions.

Britain replaced Spain as Latin America’s major trading partner. Companies based in Britain became the largest investors in Latin America, followed by ones from France and Germany. Europeans invested over \$10 billion in Latin America between 1870 and 1919, primarily in Argentina, Mexico, and Brazil.

Role of the United States The United States was not yet as established a world power as Britain or France. However, the Second Industrial Revolution brought newfound prosperity to the young republic. U.S. corporate investments came later and were concentrated at first in Mexico and Cuba. These investments supported infrastructure and industry, especially railways, shipping, and the emerging banking and financial sectors. They also financed mining, guano, and meat processing and packing plants. In 1823, the Monroe Doctrine, the U.S. policy of opposing European colonialism in the Americas, told the world that Latin America was in the U.S. sphere of influence.

Investments in Argentina In the late 19th century, Britain had invested more in **Argentina** than in its own colony of India. As much as 10 percent of British foreign investment was in Argentina. British investors, entrepreneurs, and business leaders helped turn Argentina into the richest country in Latin America and one of the dozen richest in the world by the outbreak of World War I. They improved breeding stock and developed large-scale farming throughout the grassy plains, known as the **Pampas**. They also financed infrastructure and building projects, such as the railroad and telegraph systems. Because of its location on the shallow Rio de la Plata, Buenos Aires needed to build a new port to facilitate passenger service and the massive import and export of goods and services. The British financed and designed the new port, Puerto Madera.

Mining in Chile Spain colonized the region of present-day Chile between 1540 and 1818. Chile’s economic development was initially dependent on the export of agricultural produce. The wealth of these raw materials brought dependency on Spain and tension among neighboring states. Copper would come to dominate Chile’s exports. The mining sector in Chile would come to be one of the pillars of the Chilean economy, making up for more than one-third of government income.

Rubber Industry in Brazil Brazil once had a booming rubber industry. However, it declined after people began growing rubber in Malaysia at a lower cost. The shift of rubber production demonstrated how trade was organized to the advantage of companies based in Europe and the United States. Economic competition brought prosperity to some regions, but it was always fragile.



Central America and the Caribbean Foreign investors often used their governments to act as “strong men” to help them achieve the ends they wanted. The United Fruit Company was an American corporation that traded in tropical fruit, primarily bananas, grown on Latin American plantations and sold in the United States and in Europe. The United Fruit Company allied itself with large landowners to pressure governments to maintain conditions that would be favorable for the U.S. company. In a short story, the writer O. Henry coined the term “**banana republics**” to describe small Central American countries under the economic power of foreign-based corporations. The banana republics were politically unstable states with an economy dependent upon the exportation of a limited-resource product, such as bananas or minerals.

Patterns of imperial control over territories and transportation networks in Central America, the Caribbean coast of Colombia, Ecuador, and the West Indies continued as companies sought political dominance to gain monopolies over natural resources.

Economic Imperialism in Hawaii

The power of investments to transform and dominate small or weak states could also be seen in the Pacific islands. A group of American businesses and sugar planters in Hawaii went so far as to overthrow the constitutional monarchy in 1893, hoping that the islands would be annexed by the United States. In 1898, Hawaii became a territory of the United States.

Contextualizing Economic Imperialism

The Industrial Revolution developed the demand for raw materials and the technological ability through steamships, railroads, and military weapons to control other territories. These set the stage for economic imperialism.

KEY TERMS BY THEME		
<p>GOVERNMENT: Colonial Holdings Spice Islands Egypt Sudan Uganda Kenya Gold Coast Argentina</p>	<p>GOVERNMENT: Treaties Treaty of Nanking</p> <p>GOVERNMENT: Wars and Rebellions Opium War</p> <p>ENVIRONMENT: Natural Resources opium Pampas</p>	<p>ECONOMICS: Companies East India Company Dutch East India Company</p> <p>ECONOMICS: Systems economic imperialism Culture System corvée labor spheres of influence cash crop banana republics</p>

Causes of Migration in an Interconnected World

I would advise all my friends to quit Ireland—the country most dear to me; as long as they remain in it they will be in bondage and misery.

—An Irish settler who had lived in Wisconsin for a year, in a letter to *The Times* of London, May 14, 1850

Essential Question: How did environmental and economic factors contribute to patterns of migration between 1750 and 1900?

An increasingly global economy characterized by economic imperialism and the availability of different modes of transportation promoted a new era in migrations. As industrialization grew, populations moved to urban centers. Some workers who left their homelands, such as the Lebanese merchants in the United States or the Italian laborers in Argentina, could travel back to their native country for visits or to retire. Others, like the Irish settler quoted above, chose a permanent resettlement as relief from economic and political difficulties. Other movements of people were coerced. To meet the demands for workers, coerced and semi-coerced migration of people resulted in slavery, indentured servitude, and convict labor.

Migration through Labor Systems

The desire for low-wage labor was linked to the exploitation of natural resources in the system of economic imperialism. Even though slavery was gradually being abolished in imperial territories in the 19th century, the demand for the agricultural goods that enslaved workers had produced was still increasing. European states recruited new laborers to work on plantations, where they produced enormous wealth that fueled industrial growth at home:

- Indian laborers migrated to British colonies in the Caribbean, South Africa, East Africa, and Fiji.
- Chinese laborers migrated to California and British Malaya to build railroads and serve as farmhands, gardeners, and domestics.
- Japanese laborers migrated to Hawaii, Peru, and Cuba to work on sugar plantations.



Source: Hawaii State Archives

Chinese contract workers on a sugar plantation in 19th-century Hawaii.

Slavery Most countries in the Americas abolished the African slave trade in the early 19th century. Slavery itself continued, but without a fresh supply of enslaved people, the institution declined. Only in the United States did the number of enslaved people increase after the abolition of the slave trade. The last countries to abolish slavery in the Americas were the United States (1865), Cuba (1886), and Brazil (1888).

In spite of prohibitions, Africans continued enslaving one another well into the 20th century. As slavery was being abolished, labor was still desired, so imperial countries turned to other forms of coerced labor.

Indentured Servitude People who worked for a set number of years before becoming free were **indentured servants**. Many people became indentured as a way to pay for their transportation from a desperately poor community to one with more opportunity. Others were forced to do so to pay off a debt.

Some of these servants intended to work temporarily, earning money for their family, and then return home. But many stayed in their new country. As a result, indentured laborers brought their home cultures to their new lands and altered the demographics of these lands. For example, the cultures of Mauritius (in the Indian Ocean off Southeast Africa), Fiji (in the South Pacific), and Trinidad (in the Caribbean) added a strong Indian influence.

Asian Contract Laborers Many Chinese and Indian workers were an early substitute for the slave trade. They were forced or tricked into

servitude. Britain first tried this form of labor after ending the slave trade in 1806. They imported 200 Chinese to Trinidad. Between 1847 and 1874, the British, French, Dutch, and Spanish had imported between 250,000 and 500,000 Chinese workers to their colonies in Southeast Asia, Africa, and the Caribbean. About 125,000 Chinese were sent to Cuba alone, where 80 percent worked the sugar plantations.

The life of an Asian contract workers was riddled with difficulty and unjust treatment. While they were not property, they were unskilled laborers or porters who were exploited as substitutes for slave labor, often working for subsistence wages. The media of the time brought the treatment of them to the attention of the public by criticizing the system as a new form of slavery. In 1855, Britain stopped its trade. In 1862 Congress banned the contract Asia labor trade in the United States, and in 1874, under international pressure, Portugal ended it. A treaty between China and Spain in 1877 terminated the contracts of Chinese workers still in Cuba.

British Penal Colonies In the late 1700s, Great Britain established a **penal colony** in Australia after losing its original one in Georgia as a result of the American Revolution. The British government shipped **convicts** from England, Scotland, and Ireland as well as British colonies such as India, to Australia. There, they performed hard labor and suffered harsh treatment. Actual imprisonment of the convicts was rare. Most performed labor for free settlers, worked for the government in record keeping, or worked on government projects such as road and railway building. The majority of convicts earned their freedom after a prescribed number of years of service.

Some people sent to penal colonies were never allowed to return to Great Britain. In addition, because transportation back home was expensive, the majority decided to stay in Australia. By 1850, the British government ended the transportation of convicts to Australia, largely because a stay in Australia was not considered much of a punishment.

Australia also attracted free settlers, especially after gold was discovered there in 1851. Some 50,000 Chinese came during this gold rush. Eventually Australia became one of Britain's most successful settler colonies.

French Penal Colonies The French also had penal colonies in Africa, New Caledonia, and French Guiana. New Caledonia, an island part of an archipelago in the southwest Pacific Ocean 750 miles from Australia, served as a penal colony from 1864 to 1897 for both convicts and political prisoners. The penal colony in French Guiana, which included Devil's Island, was notorious for its harsh treatment of convicts. Prisoners were underfed and forced to do hard labor. Although the French stopped transporting convicts in 1938, Devil's Island continued to hold prisoners until 1953. (Connect: Describe the changes in the supply and demand for labor from the Spanish *encomienda* system to that of European nations in the 19th century. See Topic 4.4.)

Migration in the Face of Challenges

The word **diaspora** is often applied to mass emigrations from a country or region that may take place over a period of many years. The African slave trade was responsible for one of the biggest diasporas in history, the involuntary emigration of millions of people between the 16th and 19th centuries. Most diasporas, however, were the result of poverty, political conditions, or famine.

India Poverty was the principal reason that drove Indians to leave the subcontinent. In 1833, the British began sending Indians to Mauritius as indentured laborers to replace slaves on the sugar plantations. By 1878, Indians were working on plantations in British Guiana (Guyana), Dutch Guiana (Surinam), Natal (South Africa), Fiji, and British and French islands in the Caribbean. Most Indian laborers signed five-year contracts. Many renewed their contracts, and some decided to stay permanently, accepting a piece of land or a lump sum rather than their passage back to India. Over 1.5 million Indians were shipped to colonies in Asia, Africa, the Caribbean, and Oceania before Britain abolished the indenture system in 1916. Between 1880 and 1938, two systems recruited labor in Southeast Asia.

- The *kangani* (foreman who oversees workers) system in Ceylon and Malaya recruited from their own extended family.
- The *maistry* (supervisors) system in Burma recruited laborers within a structured system with defined hierarchies and sent them to plantations, usually in Southeast Asia. Conditions were highly exploitative.

China The Chinese diaspora did not begin in earnest until the middle of the 19th century, with the gold rushes in California, South Australia, and western Canada. However, most Chinese migrants were not engaged in mining. Despite prejudices toward Chinese immigrants, the Chinese were instrumental in the development of the U.S. Transcontinental Railroad. Some Chinese paid their own way, but many more left China as indentured laborers. The vast majority of Chinese emigrants were males who planned to return to China after their time abroad.

People left China for many reasons, some to escape poverty or famine, others for better opportunities. Beginning in the late 18th century, a population explosion in coastal cities and contacts through foreign trade led large numbers of Chinese to **emigrate** to Southeast Asia. Most of them were illiterate, landless peasants looking for opportunities abroad. However, most of the Chinese did not arrive in Southeast Asia until the mid-19th century, after the first Opium War made it easier for them to leave. Many people left as a result of the poverty and disorder brought on by the **Taiping Rebellion** (1850–1864). (See Topic 6.2.) After the middle of the century, most Chinese emigrated to the Americas, Europe, Australia, or New Zealand.

Ireland People emigrated from Ireland for many reasons. Some left for political reasons. Britain abolished the Irish Parliament in 1801 when Ireland

became part of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland. Roman Catholics and Protestant dissenters faced religious discrimination from their British rulers. Evictions of tenant farmers increased after the 1846 repeal of the Corn Laws, which had regulated the import and export of grain. During the **Great Famine** (1845–1849) that destroyed the potato crop for four years, as many as 3 million people emigrated from Ireland. Most went to the United States, but many others went to England, Scotland, Canada, or Australia.

Emigration continued even after the famine ended; as many people left Ireland in the first four years after the famine was over as left during the height of the famine. The Irish had been going to Great Britain and the United States to build canals since the 18th century, and they continued to leave to help build railroads. During the 18th and 19th centuries, 300,000 free Irish emigrated to Australia, and 45,000 Irish convicts were transported there. In the second half of the 19th century, about 45,000 Irish went to Argentina, although only about 20,000 remained there. The rest moved on to the United States.



Source: Wikimedia Commons

This illustration by Irish artist James Mahoney (1810–1879) portrays people suffering in southwest Ireland during the Irish Great Famine.

Italy The first wave of Italian emigration began with the unification of Italy in 1861 and continued until 1900. More than 7 million people left Italy during those four decades. More than half of them went to other countries in Europe, with most of the rest going to North and South America, Australia, and New Zealand. The main reason for the Italian diaspora was poverty. Two-thirds of the emigrants during this period were men with traditional skills. Farmers had an increasingly difficult time making a living in harsh conditions, especially in a society where land was subdivided over generations. Some left for political reasons, while others left for economic reasons related to organized crime, especially in South Italy. Those who left often sent money back to family members, encouraging further emigration.

Migration to Settler Colonies

Large numbers of British citizens lived in all the colonies of the British Empire. Most who moved abroad permanently went to settler colonies such as Canada, South Africa, Australia, or New Zealand. Those who went to other colonies such as India, Malaya, or Kenya, usually did so with no intention of staying permanently. Many went as officers or soldiers in the British army, as government officials in the **Colonial Service**, or as managers for plantations or other colonial enterprises.

Technical Experts Engineers and geologists migrated to South Asia and Africa. One was Andrew Geddes Bain, who emigrated to Cape Town, South Africa, in 1816. Bain initially worked on eight major roads and passes but moved on to a career in geological studies. Bain prepared the first comprehensive geological map of South Africa in 1852. In 1854, he reported back to the British government about the copper mines in Namaqualand.

British engineers were so numerous in the colonies that they formed a type of diaspora. They spread Western science and technology through the world. However, as they did, they blended their knowledge with the experience of engineers from the colonial lands. Together, people from Europe and the colonies collaborated on both public works and private industrial projects.

Argentina During the 19th century, Argentina was part of Britain's "informal" empire. Britain invested more in Argentina than it did in India, the so-called "Jewel in the Crown" of the British Empire. Unlike most of the people who emigrated to make a new life for themselves, the British who settled in Argentina during the 19th century were not trying to escape poverty or persecution. They were primarily businessmen, traders, bankers, and engineers. They founded banks, developed the export trade in agricultural products, built railroads and other infrastructure, and imported luxuries that appealed to the growing Argentine middle class.

Japan Before 1868, Japan was closed to the rest of the world. However, by 1893, the Japanese government had decided that Japan should acquire an overseas empire and established the **Colonization Society**. Its aim was to export Japan's surplus population as well as commercial goods. In 1892 the

Society made an unsuccessful attempt to start an agricultural settler colony in Mexico. The failure of that attempt did not deter the society from sending 790 Japanese to Peru in 1899 for contract work. At the same time, many young Japanese men were leaving Japan to study in the United States, congregating mostly in such cities as San Francisco, Portland, and Seattle on the West Coast.

Tensions and anti-immigrant sentiment toward Japanese people intensified as immigrants assimilated to life in America. In 1907, the Gentlemen's Agreement between the United States and Japan was an informal agreement that the U.S. would not impose restrictions on Japanese immigration, and Japan would not allow further emigration to the U.S. The agreement was never ratified and was ultimately ended by the Immigration Act of 1924.

Migration, Transportation, and Urbanization

Improvements in transportation technology allowed some who migrated for work reasons to return to their home societies, either for a period of time or permanently. For example, in 1885, an agreement between the governments of Japan and Hawaii allowed Japanese laborers to go to Hawaii to work on the sugar plantations under three-year contracts. Approximately 29,000 Japanese went to Hawaii over the next nine years. During that time, thousands more Japanese went to other destinations in the South Pacific, including Australia, New Caledonia, and Fiji, under similar contracts. Most planned to return home after a few years.



Source: Wikimedia Commons

Italian immigrants were so important to the economic and cultural development of Argentina that the city of Mendoza erected a monument to them in what is known as the Plaza Italia.



Industrial workers from Italy had similar arrangements for working in Argentina and then returning home, though many Italians settled permanently in Argentina. Since most industry was located in urban areas, both internal and external migrants often settled in cities, which increased in size and influence around the globe.

Voluntary Migration Patterns in the 19th Century			
Years	Home Country	Destination	Reasons for Migrating
1880–1914	Italy	• Argentina	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Argentina had pro-immigration policies. • Argentina offered better wages.
1868–1907	Japan	• Hawaii	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Japanese sought financial opportunities on sugar cane and pineapple plantations.
1850–1880	China	• United States	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Chinese first sought work in gold mines, then agricultural and factory work. • There were opportunities to work on Transcontinental Railroad.
1820–1910	Ireland	• United States	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Irish were escaping the Irish Great Famine. • Irish sought labor opportunities in canal building, lumbering, and civil construction.
Coerced or Semi-Coerced Migration Patterns in the 19th Century			
1500s–1800s	Africa	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Americas • Europe 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Forced slavery administered through triangular trade system. • Europeans needed slaves to work on plantations along the southern coast, in the Caribbean, and elsewhere, cultivating cash crops like cotton, rice, and tobacco.
1788–1868	Britain (convicts)	• Australia	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Britain transported convicts to penal colonies.
1806–1877s	China and India	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Caribbean • Southeast Asia • Africa • Americas 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The slave trade had been abolished (1806). • The contract labor system was instituted to replace slavery.
1834–1916	India (indentured servants)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Africa • Asia • Caribbean region 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Slavery was abolished in the British Empire (1833). • The indentured servant system was instituted to replace slavery.

KEY TERMS BY THEME

GOVERNMENT: Systems
Colonial Service

GOVERNMENT: Wars and
Rebellions
Taiping Rebellion

ECONOMICS: Systems
slavery
indentured servants
contract laborers
Colonization Society

SOCIETY: Organization
penal colony
convicts

SOCIETY: Movement
diaspora
emigrate
Great Famine



Source: archive.org

A Chinese laborer in the Philippines, 1899