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15

Migra—Myth
pages 307-582

Compton's Encyclopedia

and Fact-Index

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"Let knowledge grow from more to more and thus be human life enriched"

In what way did the church father the drama? 369.

Why is the moccasin called a "cottonmouth"? 418.

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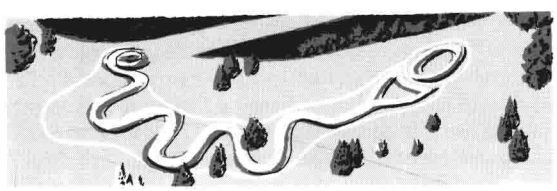

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KEY TO PRONUNCIATION

Pronunciations have been indicated in the body of this work only for words which present special difficulties.
Marked letters are sounded as in the following words:
cāpe, ăt, fär, fȧst, whạt, fạll; mē, yĕt, fērn, thêre;
īce, bĭt; rōw, wȯn, fôr, nŏt, dọ; cūre, bŭt, rụde, fụll, bûrn; *out*;
ü = French *u*, German *ü*; *ġem*, *ḡo*; *th*in, *th*en;
ṅ = French nasal (Jea*ṅ*); *zh* = French *j* (*z* in azure); *K* = German guttural *ch*.

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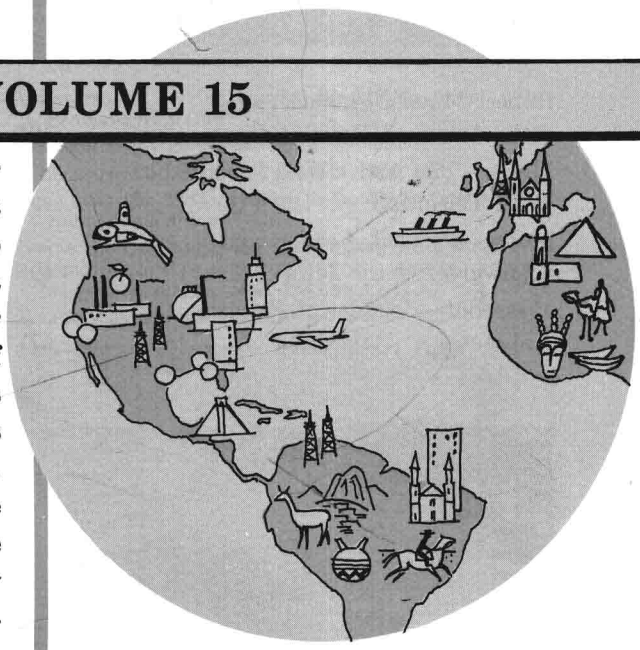
HERE AND THERE IN VOLUME 15



AT ODD TIMES when you are just looking for "something interesting to read," without any special plan in mind, this list will help you. With this as a guide, you may visit faraway countries, watch people at their work and play, meet famous persons of ancient and modern times, review history's most brilliant incidents, explore the marvels of nature and science, play games—in short, find whatever suits your fancy of the moment. This list is not intended to serve as a table of contents, an index, or a study guide. For these purposes consult the Fact-Index and the Reference-Outlines.

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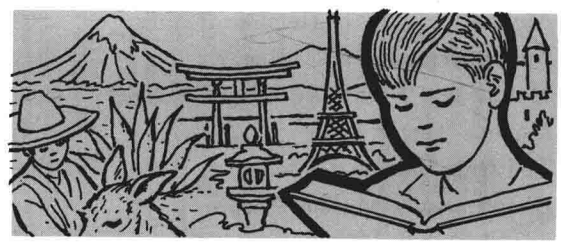

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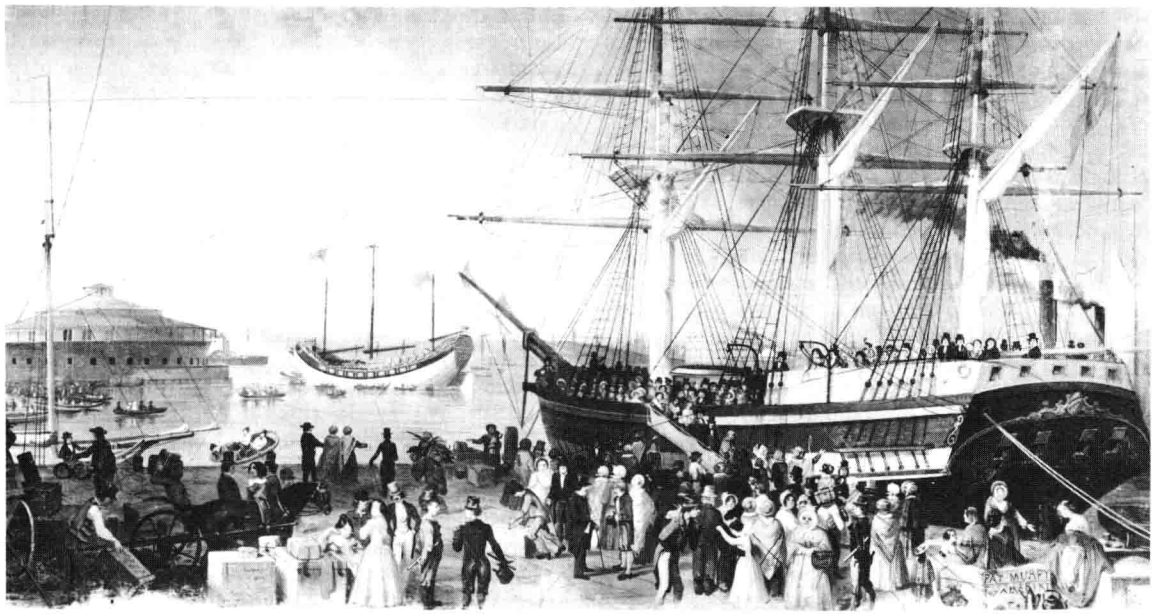
Courtesy of the Museum of the City of New York



The chief arrival point for immigrants to the United States from Europe was the Battery in New York City. At the left is the immigrant-receiving station, Castle Garden.

MIGRATION OF PEOPLE. The English word migration derives from the Latin verb *migrare,* meaning "to move from one place to another." Migration may mean either a temporary or a permanent change of residence by one person or by a group of people.

Two other words associated with migration are "emigrant" and "immigrant." An emigrant is someone who leaves one place for another. An immigrant is a person who comes into one country from another. Thus, a person who migrates to the United States from England is an emigrant from England and an immigrant to the United States.

The word migrant is used to refer to someone who regularly moves from place to place looking for work. A migrant farm worker, for instance, may live on one farm after another during the harvest season; once the crops are harvested, he will probably return to a home base until the next season.

Another type of wandering from place to place is called "nomadism." Nomads, who generally live in tribal groups, have no fixed residence (*see* Nomads). Their wanderings are normally caused by economic necessity, such as the need to move herds of animals from one region to another in search of fresh grazing. Nomads usually move within a fairly restricted area. They may, in fact, make a circuit, coming back to the same places year after year. In this sense, nomadism is similar to the life-style of migrant workers.

DEFINITIONS OF MIGRATION

There are two basic kinds of migration—internal and external. Internal migration occurs when someone moves from one section of a country to another, usually for economic reasons. The most notable example of internal migration has been the movement from rural regions to cities. This kind of migration has occurred since the earliest recorded periods of civilization. Since the end of World War II, there has been another type of internal migration—from cities to suburbs. Many major cities in the United States and Europe have lost population because their residents have chosen to live in suburbs.

External migration involves leaving one country to live in another. This is also an age-old phenomenon, but the most dramatic example of it took place in modern times. Between 1800 and 1970 more than 40 million persons left Europe for North America. The Atlantic Migration, as it is called, was perhaps the most extensive movement of peoples in history.

Colonialism sometimes results in a type of external migration. If a nation, because of overpopulation, sent out a large number of its citizens to live somewhere else, it would be an instance of migration. Ancient Greece, for example, planted colonies in Italy, Sicily, and Asia Minor. If, however, the colonization is merely a matter of conquest, then no significant external migration is involved. During the 19th century, European nations colonized large segments of Africa and governed them for many decades. But in most cases large numbers of Europeans did not go to these colonies to live.

Reasons for Migration

If people are satisfied where they are, they will not migrate. For migration to take place, there must be some factor that pushes people out or that pulls them to a new environment. Throughout history, people have left their native lands for a variety of reasons: religious or racial persecution, lack of political freedom, economic deprivation. The forces that attracted

them to new homelands were the opposites of these: religious and political freedom, ethnic toleration, economic opportunity.

The leading motive behind migration has always been economic. Overpopulation creates shortages of jobs and food. The natural resources of a region can become exhausted, impelling a whole group of people to migrate. Farmland can become so overworked that it is no longer usable, forcing the farmers to move. People who are oppressed for any reason will in all likelihood be economically deprived as well.

The movement from farm to city is a prime example of migration for economic reasons. During the Industrial Revolution of the 18th and 19th centuries, millions of people left poverty-stricken rural areas for the cities. Even the low-paying, seven-day-a-week jobs in early factories were better than the endless toil and misery of farm life. This search for jobs in urban areas has continued to be a leading cause of migration up to the present.

The impetus behind the great Atlantic Migration, particularly in the 19th century, was also largely economic. The opportunities offered by the new industrialization were, in fact, too few for the many who wanted to take advantage of them. With more workers than jobs, wages could be kept low and hours of work long. It was the breakdown of the European agricultural system, however, that drove millions of people from the Old World to the New.

In the decades after 1815, European agriculture was hit by a series of natural disasters: extreme cold, too much or too little rain, flooding, and crop failures. Added to these devastating conditions was the problem of land tenure—that is, how land was owned. By law in most countries, land was passed on by inheritance in one of two ways. Either the oldest son inherited it all, or it was divided equally among all the surviving children. In either case, the result was unsatisfactory. If the oldest son inherited, the other children had to look elsewhere for a living. If the land was divided, eventually the parcels became so small that they were not worth farming. In some countries most of the arable land was held by a few wealthy proprietors and worked by peasants who were tied to the land but had no hope of ever owning it.

In the midst of these unhappy circumstances came the news of a nation across the Atlantic Ocean where land was available almost for the asking. The United States offered the promise that one only had to be willing to work in order to have one's own farm.

Obstacles to Migration

Becoming an emigrant is no easy matter. For an individual it means leaving home, family, friends, and a familiar social environment to take one's chances in a new place. For groups of people the situation is much the same; they must uproot themselves from one society to move into another. They probably will not know the language, the customs, or the laws. They will have to find work, learn another language, and put down new roots.

Distance can be a great obstacle to external migration. It is fairly easy to move from one city to another within one's own country. To move from one country or one continent to another is much more difficult. The expense of transportation alone has prevented many people in the poorer nations from going to industrialized societies where opportunities are better.

Some countries either do not want immigrants or are selective about whom they will admit. The United States, for instance, revised its immigration laws in 1924 to limit the number of people from Europe and the Far East who could enter each year.

Other countries do not allow people to leave. Japan prohibited emigration from 1636 to 1868. The United Kingdom passed several laws against emigration in the 18th century. In the 20th century the Soviet Union and other Communist nations of Eastern Europe have not allowed their citizens to travel freely outside their borders. Internal migration is also restricted, and citizens must carry identification cards to prove that they belong where they are.

One of the difficulties faced by less developed countries is the loss of trained individuals such as physicians and engineers to the more industrialized nations. This so-called brain drain has created a severe problem for India, Pakistan, and the nations of the Middle East. Pakistan has forbidden persons with certain skills to leave the country. Other countries promise rewards and social status to educated people who remain in their homelands.

Forced Migrations

Not everyone who emigrates does so as a matter of choice. Sometimes external circumstances over which one has no control force a move. Natural disasters such as famine or earthquake may impel people to relocate, but the major causes of forced migration have been war, the slave trade, and deportation.

Deportation has been practiced by nations from ancient times to the present. The practice of banishment probably originated as a primitive tribal custom whereby an offending person was deprived of the protection of his people and sent away. If he had committed some crime, his continued presence may have been considered an offense to the tribal gods.

The Greek city-states and Rome used exile as a form of punishment for a variety of crimes. In some of the Greek city-states, a prominent person thought to threaten the stability of the state could be ostracized, or temporarily banished by vote of the citizens. Ostracized persons were allowed to keep their property, but in Rome exile meant confiscation of property and loss of citizenship.

Since the end of the Middle Ages, most European nations have used deportation as a punishment for criminal and political offenses. In England the Vagrancy Act of 1597 authorized the government to banish offenders to places abroad. Large-scale deportation of criminals to the American Colonies took place until the American Revolution. Australia and Tasmania were colonized by England partly with de-

ported convicts; more than 150,000 convicts were sent to Australia alone between 1788 and 1867. Deportation was eventually abolished because of protests from the colonists themselves.

Spain and France used the same method to rid themselves of criminals. Spain deported criminals to its American colonies. France sent deportees to French Guiana on the northern coast of South America and to the island of New Caledonia in the Pacific Ocean. The most notorious of the French convict colonies was Devil's Island, off the coast of Guiana. The penal colonies in South America were not abolished until World War II.

In Russia deportation of political prisoners to Siberia began during the reign of Czar Peter the Great in 1710. During the 19th century, thousands of exiles were sent to Siberia each year. This practice is still used in the Soviet Union, especially in its treatment of political dissidents. Some individuals have been deprived of citizenship and exiled to the West, as was the case with the Soviet Nobel prizewinning author Alexander Solzhenitsyn.

In the United States citizens cannot be deported, and deportation of aliens is a legal procedure. Aliens enjoy the protection of the Constitution and may be deported only after a court hearing. There have been times of political unrest during which political dissidents have been deported after only the most perfunctory legal proceedings. This happened just after World War I, when many anarchists and Communists were deported to the Soviet Union.

The slave trade from Africa, as practiced from 1510 to the late 19th century, is said to have uprooted as many as 20 million people from their homes and brought them to the Americas. Slavery had existed as a human institution for centuries, but the slaves were usually captives taken in war or members of the lowest class in a society. The black African slave trade, by contrast, was a major economic enterprise. It made the traders rich and brought an abundant labor supply to the islands of the Caribbean and to the American Colonies. (*See also* Slavery and Serfdom.)

Throughout history, war has been a leading cause of forced migration, and the 20th century is no exception. It has, in fact, been called the century of the refugee. The major occasions of massive dislocation since 1900 include World War I, the Russian Revolution, the Turkish War of Independence, World War II, the partition of the Indian subcontinent, the wars in the Middle East following the establishment of the state of Israel in 1948, the Communist takeover of China, the Korean War, the revolutions in Hungary (1956) and Cuba (1959), the civil war in the former Belgian Congo (now Zaire) in the 1960's, and the conflict in Vietnam and its aftermath.

Many of the countless millions displaced by these conflicts returned home when the fighting ended or were resettled in other countries. Others have remained homeless, living in refugee camps.

HISTORY OF MIGRATION

Throughout Asia, Europe, and Africa, there were many mass migrations in the prehistoric era. These movements, however, are undocumented. What is known of them comes from the findings of archaeologists and the legends of ancient societies.

Ancient Migrations

One of the most ancient known migrations was that of the people who came to the Americas some-

Because of the devastating potato famine of the 1840's, thousands of Irish survivors fled to the United States. These County Kerry emigrants are saying good-bye to friends before taking a coach to the nearest port of embarkation.

EB Inc.

time between 30,000 and 3000 B.C. These ancestors of the American Indians probably went from Asia to Alaska over a land bridge that crossed the Bering Strait in prehistoric times. North and South America were then presumably empty continents. Over thousands of years these people moved south and east. Their greatest centers of population developed in Central and South America, where the civilizations of the Aztecs, Incas, and Mayas later appeared (*see* Aztecs; Incas; Mayas).

One mass migration in the ancient period that has been documented in writing is the exodus of the Hebrews from Egypt. As told in the Old Testament book of Exodus, it was an escape from slavery to freedom and a search for a "land flowing with milk and honey." The Hebrews settled in Palestine where, after some centuries, they built a powerful kingdom. This ancient kingdom and the presence of the Hebrews in Palestine over many centuries provided the rationale for establishing the new state of Israel in 1948 (*see* Israel). Modern Israel is mainly the product of migrations of Jews from Europe, Asia, and North Africa following World War II.

The First Great Migrations

Two of the largest movements of people in history were the barbarian migrations that overran the Roman Empire in the 4th and 5th centuries A.D. and the Atlantic Migration to the Americas from the early 1800's to the early decades of the 20th century.

The Mediterranean world of the Roman Empire was bordered on the north by regions populated with numerous Germanic tribes. About A.D. 370 a people called the Huns swept out of eastern Asia (*see* Huns). Their armies of mounted archers struck fear into all the European tribes. The Huns built up a large empire in southeastern Europe and, in so doing, drove other tribes westward. The Roman Empire in the West was overrun by these tribes. Among those fleeing the Huns, the Visigoths invaded the empire in 376. In 406 the Vandals, the Suebi, and the non-Germanic Alani invaded Gaul (France) and Spain. In 455 several Germanic tribes, led by the Ostrogoths, conquered Italy. Some 20 years later, in 476, the Western Roman Empire came to an end when the young emperor, Romulus Augustulus, was deposed and exiled.

Migrations in the Middle Ages

For a thousand years, from the end of the Roman Empire in the West until the middle of the 15th century, the history of Europe, Asia, and North Africa consists of an almost unbroken series of invasions, wars, and conquests. Arabs, Mongols, Franks, Vikings, Christian Crusaders, and Turks all crossed vast areas searching for new lands to conquer.

In the 7th century a new religion, Islam, succeeded in uniting the many tribes of Arabia. Under the banner of this religion, Arab armies conquered lands from the Indus River in the east to Spain in the west. All of the Middle East and North Africa was in their hands within a few decades (*see* Islam).

The great Frankish monarch Charlemagne had established the most powerful kingdom in Europe in the 9th century. However, the Islamic conquests effectively barred the Franks from extending their empire to the south. Based in what is now France, the Franks were forced to move eastward against the Germanic Saxon tribes in order to expand their kingdom. This in turn drove the Saxons northward into Scandinavia. (*See also* Charlemagne.)

This Saxon migration may have been one cause of the raids by the Scandinavian Vikings, or Northmen, who ravaged Europe from the 9th to the 11th century. The Vikings overran much of England and Ireland; settled the region of Normandy (meaning "land of the Northmen") in France; conducted raids in Portugal, Spain, and Morocco; founded settlements in the Baltic countries; and penetrated deep into the heart of Russia. In 1060 descendants of the Vikings in Normandy set out to conquer Sicily, and in 1066 the Normans under Duke William conquered England. The Norman Kingdom of Sicily lasted until 1194.

In 1095 Pope Urban II called upon the Christian nobles of Europe to undertake a crusade to recover the Holy Land (Palestine) from the followers of Islam. During the next two centuries, there were seven major crusades, often involving thousands of people. The crusaders failed to establish a permanent kingdom in Palestine, but they did succeed in weakening the Eastern Roman Empire (*see* Crusades).

The greatest threats to the states of Europe during the Middle Ages came from the East—a series of invasions by Turks and Mongols. From the 6th to the 12th century, various Turkish peoples controlled empires ranging from Mongolia to the Black Sea. In the 11th century the Turks began moving westward, conquering most of what is now south-central Russia, Iran, Iraq, Syria, and Asia Minor.

In the 13th century the Mongols, led by Genghis Khan, conquered the Turkish empires as well as present-day Bulgaria, Hungary, and most of Russia. The devastation wrought by the Mongols depopulated eastern Europe and opened it up for settlement by other peoples from areas to the west and south. (*See also* Genghis Khan; Mongols.)

In the 14th century the Ottoman Turks of Asia Minor began moving northward into the Balkan territories. They conquered Constantinople in 1453, thus destroying the Byzantine Empire, and for 150 years they threatened Europe.

The wars and invasions of the Middle Ages displaced great numbers of people and led to the transfer of whole groups from one location to another. Over a period of several hundred years, these migrations transformed the ethnic and linguistic composition of Europe and much of Asia. The foundation had been laid for the modern nation-states of Europe and Asia.

The Age of Discovery

In the 15th century all of North Africa and the lands in the eastern Mediterranean were controlled by the Ottoman Turks, who were followers of Islam.

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Smithsonian Institution

At an African slave market black slavers have brought their victims to European purchasers to be examined, branded, and shackled with leg irons before being put on board ship.

If the merchants of Europe wanted to trade with the Far East, their cargoes had to pass through these regions under any terms the Ottoman Turks cared to impose. The Europeans began to search for new trade routes to the East.

One way to reach the East was to sail around Africa. A Portuguese navigator, Vasco da Gama, made such a voyage in 1497–98 (*see* Gama). Another way to the East, by sailing westward across the Atlantic Ocean, was proposed by Christopher Columbus. His first voyage, made in 1492, resulted in the discovery of the New World (*see* Columbus). Over the next three centuries, the Americas were explored and colonized (*see* America, Discovery and Colonization of). Spain, Portugal, France, England, The Netherlands, and Sweden sent out expeditions and colonists to settle various regions of North and South America.

The number of people who came from Europe to live in the Americas in the 300 years ending in 1800 was not large. By 1790, for instance, only a few hundred thousand individuals had come from Spain to the colonies. Only 25,000 immigrants had come to the French possessions in Canada. The population of the United States in 1790 was about 4 million, of whom 60,000 were free blacks and 400,000 were slaves. The largest contributor of colonists to the Americas was Great Britain. During the 17th century, about 250,000 English immigrants arrived, settling primarily in Virginia, Massachusetts, and the Caribbean islands. In the 18th century more than 1.5 million people came from the British Isles to America. The majority of newcomers to the Western Hemisphere, however, were African slaves. About 10 million of them were brought over before 1800.

During the period from 1789 to 1815, migration from Europe was greatly hindered by the wars that grew out of the French Revolution and the activities of Napoleon, emperor of France. Once peace had settled over Europe, with the fall of Napoleon, the greatest mass migration in history began.

The Great Migration

Statistics on migration are unreliable, but it has been estimated that from the early 16th century to the mid-20th century more than 60 million people left Europe to seek new homes overseas. Many of them went to Australia, South Africa, India, and other colonial plantations, but most went to the Americas. This migration across the Atlantic Ocean brought more than 41 million persons from Europe to North America in the 19th and 20th centuries. Of these, about 36 million went to the United States and 5 million to Canada. More than 15 million persons went to other countries in the Western Hemisphere.

Other areas receiving substantial immigrant populations were: Africa, 1.5 million; Australia, about 3 million; and New Zealand, about 600,000.

The United States. The United States is a nation of great ethnic diversity. Figures released by the United States Census Bureau in 1982 indicated that almost 180 million Americans identified themselves with at least one specific ancestry group. Almost 50 different ethnic designations were each named by more than 100,000 persons, and numerous others were listed by smaller numbers of respondents. Among the largest groups were German, 51 million; Irish, 43.7 million; English, 40 million; Afro-American/African, 16 million; Scottish, 14.2 million; and Spanish (including Latin American), 12.5 million.

By 1780 the estimated colonial population was about 2,780,000. After 1820, when an official count of immigration began, the number of immigrants began increasing until by 1830 the arrivals numbered more than 20,000 each year. Immigration continued a general upward trend, with the average immigration climbing from 60,000 in the 1831–40 decade to 260,000 in the 1851–60 decade.

Sturdy German farmers swarmed into Illinois, Wisconsin, and Missouri as early as 1830, when land sold at $1.25 an acre. Norwegians and Swedes followed during the next few decades, and many of them found new homes amid congenial surroundings in Minnesota, the Dakotas, and Wisconsin.

Famine in Ireland in the early 1840's, brought on by the failure of the potato crop, caused the death of thousands. American relief ships sent to Ireland with food returned with immigrants. These newcomers settled first in New York City and Boston. Some worked as unskilled factory laborers. Others drifted west with construction gangs. The Irish were ambitious, especially for their children, and Irish-born parents made sacrifices to keep them in school and took pride in seeing them fill positions in the various professions and attain power in political offices.

At about the same time, the collapse of a revolutionary movement in Germany forced thousands of bold spirits to seek safety in America. These refugees were men and women of high ideals. Many were university students or graduates. Those whose roots were in the soil were excellent farmers. They took with them their continental customs, their music, and their cuisine and have left an indelible imprint on such cities as Chicago, Milwaukee, Cincinnati, and St. Louis. In the decades that followed, the German and Irish tides united with those from Denmark, Norway, and Sweden.

During the American Civil War, the flow of immigration decreased. However, an act of 1864, repealed four years later, called for a commissioner of immigration to be appointed by the president; it laid down plans to encourage immigration to fill jobs left vacant as a result of wartime casualties and to settle unpopulated areas of the country. Many states made special efforts to attract settlers and even sent agents to European ports of embarkation to recruit them. Western railroads competed with the states in inducing immigrants to take up the land granted the roads by the government to finance their construction work. The railroads offered reduced steamship and rail fares along with other inducements the states could not provide.

A further impetus to European immigration was the agricultural distress on the Continent in the 1880's. Wheat from Minnesota and the Dakotas was

An 1887 cartoon called "America's Hearty Welcome to the Innocent Emigrant" depicts some of the frauds, swindles, and thefts that often beset new arrivals to the United States before they reached their final destination.

Culver Pictures

underselling European grain, and the European farmer was bankrupt. Farmers from northwestern Europe poured into the Mississippi Valley and toward the Pacific coast.

At first, the United States held out open arms to the stranger. There were canals to be dug, railroads to be built, minerals to be mined, forests to be cut, farmlands and prairies to be cultivated, industrial plants to be manned. But in the early 1880's a significant change occurred in the type of immigrants arriving. Whereas the majority of earlier immigrants had shared the Northern and Western European origin of most early settlers, arrivals from Southern and Eastern Europe were now becoming more numerous.

In the 1851–60 decade only about one percent of all immigrants to the United States were from Southern or Eastern Europe. By the 1881–90 decade the percentage had risen to almost 20 percent and by the 1901–10 decade it was over 70 percent. Italians, Portuguese, and Spaniards, as well as Russians, Greeks, Hungarians, Poles, and other Eastern Europeans, continued to arrive in the United States in large numbers until World War I.

The newcomers differed from the earlier immigrants in several respects. Some were men who had left their families in Europe and planned to return to them when they had saved a little money. Most settled in the large cities where they found work only in the hardest and lowest-paying jobs. Many had little or no education. Faced with employment and language handicaps, they tended to congregate in communities of their own people. In these "cities within a city," many clung to their Old World customs, thus delaying Americanization. Unscrupulous politicians gained votes by making special appeals to national groups. Another result was that many foreign-language communities became badly overcrowded and degenerated into slums.

Despite these handicaps, many stayed to marry, rear families, and become loyal American citizens. The American people, however, became concerned about the open-door policy of immigration. In 1882 the first restrictive law was passed. It excluded such undesirables as lunatics, idiots, convicts, immoral persons, paupers, and persons likely to become public charges. Three years later the Alien Contract Labor Law prohibited American employers from importing workmen from Europe under contract. An act of 1917 required a literacy test for immigrants more than 16 years old. An act of 1918 excluded anarchists and members of any group that advocated the overthrow of government by violence. In practice, however, all these restrictions barred very few of the aliens who sought admission from getting into the country.

The end of World War I brought about an exodus from war-stricken countries. In 1920, 246,295 entered the United States from Europe; in 1921, 652,364. Unemployment was now widespread, and the flood of immigrants added to the difficulties. Farmers and organized labor wanted immigration curtailed. Other groups pressed for restrictions on cultural grounds.

In 1921 Congress applied the first effective brakes by passing a quota law. This limited the number of immigrants from any European country to 3 percent of the nationality in the United States in 1910. The quotas had the effect of restricting immigration from Southern and Eastern Europe in favor of the Northern Europeans. Under this law, the numbers admitted reached half a million by 1923, but the era of unlimited immigration had come to an end.

An act of 1924 reduced the quotas to 2 percent, based on the 1890 census. This restricted the number of immigrants to 180,000 the next year. Amendments to the law, effective in 1929, fixed an annual quota of 150,000 based on the 1920 census. The quota for each country was the number bearing the same ratio to 150,000 as the number of inhabitants in the United States in 1920 having that national origin to the total United States population in 1920. Each country was given a quota of at least 100, however, and spouses of United States citizens and their children under 18 years of age were admitted outside the quotas. Natives of the Western Hemisphere were also exempt from quota restrictions.

Anti-Chinese riots in 1880 had led to a treaty with China that barred Chinese coolies (unskilled laborers) from the United States. A supplementary act in 1882 excluded Chinese from naturalization and was later interpreted to apply to all Asians. After renewed fear of the so-called yellow peril, spurred by the influx of unskilled Japanese laborers into the United States during the early 1900's, a gentleman's agreement was made under which Japan promised to stop issuing passports to such workers. In 1924 there were so many Japanese living on the Pacific coast that Congress barred the immigration of all aliens who were not eligible for citizenship.

China's heroic stand on the side of the Allies in World War II changed public opinion, and the Chinese Exclusion Act was repealed in 1943. An annual quota of 105 was allotted to Chinese persons, and Chinese living in the United States were made eligible for naturalization.

The Immigration and Nationality Act of 1952 (McCarran–Walter Act) reorganized previous laws into one comprehensive act. The total number of quota immigrants was fixed at 154,657, with the 1920 census as the base for quotas and with a quota of at least 100 for each country. Numbers were also granted for emigrants from newly independent nations. Spouses and children of United States citizens and natives of the Western Hemisphere remained exempt from the quotas.

Significant changes in United States immigration laws were achieved by amendments enacted in 1965. These amendments abolished the quota system and in its place set up a system of numerical limitations. Under this system, 170,000 visa numbers are allocated to Eastern Hemisphere countries annually, with a maximum of 20,000 to be allotted to any one country. Preference is given to relatives of United States citizens and alien residents, to professional and skilled

Francois Toujan—Gamma/Liaison

Among the thousands of refugees from Indochina were many Vietnamese of Chinese origin. Confined to their boats in Hong Kong Harbor, they stoically awaited passage to the United States.

persons, and to refugees. A total of 120,000 immigrant visas are available annually to the Western Hemisphere on a first-come, first-served basis. Under the 1965 act, parents of United States citizens are included with spouses and children as immediate relatives, who are exempt from the numerical limitations in both hemispheres. Between Dec. 1, 1965, and July 1, 1968, the quota system was phased out, and on July 1, 1968, the new law became fully effective.

Under the present immigration act, all countries within each hemisphere potentially have an equal quantity of immigrant visa numbers available to them. As a result, countries such as those in Asia and Southern and Eastern Europe, which previously had small quotas and therefore a backlog of persons wishing to immigrate to the United States, have sent large numbers of immigrants. Immigration from the countries favored under the quota laws has tended to decline and then level off.

From 1965 to 1975 the largest source of immigrants was Mexico, followed by Cuba, the Philippines, Italy, and Taiwan. By 1978, Indochinese refugees had joined the dominant group; more than 150,000 of them arrived in 1980 alone. Of the more than 800,000 persons who entered the United States in 1980, some 125,000 were Cubans seeking political asylum.

Illegal immigration became a growing problem in the United States in the early 1980's. It was estimated that 1.5 million people entered the country illegally in 1980, joining the at least 2 million illegal immigrants already there.

Canada. About 5 million immigrants, mainly from Europe, entered Canada in the 19th and 20th centuries. During the same period, thousands of French Canadians emigrated to the United States in search of better economic opportunities.

When the transcontinental railroads were built across the Canadian prairies, a flood of immigrants poured into the agricultural lands of the west. Immigration climbed from less than 50,000 in 1901 to more than 400,000 in 1913.

Immigration from Europe came to a halt during World War I. It resumed in 1920 and reached a new peak between 1926 and 1929. During the economic depression of the 1930's and early 1940's, immigration again slowed down, reaching a low of 7,576 in 1942. After World War II it greatly increased, stimulated by Canada's remarkable postwar economic growth. From 1950 through 1959 more than 1.5 million persons entered the country. A record was set in 1957 with 282,164 arrivals. About one quarter of all European refugees settled in Canada after World War II. During World Refugee Year (1959–60), Canada admitted more than 3,500 refugees, including more than 200 who were tubercular and had been stranded for years, with their families, in European refugee camps. Immigration again fell off in the 1960's because of new restrictions against unskilled laborers. New reg-

ulations were initiated in 1972 to curb the rising number of Vietnam-era draft dodgers and armed forces deserters who fled to Canada from the United States. In 1979 Canada offered to provide homes for up to 50,000 refugees from war-torn Indochina.

A new immigration act, which became effective in 1978, is administered by the Canada Employment and Immigration Commission. The act seeks to link immigration with the needs of Canada's labor market and with long-term demographic trends. Under its provisions, a "level of immigration" is set, in consultation with the provinces, that is based on a periodic forecast of the number of immigrants the country can absorb. The basic aims of Canada's present immigration policy are set forth as nondiscrimination, family reunion, humanitarian concern for refugees, and the promotion of national goals.

South America. Argentina and Brazil received most of the immigrants who went to South America. More than 6.5 million immigrants arrived in Argentina in the 100 years before World War II. During the same period, Brazil received at least 4.5 million.

The immigrants who chose to go to South America were generally from southern Europe. The climates of the two regions are similar, and there are also cultural ties. More than 50 percent of Argentina's immigrants were from Italy, while 33 percent came from Spain. After World War II more than one million immigrants arrived in South America, again primarily in Argentina and Brazil.

Immigration in Australia

Like the United States, Australia is a nation of immigrants. But unlike the United States, Australia in the late 20th century had a largely homogeneous population. Most Australians are of British stock.

In the earliest decades of colonization, Australia was basically a dumping ground for British convicts. By 1830, more than half of the immigrants were former criminals. In the course of the 19th century this policy was changed, and numbers of free settlers arrived. In 1901 an Immigration Restriction Act halted the immigration of non-Europeans.

After World War II the migration of Europeans to Australia increased dramatically. Newcomers arrived from Italy, Greece, Yugoslavia, Germany, Poland, and Hungary. (Australia probably has the largest Greek population outside of Greece.) About half of the new immigrants came from Great Britain, South Africa, Canada, and New Zealand. After World War II, and especially after 1956, a much-criticized "white Australia" policy was relaxed. Australia accepted a large group of Indochinese refugees in the late 1970's.

Australia has continued to encourage immigrants with occupational skills, since there has been a persistent shortage of qualified workers throughout the country's history. In 1978 far-reaching changes were made in Australia's immigration policies and procedures. The number of immigrants was raised, annual targets were replaced by a three-year program, and a new selection process was established under which prospective immigrants were scored by such criteria as family ties with Australia, occupational skills, literacy in the mother tongue, knowledge of English, and prospects for successful settlement.

Russia and the Soviet Union

Since the 1820's, great internal migrations have taken place in Russia. In the period up to 1914, about 7.5 million emigrated from European Russia (west of the Ural Mountains) to Siberia. Between the two world wars, another 6 million went to Siberia, and more than 23 million people moved from rural areas to towns and cities within the Soviet Union.

After the Russian Revolution of 1917, an external migration began. Between 1917 and 1921, about 15 million Russians fled their homeland for destinations in Europe and the United States.

Since the revolution, the Soviet government has tightly controlled the movement of its citizens. In the 1970's and 1980's, some political dissidents and several thousand Soviet Jews were allowed to leave, mostly for Israel or the United States.

China

For many centuries, people from China have migrated to other parts of the Far East, particularly Southeast Asia, the Philippines, and the islands of Oceania. Malaysia, Thailand, Indonesia, Singapore, and Vietnam received the largest number of Chinese immigrants. Between 1925 and 1945, about 20 million Chinese migrated to Manchuria and Mongolia.

After the Communist victory in China's civil war in 1949, about 2 million Chinese went to Hong Kong and Taiwan. In the late 1970's this pattern of outmigration was reversed, as Chinese left war-torn Indochina to return to their homeland.

Western Europe

Following World War II, the nations of Western Europe began the immense task of reconstructing devastated population centers and industrial capacity. Faced with severe labor shortages, many of them encouraged the immigration of foreign workers, especially from Africa and the Middle East. Millions of workers arrived in Europe, frequently with their families, and some eventually made permanent homes there. Workers also went from the depressed areas of Italy and Greece to northern Europe.

In addition to these "guest workers," as they were called, millions of refugees entered Western Europe from areas that had fallen under Communist domination. West Germany alone absorbed more than 12 million refugees between 1945 and 1960. About 28 million more refugees went to other lands.

Migration Since 1950

During the second half of the 20th century, there has been a great amount of intracontinental migration—migration within one continental area. Most of this movement has been of unskilled workers, usually

from the rural areas of poorer nations to the cities of more industrially developed societies. In Africa, for example, natives of Malawi, Lesotho, Botswana, and Zambia have emigrated to Zimbabwe (formerly Rhodesia) and South Africa.

The United States has been the recipient of millions of immigrants since 1950. Many of these came from Mexico, both legally and as illegal aliens. Thousands more have come from Cuba, Haiti, and other Caribbean islands. Some workers went to the United States with the intention of becoming citizens; others planned to remain only long enough to make an adequate amount of money before returning home.

The United States has also been the scene of extensive internal migration in the 20th century. For the most part, the motive for this movement has been economic betterment. Beginning during World War I, thousands of blacks left the South for Northern industrial centers. Poor white residents of the South and the Appalachian regions also went to the Northern cities looking for jobs. Farm populations continued to decline as residents of rural areas moved to cities in all parts of the nation.

Since 1960 the fastest growing regions of the country have been the South and the West. Drawn by a more moderate climate and lower overhead costs, many industries and working people moved away from the Northeast and the Midwest. Thousands of retired persons also settled in the so-called Sun Belt states from Florida to California.

MIGRATIONS OF ANIMALS *see* ANIMAL MIGRATION.

MILAN, Italy. Italy's chief industrial, financial, and commercial center, Milan, was 60 percent destroyed and 30 percent damaged by bombings during World War II. Within the next ten years the energetic people of Milan had rebuilt their city, making it bigger than ever before.

Milan is in the heart of the fertile Po River basin, on a main route of trade and travel with Western Europe. Because of its location it has a long history of raids and invasions. The city started as Mediolanum, a Gallic town, and was taken by the Romans in 222 B.C. It was burned a number of times—once by the Huns, twice by the Goths, and again by the German Frederick Barbarossa in 1162.

After reconstruction, Milan suffered a century of civil strife. Then the house of Visconti gained control of the powerful city-state. The last Visconti duke died in 1447, and three years later the rule of the Sforzas began. It continued until 1535. Most of the ancient beauty of the city was created by the heads of these two great houses. When the Sforza line died out, Spain seized Milan and held it until 1714. It then fell to Austria, which governed it until Napoleon created his short-lived Kingdom of Italy and made Milan its capital. After Napoleon's fall, Milan was restored to Austria. In 1859 it was included in the new united kingdom of Italy.

Milan's Gothic cathedral is one of the largest and most beautiful churches in the world. It rises like a brilliant white crown in the heart of the city. Another great church is that of Sant' Ambrogio, built in the 4th century, where St. Ambrose baptized St. Augustine and many emperors were crowned with the "iron crown" of Lombardy. This iron circlet is said to have been made from a nail used in the Cross. Nearby stands the former convent of Santa Maria delle Grazie, where Leonardo da Vinci's famous 'Last Supper' is painted on the refectory wall.

Brera Palace is the home of the Academy of Fine Arts and Science. Its galleries contain works by the great Italian masters and other artists. The city has two famous libraries, two universities, a school of commerce and agriculture, an academy of music, and a celebrated archaeological museum.

La Scala, Milan's opera house, is world-renowned for the talent of its artists and the beauty of the performances. The building, bombed in 1943, was repaired and ready for use again in 1946. Also restored was the Galleria Vittorio Emmanuele, a huge arcade roofed with glass and lined with shops.

Commercial and Industrial Growth

As Italy's greatest railway center, Milan commands lines crossing the Alps via the Simplon Tunnel and St. Gothard passes. Other lines lead east to Venice and south to Genoa and peninsular Italy. The road network converging upon Milan is important because it carries a constant flow of foreign and national tourists. Milan is also the starting point for the famous Italian scenic route called *Autostrada del Sole.*

Milan is the largest of the industrial cities of the north, where most of Italy's manufacturing is done (*see* Italy). Electricity from Alpine waterfalls furnishes power for industries. The textile, printing and publishing, chemical, and machinery industries are the most important. Among the products of Milan and its suburbs are airplanes, automobiles, locomotives and railway cars, refrigerators, elevators, bicycles and motorcycles, tires, precision instruments, chemicals and drugs, furniture, and food products. Skilled workers create fine jewelry and art wares. The annual Milan Fair attracts international buyers.

Milan has the largest stock market in Italy and is one of Europe's major economic areas. The city has also become Italy's leading center in terms of the equipment, organization, and development of sports.

Milan's industry, trade, and population swelled in the period between the two world wars. The city was modernized by a huge railroad station, an airport, and wider streets and taller buildings. The gigantic construction boom after World War II included numerous skyscrapers and factories of modern design. Population (1981 estimate), 1,655,600.

MILDEW *see* FUNGI.

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