Preamble

Between 1800 and 1850, the first-half of the last Century, an unprecedented number of people left their European homelands, crossed the Atlantic, and settled in North America. They came from various parts of Europe . . . and, in all this massive movement the southern Irish were the largest part of the flow.

Three million Irish men and women crossed the seas between 1800 and the 1850's to take up permanent residence in America. They were for the most part a home loving people, accustomed to no more travel than an occasional harvest migration to England. The majority had friends in America, but for all that it was a strange land - a land of danger as well as hope, separated from Ireland by 3000 miles of stormy ocean. The voyage involved from four to ten weeks of cooped-up wretchedness for the miserable landlubbers making their first and usually their last sea voyage. They and the millions who followed them after the Great Famine of 1847 went not in ignorance of these facts, but in spite of them. They fled from a known-evil to a hoped-for good.

Among them were the Moloughneys, the Monahans, the Nolans, and the Morris' - and the Howes, the Murphys, the O'Briens and the Wylies whose lives touched on the first four through the marriage of their daughters to these men of Irish stock.

The following portrays the conditions of the homeland that they left, and attempts to trace the movement of each of these families . . . the families of:

Michael Moloughney	1809-1875
Ellen (Murphy) Moloughney	1817-1900
Edward Monahan	1814-1876
Catherine (Howe) Monahan	1820-1880
John Morris	1816-1895
Judy (O'Brien) Morris	1827-1888
James Nolan	1821-1911
Nancy (Wylie) Nolan	1834-1861

Census data giving the names in each household, their area of origin, their age at next birthday, their marital status, their occupation and their type of dwelling, form the documentary base of this attempt to trace the movement of the four families. Local

sources, such as church archives, cemeteries, courthouse records on individual land grants, sales, wills, as well as maps showing initial and subsequent settlement, were used as much as available. Finally, from the memory of those familiar with the history of each family came the background information that enabled the stories to be tied together.

But before turning to the individual story of each of the families and the lives of those that touched on them . . . it might be helpful to have a quick rundown of the conditions in their homeland. . . and the reasons why they sought to leave. All of them were natives of Ireland, - and it was conditions in their particular part of that Country that were of concern.

POPULATION PRESSURE

Between 1800-1850, the population of Europe increased from 200 to 260 million . . . and Ireland was one of the regions where the increase was greatest. In Ireland in 1815, 6 million people were crowded into a country of 20 million acres (of which only 13 ½ million was usable land). In 1815, the density of the population of Ireland was greater than that of any other European country; - and by 1841 the number had swollen to over 8 million!

Ireland is made up of 4 Provinces - Ulster, Leinster, Munster and Connaught. The Moloughneys and the Nolans came from the Province of Munster which includes the Counties of Clare, Kerry, Cork, Limerick, Tipperary and Waterford . . . the Monahans came from Sligo in the Province of Connaught, the Morris from Tyrone in Ulster.

In 1815, the population of Ireland was 6 million people - with the number fairly evenly distributed throughout the good lands of the Island. In each of the four Provinces - Ulster, Leinster, Munster and Connaught - there were over a million inhabitants, in none more than two million. Ulster with its manufacturing supported 368 persons-per-square-mile of arable land, Munster and Connaught 320 and Leinster 253. In the years that followed, the increase in the Western Provinces of Munster and Connaught was so rapid that they soon approached the condition of Ulster. In 1841, the Irish Census shows that the figure for Ulster was 434, for Connaught 411, for Munster 396 and for Leinster 281 persons-per-square-mile.

According to the Gaelic rule of inheritance - each son was entitled to an equal share of his father's property. A son who built a dwelling on inherited land normally placed it close to the parental house. Through this pattern of land succession and settlement, single farms often evolved into clusters of kinfolk, each distinguished by a common surname. Furthermore, the Gaelic custom dictated that the land of the group could not be sold, and if an individual died without direct heirs the land became the property of the nearest kin.

In rural Ireland, there were three main classes of people - small farmers were the most numerous, a few of them were proprietors, but most were tenants. The landless labourers rarely had more than 1 acre of land, or a single-year's lease. The rural craftsmen were few in number - people such as blacksmiths, shoemakers, carpenters and coopers.

In 1841, in the whole of Ireland, there were 440,000 holdings of less than five acres, 380,000 between five and ten, 330,000 from ten to thirty acres . . . and above this group, were 48,000 large farmers or people with more than thirty acres to their name.

The natural result of the effort to wring from the land a greater income than it was capable of yielding was extreme hardship for everybody. Many small farmers could no longer support a family or provide land for their sons . . . and in such cases the sons usually waived, or, were denied their rights of succession.

Sometimes they established farms independently, if they could find the wherewithal to acquire the property. If not, they became part of the landless labourer group, without any identifiable source of income and with little likelihood of being married at an early age.

Most labourers were unemployed for half the year, and not more than one out of three had steady work. The labourer had an annual income often as low as 6 pounds, and rarely exceeded 10 pounds during the course of the year. Low wages, lack of legal provision for the poor, and the uncertainty of any monetary income at all, made the Irishman absolutely dependent upon such food supply as he could raise for himself. Throughout the early 1800's, the Irishman had to rely wholly upon his potato patch for subsistence, and his holding was rarely used for any other purpose than the raising of potatoes for himself, his family and his pig. The pig was his one regular source of income and as such an important factor in the life of the Irish family.

Through the pattern of land succession, the individual holding had often become so subdivided among members of the fami1y, that the individual lot of each man was no larger than a small garden. The extreme pressure on the land that this created provided the major stimulus for Irish emigration to North America. Economic opportunity beckoned in the New World . . . and North America appeared, by contrast to the economic distress in the homeland, as a vast and empty continent with virtually unlimited free land, growing industrial centres, and an insatiable demand for labour. During the first-half of the 1800s the volume of Irish emigration exceeded that of any other European nation. They dominated the flow across the Atlantic.

RIOTS

The Irish landlords were convinced that proper exploitation of the land could only be achieved if the tenants resided on single, unified holdings. For a century prior to the migrations, Irish landlords had been dissolving the kinfolk settlements, and amalgamating and redistributing the lots in compact and enclosed units to their better tenants. When opportunity presented itself at the expiration of a lease, the landlord usually took advantage of it to consolidate his holdings and evict non-paying tenants. This was made comparatively easy by reason of the fact that rents were normally in arrears at least six months and in many places two years.

Neither hope for the future, nor memories of the past, encouraged the small tenant to improve his lot. Even if he were able through good fortune to save a little, there were almost insurmountable obstacles to his rising into the farmer class. The progressive increase in rents, which accompanied the steadily and rapidly growing population, in most cases wiped out the savings of any one year and the year following. Moreover, the hovel of the small farmer was frequently no better than the tenant's, and he was as nearly as dependent upon the potato for food, and on outside employment, to enable him to obtain some income. The small farmer, too, thanks to small holdings which prevented any proper rotation of crops, or pasture, lived practically on the verge of starvation - so there was little incentive for the tenant to try to move into the farmer class.

At intervals throughout most of Ireland therefore, and almost continuously from 1815 to 1823 in the counties of Limerick, Tipperary and Clare for example, there was a condition approaching civil war. Rioting was not merely the action of a few unfortunate individuals. It was an organized concerted movement in opposition to high rents, and especially to eviction, on the part of the whole farming population. Clare, Limerick and Tipperary formed the core of these affected counties, but unrest overflowed into neighbouring Munster counties as well.

Enclosure spelled eviction for the less well to do. It widened the social and economic distinctions among the people, creating a small-scale peasant class and a great number of landless labourers. Finally, with the forbidding of subdivision, peasant heirs were denied their most cherished right . . . equal shares of the soil. Riot and insurrection was the result.

However, the process continued. Small units were amalgamated into larger areas where proper crop rotation could be practiced. As a consequence, many tenants were evicted . . . and these became wandering labourers, moving about the countryside, working where work was available. It was the small farmer, the victim of the change in conditions of tenancy, and their sons who could no longer acquire land, who left in the greatest numbers and comprised the greater part of the migration waves. The Monahans first started to emigrate in 1824, the Morris' and O'Briens in the late '20's, the Nolans in the early '40's, the Howes in 1848-50, and the Moloughneys in 1850. All had been small tenant farmers on limited amounts of land.

FAMINE

The conviction that the country held no future existed as early as 1815, when emigration first began to swell. After the famine of 1821/22 it was much more widespread. By the middle of the 30's it had become fairly general throughout all parts of the country.

At the beginning of the 20's Munster was in no sense an important centre of emigration, but by 1823 many if not most, of its poor and middling inhabitants were ready and eager to seek their fortunes abroad.

The potato crop of 1821 had been short, and by the following March food supplies in the west of Ireland, particularly Munster, were exhausted. The situation differed from that of 1818, then it was local - only Munster, Connaught, and the county of Donegal were affected, but in this case the failure was far more complete and the consequent famine more disastrous. As always happened in Ireland, the weakened resistance of the people brought on violent outbreaks of typhus. The famine itself ended with a fair crop in July and August of 1822 but as usual the accompanying fever continued. The desire to escape from Ireland became one of the main reasons causing the people of Munster to emigrate.

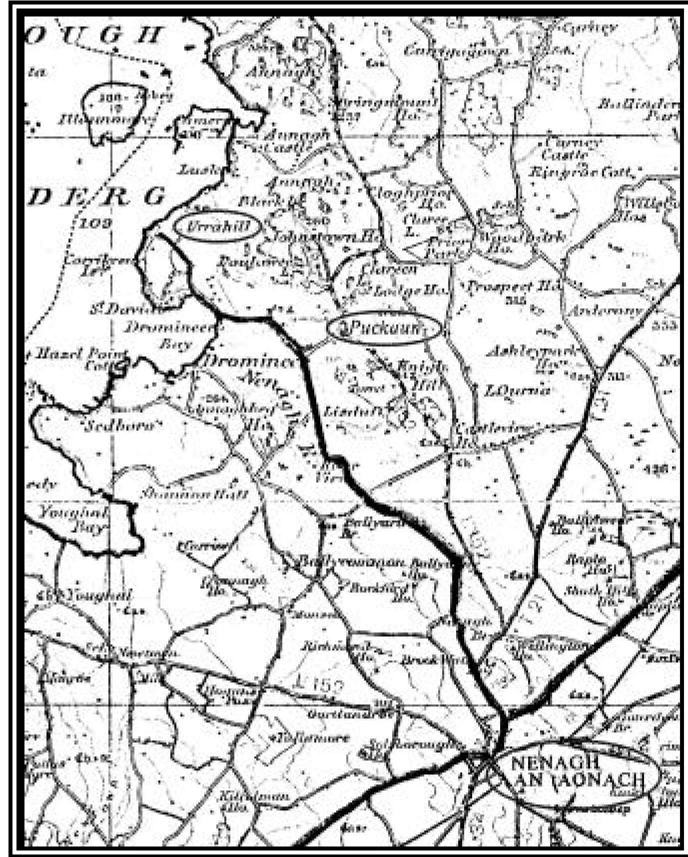
Again, in 1839, a season of exceptionally heavy rainfall destroyed a great part of the potato crop throughout the west, south and the midlands. In 1841 and 1842, there were partial failures once more . . . and as usual, the resistance of the people was weakened, and fever increased. The potato famine, which caused a mass exodus from Ireland, however, was spread over several years in the 1840's.

Half the potato crop was lost in 1845. The months of June, July and August were traditionally known as the 'meal' months, when people had little to eat because the old potatoes were finished, and the new crop was not yet harvested. In the Spring of 1846 the people were eating putrid, diseased potatoes, yet they were looking forward with hope to the new crop later in the year. Then the crop failed again. The winter of 1846-47 was the most severe in living memory.

Hard times drove them forth in great numbers. The year 1846 created a new record - 109,000 emigrants. In 1847, the number was doubled, this inaugurating a decade in which more Irish went to America than had left the island in all its previous history, - and in 1848 the crop failed again. It is estimated that within four years from the start of the Great

Famine, over 2 million people - almost a quarter of the entire population - emigrated or died from starvation or disease.

Nenagh, Puckane, and Urra Hill
In relation to Lough Derg



The fertile plain of North Tipperary did not escape the dread visitation of famine and pestilence. Nenagh is the capital of North Tipperary and but 19/20 miles from Urra Hill where Michael Moloughney and Ellen Murphy lived through those terrible years. The happenings in Nenagh and surroundings were equally true of other parts of the country. A description of the events which were associated with this unhappy period is as follows:

Excerpts from the Nenagh paper during the Course of the Great Famine

1. December 1846 - "There are 2,200 totally destitute persons in Nenagh, of whom 700 are widows, orphans and infirm. A soup kitchen has been opened in that town, at which hundreds of the poor are supplied gratuitously, while those able to pay are charged 1 d the quart."

2. February 1847 - "The progress of the famine is fearful. Traces of death appear in the countenances of the aged and the young."

3. March 1847 - "There are 1,500 paupers in Nenagh Workhouse and upwards of 1,000 families are daily relieved at the soup-kitchens, whilst the cultivation of the soil is still almost totally neglected."

4. June 1847 - "No more patients to be admitted to John's Lane Fever Hospital because of overcrowding."

5. November 1847 - Mr. Burr's large barn in Barrack Street to be altered and repaired for the purpose of serving as an auxiliary hospital. The death rate in the Workhouse by fever and famine is 200 a week."

6. July 1848 - "In Nenagh, 16,000 of the labouring classes are in receipt of relief. Yet not withstanding this and the over-crowded state of the Workhouse, the streets of Nenagh are daily thronged with crowds of poor, several of whom commit petty offences for the sole purpose of being committed to Gaol."

7. October 1848 - "The Workhouse and auxiliary Workhouse of Nenagh, capable of containing 1,700 persons are filled with the poor."

8. October 1848 - "A heart-rending spectacle was exhibited on Thursday evening at the gate of Nenagh's Workhouse. In the inclement weather nearly 500 half naked creatures of both sexes and all ages stood shivering on the road opposite the Workhouse, where they had been all day, awaiting an order of the Board, to be admitted. Some of them were in the most dangerous stages of dysentery and fever, and all, from debility, unable to walk a dozen steps, their features were pallid with disease and want. The anguish of these poor people may be judged when after coming 10 or 12 miles, they were told at the gate of the House that there was no more room, that the House was full. Still they lingered. In the evening some 30 or 40 paupers were turned out to make room for an equal number of the crowd, while the rest returned weary and disappointed to the cheerless homes they left in the morning."

9. January 1849 - "116 deaths from the 25 November to 30th December"

10. February 1849 - "3009 inmates in Nenagh Workhouse (34 deaths per week). The Inspector of the Workhouse, the Porter and the Ward-Master have died of fever and others of the Officers are ill."

11. April 1849 - "50% deaths from Cholera in John's Lane Fever Hospital, Brewery Auxiliary and Barrack St. Workhouses."

12. May 1849 - "At a meeting of the Rate Payers held at Nenagh, the Reverend Fathers Power and Mahony, Catholic Clergymen, gave most deplorable details of the suffer-

Power and Mahony, Catholic Clergymen, gave most deplorable details of the sufferings of the poor of that part of the country. It appeared that since Christmas there have been nearly 1,000 deaths in the Workhouse of Nenagh."

13. August 1849 - "James Mare, a coffin maker, sent a bill to the Nenagh board of Guardians for 1,130 coffins furnished by him from 25th of March to 25th of July a period of 4 months."

14. August 18 1849 - "180 young women were assembled in the dining hall of the Nenagh Workhouse to undergo inspection by the Emigration Agent. They were aged between 15 and 19. All appeared cleanly despite the pauper dress. 100 of the number are to be selected for a free passage to Australia."

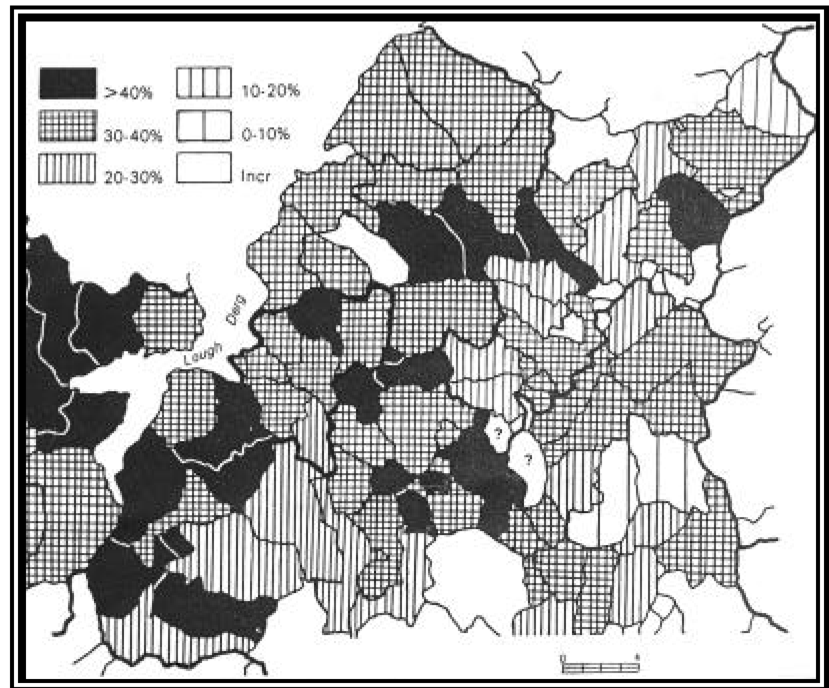
15. April 1852 - "Another batch of paupers from Nenagh - 180 females and 20 males arrived in Limerick by cart-conveyance and embarked in the ship "Jessie" for Quebec. They were all comfortably equipped for the voyage. One half of the immigrant girls were to be employed on their arrival at 2/ 4 monthly wages."

16. June 1853 - "Conditions have improved in the Workhouse. The population of the Nenagh area in 1841 - 70,788; 1852 - 56,465."

North Tipperary,

Population Decline,

1841 - 1851, By Parish



EDUCATION

For the first time the Irish began to emigrate from Parishes from which they never had before. For this, education was in some degree responsible. The majority of the labourers in the 30's knew little or no English and were under a serious handicap in America. During Penal Days, which ended with the passage of the Emancipation Act in 1828, Catholics in Ireland were prevented from getting an education, - among other things. To improve themselves, the Catholics attended 'Hedge Schools' - illegal classes held in private houses or out-of-doors (hence the name Hedge Schools) where traditional Irish culture and language were preserved.

The majority of the inhabitants of Ireland were still illiterate in 1841, but the progress of education was making rapid inroads into the total. As knowledge of English spread through the homeland, people became more and more exposed to emigration propaganda. Armed with the language of the New World, and having some prior knowledge of conditions there from friends who had already made the voyage, the potential emigrant was in a much better position to assess the advantages and disadvantages of emigration.

AGE

The general custom was that when a family was about to emigrate, two or three of the youngest, and strongest, went on first, and then when they obtained a footing, sent for the rest of the family.

These characteristics are the marks of poverty. While the Irish preferred to emigrate as families when they could, the young and healthy often went first and sent for the rest of the family the following season. The heads of the Nolan, Morris and Monahan families, as well as some of the Costellos, all went to Canada as single men. The reorganization of the farmland and the fact that the holdings had all too often been subdivided to such small proportions that the land couldn't support all sons, brought about a condition where the great majority of Irish emigrants in the earlier years was between 15 and 40 years of age.

However, with the occurrence of the Great Famine of 1847 whole families were swept across the sea - entire families including aunts, uncles, grandparents and cousins forced to depart at the same time. Ellen Murphy Moloughney was eight months pregnant but still had no choice but to endure the trials of the stormy voyage across the sea. She and her husband and six small children, along with 14 others from Urra Hill, all left the Country at the same time, whether they were ready to or not. The Famine made the decision for them.

TEMPERANCE

Another item of note was the Temperance Movement, very popular among the Irish in the early 1840's. It started in 1836 when drunkenness was first made punishable by arrest and fine. It received its main stimulus, however, in 1838 from the work of Father Matthew, a Franciscan Friar, whose great emotional crusade, backed by the Church and accompanied by tales of miracles, had within 2 years captured Ireland. The Temperance Pledge was taken by Catholics everywhere. For several years, until the death of Father Matthew and the miseries of the Famine in 1847 put an end to his crusade, the movement was one of the strongest instruments in Irish life. It proved an invaluable aid to emigration, both in helping the poor to save, as well as in increasing the prospects of success on reaching their destination.

The heads of both the Nolan and the Morris families had taken the Pledge . . . and in some cases it was handed down to at least the second generation. Kitty Morris would not marry her fiancé until he had promised to be a teetotaler like her father. Kitty was the belle of the countryside and John Nolan apparently felt that the move was worthwhile! The marriage took place . . . how many more times he had to take the same Pledge is unknown! On the Moloughney and Monahan side, there does not appear to be any record of a Pledge having been taken! Only one of these sons, Jim Moloughney, is known to have been a teetotaler. No record can be found of the entry of a Moloughney or Monahan name in the records of the Temperance Movement in Canada.

EMIGRATION

Once the Irish farmer had left his native homeland, he had said farewell to kin and neighbours and to almost everything that was customary and familiar. For the first time, perhaps, he faced the world virtually alone, as a stranger. To his eyes the move must have appeared overwhelming. The journey to the coast, the sojourn in the Irish port, the crossing, the arrival in an alien city, and the subsequent search for a livelihood were all brand new experiences for him.

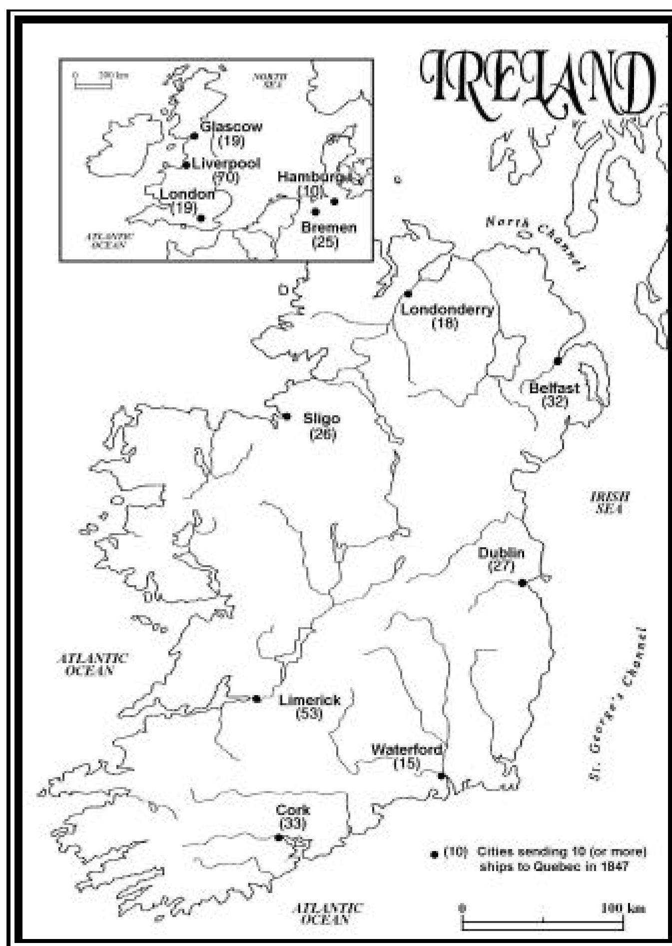
The Irish emigrant was subject to many abuses as he journeyed from his homeland to his new destination. The abuses, which most seriously affected him, took place in part before the ship sailed. The most obvious item of falsification was the tonnage of the vessel, which largely determined the speed and comfort of the voyage. The most important item was a quick voyage, not only because the vessels were small and most passengers poor sailors, but also because short rations and even starvation might overtake those who were too long on the ocean.

They traveled on board the timber ships which plied their trade between Britain and North America. These vessels needed a clean cargo for the outgoing voyage, - a human cargo would fit the bill. The average timber vessel was little more than a shell, it had no compartments except the Captain's quarters aft and the crew's quarters forward, so that on the trip from Canada to Britain the whole hulk could be loaded with timber from keel to deck. To prepare for the cargo of emigrants from Britain to Canada, the owner laid a temporary deck on the lower beams about five and one-half feet below the upper deck. On a 400-ton ship this gave a lower deck of about 95 X 25 feet. On it, two tiers of rough wooden berths, each six by six feet, were built along each side, and sometimes down the middle. There were no separate quarters for family groups, single men or women. There were no port-holes and no ventilation other than the three hatchways. In bad weather, the hatches were battened down and the emigrants left in pitch darkness to breathe the stifling air, and with little or no light and less sanitation.

Those who booked passage on a timber vessel had to provide their own foot for the voyage. The Shipping Company undertook to supply water, fuel for cooking, and 'sleeping space'. The sleeping space was meager and they packed them in. Regulations

with regard to passengers per ton of weight were extremely lax. Nor were British vessels bound for Canada required to take on doctors, and most did not. The ‘London Times’ of Sept 17, 1847 cited an ‘almost criminal indifference’ on the part of the owners to the safety, let alone the comfort of those unfortunates who sailed on them. Only desperate people would have traveled under these conditions.

Ships from Ireland were the worst. Dr. J.J. Bigsby, an army surgeon, described them as “itinerant pest houses”, there was “no possibility for isolation” and as soon as small-pox or typhoid broke out, “anyone who had not been vaccinated was sure to get it”. Emigrant boats became known as “coffin ships” because so many people died en route.



Ports of Exit - 1847

In addition to the cost of the passage (three pounds for adults, 30 shillings for children under fourteen from Limerick to Quebec), emigrants had to have money for food. An emigrant’s guide advised taking enough for 10 weeks. Oatmeal, flour, potatoes, salt pork or dried veal were staples most emigrants took aboard with them. But bad weather could delay sailing vessels for weeks on end, and, the voyage often took much longer than planned. They ran out of food, and the drinking water turned foul, and unhealthy conditions were unavoidable.

An equally serious problem was the misinterpretation of dates of sailing. The principal effect of delay upon the poor emigrant family was to diminish, sometimes even to exhaust, its store of provisions. The emigrant family had to carry its own provisions and there were two factors to consider: 1) they had to reach the port of embarkation by road, with most of it the poorer sort, and because they were travelling on foot, they were

physically limited as to the amount of provisions they could carry; and 2) the amount of time in port awaiting the sailing date was of particular meaning. Because the ship owners wanted to sail with the largest amount of cargo possible, they delayed the sailing as much as they could in order to acquire the greatest number of passengers and therefore the highest revenue . . . without consideration as to the effect on those already waiting in port, having come there because of an announced sailing time for some date earlier.

Where they were carrying household goods with them, the distance from the home to the port was of primary importance. In general, the emigrants sailed from the port nearest to them. It is known that the Moloughneys sailed from the Port of Limerick, on board a vessel that touched at Kilrush on its way outward. Whether or not the family boarded at Limerick or subsequently at Kilrush, would have depended on the difficulties of inland travel they faced at that time. If on foot, they would most assuredly have walked the 30 odd miles to Limerick. If by boat down the Shannon, they might have gone beyond Limerick and awaited the vessel in Kilrush - another 20 miles beyond Limerick. Family history has it that 22 people left Urra Hill at the time the Moloughney family set out and whatever their ages, or male/female ratio, the group had to make its own way to the port of embarkation to meet the announced sailing date of the "Jessie".

From the ‘London Times’ of Sept 17, 1847, “in only ten of the vessels that arrived at Quebec in July (four from Cork and six from Liverpool), out of 4,427 passengers, 804 had died on the passage and 847 were visibly diseased, with final results proving that a far larger number had in them the seeds of disease”. “The Larch from Sligo sailed with 400 passengers, of whom 108 died on the passage and 150 were sick.” “The Virginia sailed with 496 - 158 died on ship, 186 were sick, and the remainder landed feeble and tottering - the Captain, Mates and crew were all sick.” The ‘Black Hole of Calcutta’ was a mercy compared to the holds of these vessels. Yet simultaneously, Germans from Hamburg and Bremen, are arriving daily, all healthy, robust and cheerful.”

ARRIVAL

It is not known whether the April 1850 sailing of the "Jessie" was on time or not, but she did have a very successful crossing. The trip took less than five weeks and there was only one recorded death on the voyage. Fares by this time had dropped to £2 or at most £3 - money that may have been provided by relatives who had gone before.

On May 18, 1850, the Chief Immigration Agent in Quebec City reported “there arrived yesterday 39 emigrant ships at Grosse Isle having on board 6,034 passengers ‘who were superior in health to any inspected since 1845’ attributed to the fine weather and a short passage”. The average crossing time was 33 days although the quickest was the Jessie from Limerick, and the longest the Caledonia from Limerick in 47 days. The Agent also commented on the improved diet, as fixed by the amended Imperial Passenger Act…. “only 27 had died and some 21 had been sent to hospital with small pox”.

In 1850, arrivals at the Port of Quebec were 32,292 including 346 who entered via the U.S.A. Of these, 9887 sailed from English ports, 17,976 from Ireland, 2,879 from Scotland, 849 from Continental Europe, and 701 from “Lower Ports”. It was estimated that 75% of the total were Irish. This estimate is based on the calculation that 90% of the passengers from Liverpool and 33% of those from the Clyde were Irish. There were 58 births on shipboard, 193 deaths on board and 20 in quarantine. The total of 32,292 was down 6,202 from 1849. The peak year was 1847 when immigration was 106,680.

Of the total of 32,292, there were 13,723 who proceeded directly to the U.S.A. and 14,980 to Ontario (Canada West). Less than 3,600 stayed in Quebec (Canada East).

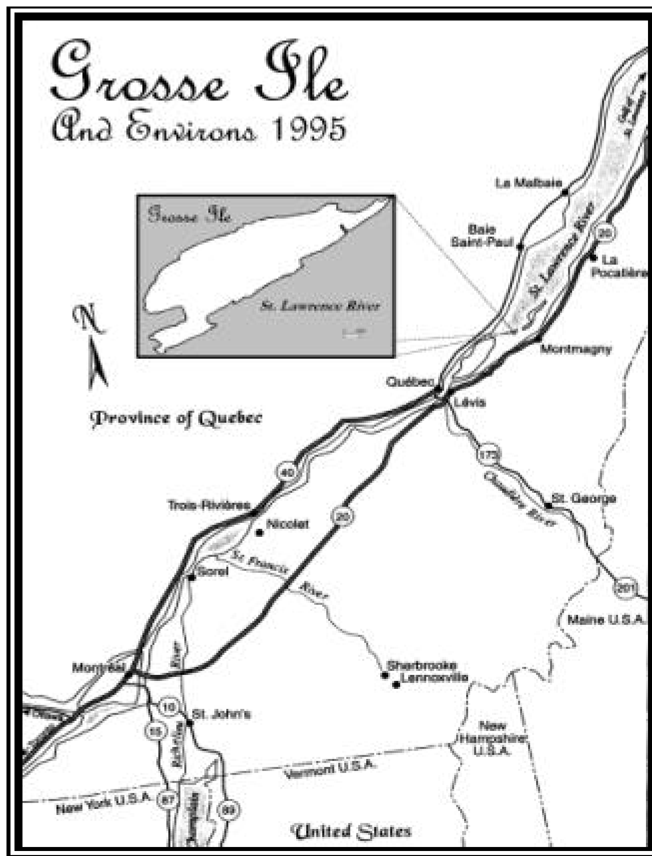
Arrivals at the Port of Quebec from the British Isles, Europe, and the Maritime Colonies 1829 - 1959

Year	England	Ireland	Scotland	Europe	Maritime Provinces	Total
1829	3,565	9,614	2,643		123	15,945
1830	6,799	18,300	2,450		451	28,000
1831	10,343	34,133	5,354		424	50,254
1832	17,481	28,204	5,500	15	546	51,746
1833	5,189	12,013	4,196		345	21,752
1834	6,799	19,206	4,591		339	30,935
1835	3,067	7,108	2,127		225	12,527
1836	12,188	12,590	2,224	485	235	27,722
1837	5,580	14,538	1,509		274	21,901
1838	990	1,456	547		273	3,266
1839	1,586	5,113	485		255	7,439
1840	4,567	16,291	1,144		232	22,234
1841	5,970	18,317	3,559		240	28,086
1842	12,191	25,532	6,095		556	44,374
1843	6,499	9,728	5,006		494	21,727
1844	7,609	9,993	2,234		217	20,142
1845	8,833	14,208	2,174		160	25,375
1846	9,163	21,049	1,645	896		32,753
1847	31,505	54,310	3,747			89,562
1848	6,034	16,582	3,086	1,395	842	27,939
1849	8,980	23,126	4,984	436	968	38,494
1850	9,887	17,976	2,879	849	701	32,292
1851	9,677	22,381	7,042	870	1,106	41,076
1852	9,276	15,983	5,477	7,256	1,184	39,176
1853	9,585	14,417	4,745	7,456	496	36,699
1854	18,175	16,165	6,446	11,537	857	53,183
1855	6,754	4,106	4,859	4,864	691	21,274
1856	10,353	1,688	2,794	7,343	261	22,439
1857	15,471	2,016	3,218	11,368	24	32,097
1858	6,441	1,163	1,424	3,578	214	12,810
1859	4,846	417	793	2,722		8,778

Source: Parliamentary Paper, 1836, XL (76), 8; 1837, XLII (132), 9: XXXIII (613), 74; 1834, XXXIV (109), 11; 1847 XXXIX (777), 19; 1847-8, XXVI (961), 25-9; 1849, XXII (1082), 16; 1854, XLVI (1763), 30; 1857-8, XLI (165), 20; 1860, XLIV (606), 17.

From British sources. In the famine years the Emigration Commissioners were handicapped by the lack of report from A.C. Buchanan, Emigration Agent at Quebec, who was seriously ill of the emigrant fever.

GROSSE-ISLE



All vessels entering Canada were required to stop at Grosse-Isle for inspection, and quarantine if need be. Grosse-Isle, a small island in the St. Lawrence, fifty kilometers downstream from Quebec City, was established as a Quarantine Station in 1832 and as many as four million immigrants to Canada were forced to spend time there.

At least fifteen thousand bodies are buried on the island, by far the greater part from the 'coffin ships' that carried the Irish emigrants in 1847-48 to their homes in the new world. One monument on the island bears the inscription "in this secluded spot lie the mortal remains of 5,294 person, who, flying from pestilence and famine in Ireland in the year 1847, found in America but a grave".

A member of the extended Moloughney family, Mr. Jim Minogue of Kilruane, Clougprior Parish, County Tipperary, a great-grandson of Denis Minogue and Catherine Moloughney (see "Moloughneys of Ireland") wrote a play on real people, and actual events, called "Flight to Grosse-Isle", a drama in two acts with music and song. He penned the story of Catherine Kennedy who left Borris, County Tipperary, with the rest of her family in the Spring of 1847, only to have lost most of her family and be declared an orphan by the Summer when she arrived in Canada. She was adopted by M. Clovis Caron of L'islet, and in 1854 married Mr. Caron's nephew. The play was performed for the first time in April of 1997 in Nenagh, a staging that coincided exactly with the departure 150 years previously of the ship the "Jessie" aboard which the drama is based. The 'Nenagh Guardian' subsequently reported "at the performances conclusion, there was a silence that lasted a minute or two, reflecting just how moved everyone present felt before enthusiastic applause".

DESTINATION

Without exception, all vessels were required to anchor at the station for inspection before being allowed to proceed to Quebec City. Despite the best efforts of the medical staff, typhus spread up the St. Lawrence River to Montreal and beyond, particularly in 1847.

From the official return of burials at Montreal for the two weeks ending Aug 7 (1847)… "it appears that in the city there died during that period 924 residents and 896 emigrants, making a total of 1,730 deaths. Besides these, 1,510 emigrants died at the sheds, making a grand total of 3,240, against only 488, including residents and emigrants, for the corresponding weeks last year".

From Quebec to Montreal, emigrants traveled the 180 miles in steamboat, from Montreal in wagons to a place called La Chine (thus avoiding the Lachine rapids), usually from there to Prescott in boats a total of 130 miles, and then inland to their destination. In 1847 the Montreal and Lachine Railroad was opened - to run the 9 miles to Lachine where another boat would be taken for the next part of the voyage.

The Ottawa presented challenges for the traveler going up river. There was an elevation of 30 meters from Carillon to Grenville, and a similar drop down the river between Hawkesbury and Pointe Fortune. There were three rapids, - one at Carillon, one at Chute-a-Blondeau, and the third at Grenville. These rapids necessitated challenging portages, until canals were built to bypass the rapids. In 1814 two companies of the Royal Staff Corp. were sent from England - and the three canals were built in 1815-1833, a remarkable engineering feat considering there were no cranes, bulldozers or trucks to help with the heavy work. Those traveling up the Ottawa boarded their boats in Lachine, and used the canals to by-pass the rapids on their way to Bytown.

Prospective settlers were cautioned again and again to arrive in America as early in the year as possible, so that the earnings and the experience of summer could help to tide them over the winter when employment was often bad and the pioneer was dependent on the crops of the preceding season. April, May and June were the recognized emigrant months, and after June few ships carried a full quota of passengers. This was practically the only period in which immigration to Quebec and Newfoundland was possible. Vessels

did not leave Ireland before April, timed to reach Quebec at the opening of the St. Lawrence. Those that sailed after June were likely to arrive too late to obtain a return cargo of timber, and if they were delayed, might find themselves ice-bound for the winter. The danger of contrary winds in July and August, in contrast to the generally favourable winds of the spring season, also tended to prevent late sailing.

Insofar as the emigration came from older districts where it had been long established - and the greater part did originate in such districts - there was a natural tendency to follow relatives and friends. Successful emigrants were not satisfied to send only good advice back to Ireland, they made every effort to bring over families and friends, who in turn brought others, and so kept up a continuous and expanding stream of chain migration.

The Costellos followed one another. The Moloughneys went to Twin Elm where her sister (a Costello by marriage) was already living. Three of his brothers went on to Syracuse where Hogans were living (related by marriage). The Gleasons followed his wife's side of the family (the Howes). The Monahans followed one another. Just what brought the Nolans and the Morris' to their chosen location is not known at this time - and it is unlikely the reason will ever be uncovered at this late date.

SETTLEMENT

The New World forest was a complete novelty to the Irishman. Centuries of continuous occupation in Ireland had resulted in gradual removal of the native forest and by 1600 all but one-eighth of the land had been stripped of its trees. In the homeland, the people salvaged timber and construction material wherever they could . . . and it must have been especially galling for emigrants from this timber-starved region to be forced to destroy so much timber in order to create a farm. During the first few years the settlers struggled to clear enough land to produce a crop beyond their own requirements. Unlike the homeland, labour was scarce and expensive, land plentiful and cheap. The clearing of two acres of land each year was a large undertaking.

The Irish families in the early years of settlement multiplied in numbers at a rate much faster than anything in the homeland . . . a large family meant increased help to clear the land, and to improve the standard of living of the emigrant. The business of clearing

land in the backwoods was best accomplished communally. Hired labour was costly and tasks such as logging, or stumping, were frequently organized on a reciprocal-cooperative basis. Coming from almost treeless terrain in the homeland, the Irish emigrants had little knowledge of the techniques and tools of woodland clearing. With the exception of the technique of burning the refuse of freshly cleared land before cultivation, there were no homeland precedents for the land-clearing implements, or methods, required by the Irish in the New World. Adjustments to a new physical environment were sometimes slowly and painfully made.

Some of them worked for others to earn money to take themselves a bride and start their own farm. This apparently was the route chosen by the heads of the Monahan, Morris and Nolan families. Others, already with a family, squatted on land to which they had no legal right, but as soon as possible registered their claim and purchased the land, borrowing what they had to and mortgaging where need be. Needless to say, the number of bidders where one's land was up for auction would be few in number, and the price would not be much above the floor level. The Moloughney land that had been occupied from 1851 was purchased only in 1861 (at auction), and Letters Patent were made available only in 1867 when the full purchase price had finally been paid.

From a country where land was scarce and rents were costly, the Irish emigrant found himself with access to plentiful and cheap land on which he could do much more than merely eke out a meagre living through hard work and perseverance. All of the families that have been traced in connection with this work have grown and prospered, - albeit with difficulties from time to time.

LONGER LIFE

More than three million Irishmen yielded to one or all of the economic pressures described in the foregoing, and left for America during the l800's.

The emigrant did not wholly escape the evils of sickness and death by moving to the New World. Many Irish died on the voyage across the sea. During cholera and typhus epidemics the mortality sometimes rose as high as ten percent, but at no time was it worse than in the ports from which the ships sailed.

Moreover, the newcomers often brought disease with them to the ports where they arrived . . . and thousands more perished. During the Great Famine, it was said that one-third of the Irish died within three years of reaching North America, and that the average longevity was only fourteen years. But this was an exceptional period, and the vast majority survived the chills and fevers of their first years in North America to become sturdy citizens with the prospect of extending their span of life.

In rural Ireland, the average age at death was nineteen years, and not a fifth of the population lived beyond forty. In the United States and Canada, the expectation of life at birth was approximately forty years, and for those who survived the first ten it was extended to fifty-eight, an age reached by less than five percent of the Irish at home.

Once in Canada however, the transplanted Irishman, after he had a diet adequate to his needs, began to live as long and longer than those already here. Some of the 'Older Folk' uncovered in this work are as follows:

Some of the Older Folk

Identification	Name	Dates	Age
6.0	John Monahan	1756 - 1857	101
1.3.4	Margaret Leahy Tucker	1878 - 1878	99
1.9	Ann Tierney Moloughney	1863 - 1958	95
1.2.10	Bill McCarthy	1882 - 1975	93
2.3.4	Henry Costello	1850 - 1942	92
1.8.2	Jim Costello	1883 - 1975	92
	Marry (Carr) Morris	1876 - 1968	91
1.3.3	Mame Leahy	1867 - 1957	90
9.0	James Nolan	1822 - 1911	89
1.2.1	Matt McCarthy	1858 - 1946	88
1.8	Ellen Moloughney Costello	1853 - 1959	86
2.3.7	Jane Costello	1857 - 1943	86
9.3.2	Maurice Nolan	1887 - 1973	86
1.1.1	Michael Moloughney	1868 - 1953	85
1.10.2	Ed Moloughney	1886 - 1971	85
9.3.2	Christina Grimes Nolan	1891 - 1977	85
3.4	Ellen Murphy Moloughney	1816 - 1900	84
11.1.1	Ann Middleton	1838 - 1922	84
7.1.4	Tommy Morris	1862 - 1946	84
1.9.1	Mary-Ann Moloughney	1884 - 1969	84
1.10.1	Mick Moloughney	1885 - 1969	84
9.3.4	Ed Nolan	1891 - 1975	84
12.1.3	John Larmer	1855 - 1938	83

9.3.5	Johanna Nolan Summers	1893 - 1976	83
1.10.1	Mary Clarke Moloughney	1894 - 1977	83
1.1	Patrick Moloughney	1835 - 1917	82
2.3.3	William Costello	1850 - 1932	82
6.3.7	Elizabeth Monahan Moloughney	1859 - 1941	82
1.8.1	Bill Costello	1881 - 1963	82
6.6	Catherine Monahan Burns	1826 - 1907	81
	James Morris	1834 - 1916	81
1.3	Patrick Leahy	1835 - 1916	81
1.9.2	Patrick Moloughney	1886 - 1967	81