

MANY RIVERS TO CROSS

Black Migrations in Brazil
and the Caribbean

Edited by

Elaine P. Rocha

*The University of the West Indies,
Cave Hill Campus, Barbados*

Critical Perspectives on Social Science



VERNON PRESS

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www.vernonpress.com

In the Americas:
Vernon Press
1000 N West Street, Suite 1200,
Wilmington, Delaware 19801
United States

In the rest of the world:
Vernon Press
C/Sancti Espiritu 17,
Malaga, 29006
Spain

Critical Perspectives on Social Science

Library of Congress Control Number: 2023946573

ISBN: 978-1-64889-767-2

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Foreword	vii
Darién J. Davis <i>Middlebury College</i>	
List of Figure and Tables	xvii
Introduction: Paths on the Margins of History	xix
Elaine P. Rocha <i>The University of the West Indies, Cave Hill Campus, Barbados</i>	
PART I	
SLAVERY AND FORCED MIGRATIONS	1
CHAPTER ONE	
The Atlantic Slave Trade and the Portuguese-Brazilian Slavocrat Social Formation	3
João-Manuel Neves <i>Centro de Estudos Comparatistas, Universidade de Lisboa, Portugal</i>	
CHAPTER TWO	
Fugitive Slaves in an Unstable Border Region: Patterns of Nineteenth-Century Slave Flight from Brazil to Uruguay and Argentina	23
Karl Monsma <i>Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil</i> Patrícia Bosenbecker <i>Universidade Federal da Grande Dourados, Brazil</i>	
CHAPTER THREE	
Slavery and Cassava in the Atlantic World: Commercial and Cultural Relationship between Rio de Janeiro and Angola in the Nineteenth Century	49
Nielson Rosa Bezerra <i>Universidade do Estado do Rio de Janeiro, Brazil</i>	

PART II	
BLACK AGENCY IN THE POST ABOLITION	71
CHAPTER FOUR	
The Great Migration in Brazil: Blacks Families and Households. Rio de Janeiro, (1888-1940)	73
Carlos Eduardo Coutinho da Costa	
<i>Universidade Federal Rural do Rio de Janeiro, Brazil</i>	
CHAPTER FIVE	
Life after Slavery: Migration, Work and Culture in Brazil 1900-1929	91
Lúcia Helena Oliveira Silva	
<i>Universidade Estadual Paulista, Brasil</i>	
CHAPTER SIX	
Historical Aspects of Forced and Free Black Migrations in the ABC Islands	105
Marco A. Schaumloeffel	
<i>University of British Columbia, Canada</i>	
PART III	
UNWANTED PEOPLE WITH DANGEROUS IDEAS	119
CHAPTER SEVEN	
The Antillean Immigration in Cuba: Labor and the Politics of Race	121
Kátia Couto	
<i>Universidade Federal do Amazonas, Brazil</i>	
CHAPTER EIGHT	
No Ugly People in The Paradise: Undesirable Immigrants in the Brazilian Racial Democracy	133
Elaine P. Rocha	
<i>The University of the West Indies, Cave Hill Campus, Barbados</i>	

CHAPTER NINE

**Diasporic Echoes in the Global South: The Italo-Ethiopian War
and Brazil** 155

Petrônio Domingues

Universidade Federal de Sergipe, Brazil

Contributors 171

Index 175

Foreword

Darién J. Davis

Middlebury College

It is a peculiar sensation, this double consciousness... one ever feels his two-ness, an American, a Negro; two souls, two thoughts, two unreconciled strivings; two warring ideals in one dark body, whose dogged strength alone keeps it from being torn asunder.

W. E. B. Dubois, *The Soul of Black Folks*

There is a direct connection between the pioneering work of W.E. B. Dubois and this important volume entitled *Many Rivers to Cross: Black Migrations in Brazil and the Caribbean*. Dubois developed a theory of dual consciousness, or “two-ness,” to describe the African American experience. He focused on North American territorial boundaries, but he also thought about the role of Black migration. In his 1917 article in *Crisis*, the official magazine of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP), Dubois anticipated the impact of the movement of Black Americans from the south to the north. This phenomenon would later be called ‘The Great Migration.’ Dubois would also become increasingly interested in the global African diaspora and Pan-Africanism. This volume engages and expands upon many of Dubois’ ideas, including dual and multiple consciousness, transnationalism, and other ‘great migrations.’ By focusing on Brazil and the Caribbean, two geographical regions that have received more African migrants than anywhere else in the Atlantic world, this work offers students multiple possibilities to expand their knowledge on Black migrations in the global south.

My excitement about this volume connects to my incessant quest to find and promote good sources about African descendants. Like Dubois and many scholars studying the Black experience, my research was initially nationally bound. I began my scholarly career by studying nation-building and race in Cuba, the largest Caribbean nation. Learning Portuguese and moving to Brazil in the late 1980s exposed me to a rich new historiography and way of understanding the Black experience from a comparative perspective. Meeting Abdias do Nascimento and many other Afro-Brazilians interested in making diasporic connections helped shape my scholarly trajectory and that of many of my peers. Our attendance at multi-lingual conferences and connections to networks preparing for the United Nations World Conference against Racism, Racial Discrimination, Xenophobia and Related Intolerance in 2001 also advanced

our understanding of the commonalities and differences of the transnational Black experience.

In one of my conversations with Nascimento, he spoke warmly of his friendships and admiration for many African American and Caribbean writers and activists, including Marcus Garvey, who wanted to form a branch of his Universal Negro Improvement Association (UNIA) in Brazil, and Léon Damas, one of the founders of the Negritude movement. Nascimento also talked about his connection to Africa and his participation in the Second World Black and African Festival of Arts and Culture in Dakar, Senegal, in 1977. He was interested in Brazil's migratory connections to the major regions associated with the trans-Atlantic slave trade well before the field of Black migration studies had emerged as a bonified field of inquiry. His self-imposed exile in the United States in the 1960s also allowed him to educate Americans on Afro-Brazilian struggles and expand the global reach of Black Studies.

Nevertheless, even in the early twenty-first century, most historians interested in diffusing knowledge about African descendants in Latin America and the Caribbean utilized the nation-state as the framework of analysis. Works on Afro-Mexicans, Afro-Columbians, and Afro-Cubans began to multiply. My 2000 work, *Afro-Brazilians Hoje*, followed this model. These works did not explicitly study the experience of Black Latin Americans through the lens of migration.

Indeed, before the wide availability of the internet as a research tool, historians had limited access to archives and historiographical information from different cultures. Travel constraints and limited language training also made transnational historical studies more challenging to produce. Moreover, history graduate programs often dissuaded students from pursuing comparative or transnational history dissertations. Nevertheless, edited volumes by historians from different national perspectives often allowed students to make broad cross-national comparisons and inter-regional connections. As early as the 1940s and 1950s, scholars such as Frank Tannenbaum attempted to compare Latin American slave societies with the United States. Stanley Elkins followed with a study that argued that slavery in the U. S. was a result of rampant capitalism. At the same time, in Latin America, the presence of the Church and laws of manumission engendered a different societal dynamic (Tannenbaum).¹ These broad comparisons did not explicitly examine slavery as forced migration. However, they helped pave the way for the fields of migration and diaspora studies that would later alter the Academy.

¹ See also Carl Degler, *Neither Black nor White: Slavery and Race Relations in Brazil and the U.S* (New York: Macmillan, 1971).

As students began to receive training in several languages and had access to multiple archival materials, historians such as Robert Brent Toplin in the 1970s and Rebecca Scott published comparative analyses of slavery, abolition, and race in English. Their work also appeared in edited volumes alongside other scholars (Toplin; Scott). These studies provided further knowledge for the early development of Black migration studies *avant la lettre*.

Students also benefitted from scholars who wrote on the global Black experience. Stuart Hall's essays on Black representation, policing, and transnational Black popular culture (Hall) and Paul Gilroy's *Black Atlantic: Modernity and Double-Consciousness* (1993) provided ways of thinking about diaspora, migration, and circulation of black cultures. However, the edited volume and special journal editions with diverse articles dedicated to the Black experience in Latin America and the Caribbean still represent the best forums for providing in-depth scholarship on the transnational connections among African descendants or Afro-Latin Americans. *No Longer Invisible: Afro-Latin Americans Today* (1996) was a significant milestone. That edited volume combined scholarly and journalistic views on the formation of diverse Afro-Latin American communities.

The edited publication *Beyond Slavery: The Multifaceted Legacy of Africans in Latin America and the Caribbean* explored different national themes from a continental perspective (Davis 2006). Black mobility from colonial to contemporary times emerged as a theme in this volume, but only one essay focused specifically on Black transnational migration. Bobby Vaughn and Ben Vinson III provide an insightful analysis of Afro-Mexican migrants in the United States. George Reid Andrew's 2004 *Afro-Latin America* was a pioneering work in a different sense, as it created a grand narrative for students to imagine a general field of Afro-Latin American studies. Still, Andrew's work does not focus on migration.

The development of the internet, digital access to archives, increased interconnectivity across national borders, and the strengthening of African-descendant networks allowed for more transnational research in the twenty-first century. At the same time, the development of diaspora theory, which explores the triad among homeland, host land, and diasporic groups, and migration studies, which examines push/pull factors and migration networks, helped historians to study migration and mobility throughout history.

Migration studies emerged as an interdisciplinary field of inquiry that analyzes forced and voluntary movement across regional, national, linguistic, and cultural boundaries. Migration studies also includes the movement of commodities, ideas, and cultural products. Works on Black migration by historians follow these trajectories, enhancing our knowledge and analysis of the mobility of racialized Black subjects or African descendants. *Many Rivers to*

Cross: Black Migrations in Brazil and the Caribbean represents a vital contribution to this scholarship.

According to voyages.org, between 1514 and 1866, Brazil received more than three million enslaved Africans, while the Caribbean received almost four and a half million. Those numbers represent a significant percentage of the diaspora compared to the seven thousand deported Africans who arrived in Europe and the over three hundred thousand forced to go to the United States. Despite the geographical proximity and shared histories of colonization, slavery, indentured servitude, and migration, few scholars have studied the commonalities between the Caribbean and Brazil or the exchanges between the two regions. This volume helps fill that lacuna and opens new dialogues about the transnational Black experience. *Many Rivers to Cross: Black Migrations in Brazil and the Caribbean* encourages readers to contemplate the implicit and explicit connections and commonalities through the lens of Black migration.

In her essay, “Defining Diaspora, Defining a Discourse,” Kim Butler reminds us that the diasporic experience is predicated on the scattering of peoples over more than one generation and throughout various geographical experiences (Butler, 191-215). However, the literature on Black migrations in English has focused mainly on migration streams to the global north. Research on migrants in the United States is particularly robust. In her essay on Black American tourism to Bahia, Brazil, Patricia Pinho advises scholars to avoid overemphasizing the Black experience in the United States as the most critical experience. She suggests that students examine the multiple African diasporic experiences and their ways of seeing and experiencing the world (Pinho). In this project, Rocha has assembled a group of scholars who help us do just that.

In her introduction, Rocha explains that she chose ‘Black migration’ to speak about Brazil and the Caribbean because of the specific meaning of Blackness in the Brazilian and Caribbean contexts. Interrogating ‘Black migration’ in Brazil and the Caribbean as opposed to ‘African descendants’ or migrants of ‘African descent’ introduces a specific set of epistemological and discursive queries related to hybridity, visibility, and cultural African-ness, which has shaped both regions. “Black subjects,” as scholars such as Mintz and Price tell us, are *de facto* Afro-Creoles, peoples forcibly separated from their specific ethnic African cultures who creatively drew on materials and practices from other cultures and reconstituted a new culture in the Americas (Mintz and Price). Stuart Hall also informs us that Black popular culture and, by extension, Blackness constitutes “a contradictory space,” a site of strategic contestation that cannot be generalized but must be mapped out in specific historical and geographical spaces (Hall 1993, 51-52).

The essays in this volume do not explicitly engage the philosophical debates surrounding identity or color within the Black community. Instead, they

explore Black migrations through paradigms of agency, labor, production, and power within colonial, imperial, and national frameworks. The authors also center the experience of black subjects as migrants and as part of a diaspora with lasting connections to Africa, even as they carve out new lives and networks outside of Africa across generations. The chapters explore diverse types of migrations and employ different nomenclatures as they refer to forced enslaved and freed labor to internal migrations within national borders.

Forced migration was the driving force that undergirded the trans-Atlantic slave trade. The end of the slave trade slowed the flow of involuntary migration, but the illegal flow of captives continued clandestinely to the Caribbean and Brazil. For its duration, forced African migration provided local white elites with cheap labor for diverse economic, social, and cultural activities. The enslaved toiled in homes, on plantations, and on public works and infrastructure. Africans and their descendants' engagement in self-emancipation also entailed migrating to maroons, quilombos, or cimarrones away from European-dominated centers of power.

With the abolition of slavery, African descendants often continued to perform the same tasks for meager salaries or in exchange for accommodation or basic needs. Others left their homes and places of worship in search of new opportunities. Cities and towns across the Americas often responded to the flow of Afro-Descendants across the region with anti-Black regulations, including vagrancy laws, curfews, and registration laws. Others criminalized Blackness, prohibited Black assembly, and eventually institutionalized Black mass incarceration.

Despite these obstacles, people of African descent remained inspired to preserve their cultural inheritance, seek lives of dignity, and pursue economic sustainability within and across national borders and bodies of water. Formal state emancipation occurred in the Caribbean and Brazil, beginning in 1791 in Haiti and ending in 1888 in Brazil. The first waves of migration after abolition saw the formerly enslaved take advantage of their new access to mobility. More specific studies need to be conducted on Black migrants and the saliency of race as migrants moved from areas of drought, poverty, and violence to areas of better opportunity and freedom.

Black Migrations and the Caribbean

The Caribbean is a multi-geographical region shaped by migratory flows from Africa, Europe, Asia, and the Middle East. It includes the islands between North and South America and the littoral countries of South and Central American mainland. However, Caribbean migrant communities can be found in diverse

places in the Americas, from Canada to Chile. Writers of the Greater Caribbean have exposed the legacies and contradictions of these migrations.²

The unequal exchanges among diverse peoples, nonetheless, initiated a series of cultural and religious fusions, syncretism, and social intermingling, which led to mixed or Creole American cultures. In the French Caribbean, the rhetoric of *creolité* promotes this view of the Caribbean and parallels the notion that Brazil is a culturally syncretic *mestiço* country. As Rocha indicates, the cultural reality and celebration of cultural mixing often clash with the official state and elite anti-Blackness in Brazil. This may also be true of certain Caribbean nations. (Davis 2022, 127-148).

Migrations from southern Europe, the Middle East, and Asia also played distinct roles in constructing the national houses, to paraphrase the metaphor utilized by José Luis Gonzalez in his essay *The Four-Storeyed House*. However, the politics of migration has often led to exclusion and xenophobic national policies. At the same time, the economic costs of caring for local underprivileged populations or migrants often pose significant challenges for post-colonial countries such as Brazil and nations in the Caribbean.

Brazil

Since the birth of the Brazilian nation at the beginning of the nineteenth century, Brazilian leaders have traditionally focused on augmenting the country's status on the world stage through bilateral relations with the world's most potent hegemony in Europe and North America. Historically, building relationships with the Caribbean was hardly a priority. As in the Caribbean, waves of migration have played critical roles in shaping Brazilian nationhood. Yet, migration has not become a significant part of the national discourse on identity. Essays in this volume may help change that. Several authors clearly illustrate that the forced and voluntary movement of Black migrants played vital roles in shaping individual and community relationships to empire and nation.

Whether discussing the flight of enslaved cowboys across or within Brazil or the movement of Black subjects within the Caribbean and Brazil, this volume establishes dialogues with well-known processes and historiographies in the United States. Carlos Eduardo Coutinho da Costa's use of "The Great Migration" to refer to Brazil, for example, allows us to reconceptualize meanings of phenomena often associated with the United States. The historical contextualization of

² See the works of Garcia Marquez in Colombia, Maryse Condé in Martinique to Martin Dobru in Surinam, Julia Alvarez from the Dominican Republic, and Edwidge Danticat from Haiti.

Black Haitian migration to Cuba and Brazil by Couto and Rocha also helps us expose the dynamics of colorism and nativism, issues that can be applied to Black migrations elsewhere.

Rocha also wisely includes essays focusing on the connection between transnational or transregional Black mobility and the movement of commodities and bodies (cassava and penal culture are two examples). She also includes a chapter that explores the importance of Ethiopia as a symbol of Africa among the African diasporic community. The migration and exchange of ideas among African descendants across the Atlantic give us new insights into transnational exchanges, circulation, and “Currency of Blackness.” (Davis and Williams 2006, 143-170).

While the Caribbean has not figured prominently in Brazil's political or economic development, countries such as Haiti, Jamaica, and Cuba have often captured the Brazilian popular imagination. These islands' historical revolutionary roles have captivated Brazilians for generations. Bordering mainland nations close to Brazil, such as Guyana, French Guiana, and Surinam, have influenced border dynamics. Hopefully, this work will inspire future works on these and other borders with Brazil.

Conclusion

The legacies of colonialism and slavery have shaped contemporary dynamics in Brazil and the Caribbean. Plantation economies and extractive processes benefitted European colonizers at the expense of local communities. Endemic class and racial-based color prejudice dominated the Caribbean and Brazilian landscapes for centuries. Brazil eventually emerged as a linguistically unified geocultural and political entity, while the distinct Caribbean nations generated multiple political and linguistic realities. Migrations, forced and voluntary, have played a critical role in all these processes. European migrations to the Americas often led to the destruction or transformation of the people and landscapes of the First Peoples. The subsequent migrations of Africans and their descendants left their imprint on various sectors of the Caribbean and Brazilian societies.

A note on terminology

It is also worth noting that the scholars in this volume currently work and reside outside of the United States and Europe. In other words, they are scholars working on the periphery. The fact that they write about migration for an English-reading audience from that perspective also represents a call for transnational dialogue. Readers will come across racial and cultural terms that come out of the Caribbean and Brazilian historical contexts. Terms such as

“moreno,” “Euro-mestizo,” “mulato,” or “métis,” for example, cannot be adequately translated into English without specific contexts. At the outset, Rocha explains why she chose to title the volume “Black migrations” rather than use the term “African descendants” in the title. Other scholars in this volume utilize many racial terms to refer to black people in different contexts. As we have seen from Stuart Hall, “Black” continues to be a contested term, and that argument is part of lack migration history writ large. There is no global authority that sets the boundaries and definitions across languages and cultures.

Readers may also note the different contemporary uses of words such as *slave* and *enslaved*. Among scholars writing in the United States and the United Kingdom, there is a growing preference for ‘enslaved’ where possible. This choice is not mere political correctness. Rather, this attention to language represents an earnest attempt by scholars to be more precise and to acknowledge that *enslaved person* refers to an individual deported and forced to work against *their* will.³ Enslaved Africans came from all strata of society and practiced multiple professions before their enslavement. Many scholars often aim to employ *slave* to refer to the status *or* description of the economic system. Yet this convention and sensibility is hardly universal. Moreover, translating racialized and gendered terms presents an additional challenge. For example, consider translating the Spanish term *esclavo fugitivo* (literally “escaped or fugitive slave”), a term that necessarily legitimizes the slave condition as an original status. Is ‘self-emancipated African descendants’ better or does it distort the historical record? Like many historians working in the field, scholars in this volume navigate these linguistic challenges as they provide insightful analysis. They embrace multidimensional issues that will engender discussion and debate.

Migration studies forums are also grappling with language. For example, migrant activists in the English-speaking world encourage students to use the term “migrant” rather than “immigrant,” the latter of which implies the movement of a subject into a specific national space or host land. Migrants often move to, from, and through multiple geographical spaces and cross many boundaries. Is it best to refer to Haitians moving from Brazil to Argentina and Chile as immigrants in each case or migrants over many borders or both?

³ ‘Their, they, them’ as substitutes for his/hers, he/she, and him/her also represents another language shift that does not necessarily enjoy universal appeal in the United States or elsewhere. These non-gendered terms are particularly challenging and often problematic in gendered languages such as Portuguese, Spanish, and French.

Immigration policy, after all, is the purview of nations. Scholars in the text use 'migrant' and 'immigrant.'

Whatever the terminology, Hannah Arendt has shown us that the nation-state's construction of rights and laws does not apply to many migrants, including the stateless (Arendt 1951, 276-280). Additional studies of enslaved Africans as migrants compared to other migrants and poor whites will reveal regional idiosyncrasies. National policies in the post-abolition era will provide other insights. Beyond the possibilities for linguistic debates, this volume invites readers to engage the history of Black migrations from multiple viewpoints. Rocha helps provide valuable historical sources and frameworks that expand on previous historical studies. *Many Rivers to Cross: Black Migrations in Brazil and the Caribbean* also complements the contemporary migration analysis across many disciplines. This work is a valued addition to migration studies and a must-read for students interested in the history of Black migrations.

Darién J. Davis,
29 October 2023

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List of Figure and Tables

Figure

- Figure 2.1. Map of Rio Grande do Sul and Uruguay in 1856, by Herrmann Rudolf Wendroth. 26

Tables

- Table 2.1. Percentage of male and female slaves listed as escaped in probate records of estates including escaped slaves - southern Rio Grande do Sul, 1822-1888. 29
- Table 2.2. Percentage of slaves listed as escaped, by origin and sex, in probate records of estates including escaped slaves in southern Rio Grande do Sul, 1822-1888. 30
- Table 2.3. Percentage of male slaves listed as escaped in probate records of estates including escaped slaves, by occupational category, southern Rio Grande do Sul 1822-1888. 30
- Table 2.4. Percentage of male slaves listed as escaped in probate records of estates including escaped slaves, by occupational category and origin, southern Rio Grande do Sul 1822-1888 (among slaves with birthplace identified). 31
- Table 2.5. Escaped slaves listed in probate records of Four Municipalities in southern Rio Grande do Sul, by five-year intervals. 34
- Table 2.6. Age distributions of male and female runaway slaves on 1851 list. 38
- Table 2.7. Age distributions of runaway male slaves on 1851 list, by birthplace. 39
- Table 2.8. Occupational distribution of male runaway slaves on the 1851 list. 40
- Table 2.9. Occupational distribution of male runaway slaves on the 1851 list by birthplace. 40
- Table 3.1. Agricultural production in *Reconcao* (1769-1779). 58
- Table 5.1. Birthplace (states) of migrant prisoners in 1894. 95
- Table 5.2. Data on migrants arrested between June and September of 1894. 97

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Contributors

Elaine Pereira Rocha. Brazilian. Associate Professor (Senior Lecturer) UWI-Cave Hill Campus, since 2007. Historian, with a Master's in history (PUC-SP); PhD in Social History (USP); and a MPhil in Cultural History from the University of Pretoria.

Areas of Interest: Brazilian Black History, Black migrations, Brazil twentieth century, Indigenous History of Brazil, Women's History. Latest books: Rocha, Elaine. (ed.). *O Início do Feminismo no Brasil. Subsídios para a História.* Leolinda Daltro (2022); *Canal de Desvio. Um Estudo da Experiência de agricultores e índios no conflito com a Itaipu Binacional* (2021); *Ideias fora do lugar. Representações e Experiências de Raça e Gênero* (editor, 2021); *Mosaico. Construção de Identidades na Diáspora Africana* (co-editor 2020); Milton Gonçalves. *Memórias Históricas de um ator Afro-Brasileiro* (2019). She is also the author of 22 academic articles and more than 20 chapters in books.

Carlos Eduardo Coutinho da Costa is an Adjunct Professor at Universidade Federal Rural do Rio de Janeiro. Has a PhD in History from Universidade Federal do Rio de Janeiro, with thesis about Black migration in Rio de Janeiro state in the post-abolition period. His book on the theme: *"Faltam braços nos campos e sobram pernas na cidade": Famílias, Migrações e Sociabilidades Negras no Pós-Abolição do Rio de Janeiro (1888-1940)*, was published in 2020. He is also the author of academic articles, including: "Raízes Negras Dispersas?: Assenhoreamento no Pós-Abolição do Antigo Município de Iguassú (1888-1940)" (2018); "O registro civil como fonte histórica: contribuições e desafios dos registros civis nos estudos do pós-abolição" (2016); and *Migrações Negras no Pós-Abolição do Sudeste Cafeeiro* (2015).

João-Manuel Neves is a Research Fellow in the Center for Comparative Studies, University of Lisbon. A Research Associate in the CREPAL, University Sorbonne Nouvelle - Paris 3. Neves holds a Ph.D. in Études du Monde Lusophone, University Sorbonne Paris Cité. Dissertation on colonial literature from the 1920s related to Mozambique (2016); and a M.A. at the University Sorbonne Paris 4. Master's thesis on the literary work of Luís Bernardo Honwana.

Katia Cilene do Couto is a Professor of History at the Universidade Federal do Amazonas, Brazil. She holds a Master's the Federal University of Goiás and a PhD in History Graduated in History from the University of Brasília (2006). She has worked mainly on the following topics: migration, memory, identity, work and social movements. Dr. Couto is the author of *Imigração haitiana no Brasil*.

(São Paulo: Paco Editorial, 2016. v. 1. 682p), and of various articles and chapters on the topic of Black migrations.

Karl Monsma is a well known researcher on the field of slavery in Brazil. Professor at the Departament de Sociology, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil. Titular Professor of Sociology at the Federal University of Rio Grande do Sul. Holds a Master's in Sociology - University of Michigan and PhD in Sociology - University of Michigan. He did postdoctoral studies in Sociology at USP (1996) in Social Anthropology at the Museu Nacional/UFRJ (2004) and in Sociology at the Hamburger Institut für Sozialforschung, Germany (2017-2018). He has been Professor of Sociology at Northwestern University, USA (1992-1997), Adjunct Professor of Sociology at the Federal University of São Carlos (1997-2005) and Full Professor of History and Sociology at the University of Vale do Rio dos Sinos (Unisinus) (2005-2010). He was also a visiting professor at USP, UFRGS, UFPel, Universidad Nacional del Centro de la Provincia de Buenos Aires and the Public University of Cape Verde. He has experience in the areas of historical sociology, social theory and research methods, especially quantitative methods and historical methods, addressing mainly the following topics: immigration, racism and ethnic identities. Author of the book: *A reprodução do racismo: Fazendeiros, Negros e Imigrantes no Oeste Paulista, 1880-1914*, São Paulo, EDUFSCAR, 2021 and of more than 30 academic articles.

Lucia Helena de Oliveira has a Master's in History of Education and a PhD in History, both from the State University of Campinas. She was a fellow researcher at New York University. She is a full professor at the Universidade Estadual Paulista - Assis campus, where she coordinates the Black Research and Extension Center at Unesp. She is a member of the CITCEM Center for Transdisciplinary Research «Culture, Space and Memory» of the University of Porto. She is the author of various books, including *Colonialismo e Cristianidade em espaços missionários em Uganda e Angola séculos XIX e XX.* (São Paulo: FFLCH/USP, 2022); and *Paulistas afrodescendentes no Rio de Janeiro pós-Abolição (1888- 1926)*; (São Paulo: Humanitas, 2016). She is also the author of about 50 articles book chapters.

Marco A. Schaumloeffel holds a Master's degree in Linguistics from the Universidade Federal do Paraná, and a PhD in Linguistics from the University of the West Indies, where he studied the creole languages of the Caribbean. He is an Associate Lecturer at the University of British Columbia. Previously, he was lecturer for Portuguese and German at the Barbados Community College (2021-2022), Lecturer of Brazilian Studies at the University of the West Indies in Barbados from 2005 to 2021, and he worked at the University of Ghana, teaching Portuguese and Brazilian Culture (2003-2005). He is the author of the book *Tabom - The Afro-*

Brazilian Community of Ghana (also published in Brazil) about the history of the Afro-Brazilians who returned to Africa after abolition. In addition, he published several articles and chapters of books dealing with Linguistics, Creole languages, especially about Papiamentu and Papiá Kristang, German dialectology in Brazil, Hunsrückisch, teaching foreign languages and Afro-Brazilians returned to West Africa.

Nielson Rosa Bezerra: Holds a PhD in History from the Fluminense Federal University (UFF). He is the first Brazilian to be awarded the prestigious Banting Fellowship Program, obtained from the Canadian Social Sciences and Humanities Research Council (SSCHRC). He is currently an adjunct professor at the State University of Rio de Janeiro (Uerj); director of the São Bento Vivo Museum, in Duque de Caxias – RJ; coordinator of the History course at the Faculty of Belford Roxo (RJ); coordinator of the Research Group A Cor de Baixada. He was a postdoctoral fellow at York University, Canada. Bezerra is the author and organizer of several titles, including: *The keys to freedom: confluences of slavery in the Reconcavo do Rio de Janeiro, 1833-1888* (EdUFF, 2008); *Another Black Like Me: The Construction of Identities and Solidarity in the African Diaspora* (Cambridge Publish Schollars, 2015), the latter in partnership with Elaine Pereira Rocha.

Patrícia Bosenbecker holds a Masters in History and a PhD in Sociology from the Univesidade Ferial do Rio Grande do Sul. Programa de Pós-Graduação em Sociologia, Universidade Federal de São Carlos, Brazil. Among her publications, the book *Uma colônia cercada de estâncias: a inserção de imigrantes alemães na colônia São Lourenço/RS (1857- 1877)*. Published in 2020 is about German immigrants in Brazil, and more than 25 academic articles and chapters in books, on the topic of migrations in Brazil. In this book, she writes in collaboration with professor Monsma.

Petronio Domingues holds a Master and PhD in History from the University of São Paulo (USP). He is a professor at the Federal University of Sergipe (UFS) and guest researcher at Rutgers State University of New Jersey (USA). He develops research on African Diaspora populations in Brazil and the Americas, post-emancipation, social movements, identities, biographies, multiculturalism and racial diversity. Among his published works, He is the co-editor of *Da escravidão e da liberdade: processos, biografias e experiências da abolição em perspectiva transnacional* (2016); *Políticas da raça: experiências e legados da abolição e da pós-emancipação no Brasil* (2014); *Da nitidez e invisibilidade: legados do pós-emancipação no Brasil* (2013). He is also author of five books, twenty-eight collections chapters and more than eighty articles published in academic journals, not to mention the various reviews and articles published in the daily press. His latest book is *Protagonismo negro em São Paulo: História e historiografia* (Sao Paulo, SESC, 2019).

Index

A

ABC Islands – xxx, 105, 110, 115
Abyssinian Baptist Church – 160
Africa – xix, xx, xxiii, xxiv-xxxv,
 xxvii, xxviii, xxix, xxxi, xxxii, 3, 4,
 5, 7, 9, 11, 12, 13, 16, 18, 29, 30,
 31, 38, 39-40, 43, 49, 50, 52, 52,
 54-55, 56, 66, 67, 68, 93, 95, 98,
 107, 109, 110, 134, 145, 156-158,
 161, 162, 165, 166-168; ‘Mother
 Africa’ – 160;
African Slaves – xxix, 5, 6, 9, 11, 12,
 14, 17, 49, 53, 58, 67, 69, 135
Africanity – 156, 157
Afro-Brazilians – xxviii, xxix, xxxi,
 96, 97, 100, 109, 135, 137, 146,
 151, 155, 156, 162, 163, 165,
 166, 167, 168
Afro-Caribbean migration – xxviii
Alencastro, Luis Felipe – 50, 52, 53,
 66
Alto Madeira – 143
Alvarez Estévez, Rolando – 126
Amazonas – 136, 138, 139, 140,
 147, 148
Amerindians – 8, 16, 106
Amsterdam – 10, 11, 108, 109
Anderson, Perry – xxv, 13
Andrews, George – 92, 137, 140
Angola – xxix, 18, 43, 49, 50, 51,
 52, 54, 55, 57, 66, 68, 69, 107,
 110
Antillanos – xxxi, 121
Argentina – xxix, 23, 24, 25-26, 32,
 35, 36, 41, 43, 44
Aredondo, Alberto – 127
Aruba – 105, 109-110, 111 -116

asiento rights – 115

B

Baianos – 95-96
Baixada Fluminense – 77, 79, 80,
 81-82, 83-84, 85, 86, 87
Barbadian Hill – 145
Barbados – 12, 124, 139, 140-142,
 144, 161, 172
Belem – xxxi, 133, 139, 140, 141,
 142, 145
Benguela – 13, 43, 49, 50, 53, 54,
 55-57, 64, 67, 69
birth registration – 83
Black Atlantic – xxvii, xxxi, 155, 156
Black Committee – 163
Black Migration – xix, xxi, xxiv, xxv,
 xxvi, xxvii, xxviii, xxx, xxxii, 73,
 75, 93, 105, 108
Bonaire – xxx, 105, 109, 112, 113,
 114, 115, 124
Booth Steamship Company – 140
Brazilian American Colonization
 Syndicate – 136
Brotherhood of Our Lady of the
 Rosary (Confraria de Nossa
 Senhora do Rosário) – 59, 60

C

cachaça – 45, 50, 51, 54, 56, 58, 59,
 62, 67, 68
Caiquetíos – 106
Calabar – 64, 65, 66
Cape Verde – 6, 13, 96, 107, 109
Capoeiras – 99

Caribbean – xix, xxiii, xxiv, xxv,
 xxvi, xxvii, xxviii, xxx, xxxi, 6, 11,
 12, 15, 106-07, 108, 110, 111,
 112, 114-115, 124, 134, 139,
 141-142, 143-144, 148, 151, 161

Carpata, Bastiaan – 109

Casa de Detenção – xxx, 91, 93

cassava flour – 49, 50-53, 55, 56-
 57, 58, 59, 60, 61-62, 64, 66-69

Catholic Church – 8, 57, 58, 158

cattle ranches – 42

civil registry – 84

Codigo Penal/Criminal Code – 99,
 101

Colombia – xxi, xxii, xxxiii, 11, 113,
 114

Congress of 1914 (Cuban) – 125,
 126, 129 Congress of labor, 1925
 – 128, 130

Congress, National of Brazil – 136

Cosmic Race – 135

cowboys – xxix, 24-25, 27, 29-30,
 40, 42-43, 44, 45; black – 23;
 enslaved – 24, 25, 30, 31, 35, 39,
 42, 43, 44, 45, 46

Criminal Code 96

Cuba – xxi, xxviii, xxxi, 74, 111,
 121, 122, 123, 124, 126, 128-131

Curaçao – xxx, 11, 105-115

D

Demographics – xxviii, 113; Aruba
 Demographics – 113

diaspora – xx, xxi, xxiii, xxiv, xxv,
 xxvi, xxvii, xxviii, xxix, xxxi, 49,
 54, 67, 155, 157, 167, 168

Disney – 135

domestic workers – 13, 112, 115,
 137

Dominican Republic – 111, 114

Dutch Brazil – 11, 108

Dutch conquest – 106

Dutch West India Company, DWIC
 – 11, 108

E

Eastern Caribbean – 112

economic impact – 111

emancipation – xxii, xxiii, 74, 75,
 97, 110, 111, 115, 168

employment – xviii, 26, 27, 29, 39,
 44, 78, 112, 113, 140, 141, 146,
 149, 150

enslaved Africans – xx, xxx, 6, 7,
 23, 49, 56, 61, 105, 107, 108, 109,
 110; see also – slaves

entrepôts – xxx, 13, 105, 108

Ethiopia – xxviii, xxx, 156-157, 158-
 159, 160-162, 163, 165-166,
 167-168; International Council
 of Friends of Ethiopia – 158,
 159; Ethiopia Defense
 Committee – 157; Medical
 Committee for the Defense of
 Ethiopia – 160

Exodus – 111

F

family reunification – 111

Farquhar, Percival – 141

Farroupilha War – 34, 35, 37, 39, 46

favelas – 73, 76, 101

Federacion Obrera – 130

Federation of Blacks in Brazil – 164

forced Black migration – 108

Fordlandia – 143, 144, 145

free migration – 105, 110, 111, 115

free movement of people – 106

Freyre, Gilberto – 135, 136

fugitive slaves – 23, 26, 33, 36, 41,
 45, 46

G

Garcia Moreira, Francisco – 126
 Garvey, Amy Ashwood – 157
 Garvey, Marcus – 131, 161
 Ghana – 107, 110, 158
 Gilroy, Paul – xxvii
 Goebel, Michael – xxiv, xxv
 Gorée – 107
 Grandin, Greg – 144
 Great Migration – xxv, xxx, 73, 74,
 75, 80, 92
 Guiana, British – xx, xxvi, 139, 141,
 158
 Guyana – 114, 161

H

Haiti – xxi, xxii, 17, 122, 123, 128,
 130, 147, 148, 149, 150, 151;
 earthquake in – xxxi, 133, 147
 Haitian immigrants – xxii, xxxiii,
 xxxi, 121, 133, 148, 149, 150, 151
 Haitian Revolution – xxiii, xxiv, 17,
 122
 Hidalgo Co. Ltd. – 139
 Hispaniola – xxii, 106
 Hobsbawn, Eric – xxxi
 households – 78, 99, 111,

I

internal migration – 85, 92, 93, 112
 interviews – 100, 102, 103, 105,
 106, 107, 138
 intra-regional migration – 111
 Italo-Ethiopian War – xxxi, 155,
 158, 167

J

jail house – xxx, 93, 94, 99, 100; see
 also Casa de Detenção, Rio de
 Janeiro
 Jamaica – 122, 129, 140
 jerked beef (*charqueada*): industry
 – 27, 37; plants – 28, 33, 37, 39,
 45; workers – 27, 30, 31, 39
 Jews – 10, converted – 9, 108, 109,
 144

K

Karasch, Mary – 54

L

Labour – 4, 6, 8, 9, 10, 15, 18, 55,
 101, 111, 121, 136, 138, 139, 146
 Land Law of 1850 (Brazil) – 24, 134
 Law of Immigration (Cuba) – 129
 Light and Power Ltd – 139
 Lucas, Natasha – xxii

M

Madeira-Mamore railroad – 138,
 140, 141; Madeira-Mamore
 Railroad Co – 139
 Manning, Patrick – xx, xxv
 Manumission – 10, 35, 60, 68, 77
 Menelick II – 157, 165; *O Menelick*
 – 165
 Menezes, Nilza – 141, 142, 145, 146
 Mexico – xx, xxii, xxiv, 6, 135
 migrant women – 81
 Migrants – xxii, xxv, xxvi, xxx, xxxii,
 73, 74-75, 76, 79-81, 84, 85, 86,
 87, 91, 93, 94, 95, 96-97, 98, 100,
 111, 114, 133, 141, 144

Movimiento de los
Independientes de color – 122
Mussolini, Benito – 156, 158, 161,
163

N

Netherlands (Dutch) Antilles –
112, 113, 114
New Amsterdam – 11, 108,
New York: city – xxv, xxvi, 140, 159,
New York state – 160; New
Amsterdam – 108
Ngai, Mae – xxv
Nina Rodrigues, Raymundo – 94
Nova Iguaçu – 74, 78, 79, 81, 82,
83, 84, 86, 87

P

Pan-African Reconstruction
Association – 159
Pan-Africanism – xxvii, 157, 167,
168
Panama – xxi, xxxiv, 130, 139
Panama Canal – 105, 111, 139, 141,
143
Para – 138, 140, 145; Para Harbour
Co. – 142; Para Electric Railway
and Lighting Co. – 142
Paraguana – 106
Paraiba Valley – 73, 76, 77, 78, 79,
80, 81, 82, 83, 84, 87, 100
Partido Independiente de color –
122, 123
Patterson, Tiffany – xxvii
Kelley, Robin – see Patterson,
Tiffany
Pernambuco – 11, 50, 61, 66, 95,
97, 108
Pichardo, Hortencia – 123, 128,
129

plantation system – xxiii, xxix, xxx,
3, 4, 8, 9, 11, 12, 14, 15, 17, 18,
74, 75, 96, 105, 106, 108, 110,
137, 140, 144; coffee – 17, 33,
94; eucalyptus – 82; Hato – 109;
oligarchy – 134; orange – 85, 87
Pernambuco, in – 11; sugar
cane – 4, 5, 75, 140
Platt Amendment – 125
Porto Velho – xxxi, 133, 141
Portuguese – xxix, 5, 6, 10, 12, 13,
14, 15, 17, 18, 55, 57, 61, 67, 68,
107, 108, 136; colonies – 10, 15,
28, 32, 49, 51, 53, 54, 55, 57, 58,
61, 67, 106; cultural and
political discourse – 3, 18;
fidalgos mercadores – 5, 10, 14;
immigrants – 146; Inquisition –
109; Jews – xxx, 109; literature –
3, 4; military and soldiers – 9,
10; royal family and court – 16,
17, 53, 99; seigniorial society –
7; trade and traders – 7, 9, 10,
11, 15, 16, 55, 107
post-abolition – xxviii, xxix, xxx,
73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 87, 91, 93
post-emancipation – xxx, xxxi, 74,
75, 110

R

racial democracy – xxxi, 133, 146,
149
Reconcavo Baiano – 58, 61, 66, 93
Reconcavo da Guanabara – 51-53,
54, 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 65, 66,
67-68
Rio de Janeiro – xxiii, xiv, xxvi,
xxviii, xxix-xxx, 36, 49-50, 53-55,
56-57, 59, 60, 61-63, 64-65-67,
68, 69, 73, 76-81, 82, 83, 84, 85,

87, 91, 93-96, 99-101, 102, 133, 137-138, 143, 165
 Rio Grande do Sul – 24, 25-26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 37, 38, 39, 40, 41, 43, 44, 45, 95, 98, 137, 165
 Rondonia – xxvi, 138, 143, 147, 148,
 Roumain, Jacques – 128, 130
 rubber – 137, 138, 139, 142, 143;
 rubber boom – 138

S

Salles, Vicente – 140, 141
 samba – xxvi, xxx, 95, 96, 133, 135, 136
 Segundo Congreso Obrero Nacional – 129
 Senegal – 108
 Sephardic Jews – xxx, 108, 109
 seringais – 138
 Shakleton, Enrique – 130
 Simoes da Silva, Antonio Carlos – 144
 slave ships – 66, 68
 slave trade – xx, xxi, xxix, 3, 4-5, 6, 9, 10, 11-12, 15, 17, 25, 26, 27, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 57, 58, 59, 66, 67, 95, 105, 106, 107-08, 109, 134
 slaves – xx, xxi, xxix, 4-6, 7-9, 10-11, 12-13, 14, 15, 16-17, 23-46, 49-50, 52-53, 54-56, 57, 58, 59, 60-61, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 67, 68-69, 73, 74, 75, 76, 77, 79, 80, 81, 82, 87, 91, 92, 93, 94, 96, 99, 101, 107, 108, 109, 110, 115, 123, 127, 134, 135, 137, 156; ex-slaves – 28, 92, 93, 98, 99, 100
 Soares, Mariza – 50, 51, 59

South America – xxvi, xxvii, 18, 108, 114, 135, 141, 164
 Spaniards – 17, 106
 St. Vincent – 112, 141
 standards of living – 114
 Surinam – 111, 112, 113

T

Thornton, John – 54
 Tia Ciata – 96, 97
 tourism industry – 113, 114
 Transatlantic slave trade – 17, 106
 Tula Rigaud – 109

U

Union de Obreros Antillanos de Santiago de Cuba – 131
 Universal Negro Improvement Association – 161
 Upper Guinea – 13, 107, 109
 Uruguay – xx, xxix, 23, 24, 25-27, 28, 30, 32-33, 35, 36-37, 39, 41-42, 43-44, 45-46

V

Venezuela – xxiii, xxiv, 106, 111, 113, 114, 151

W

West Africa – 12, 49, 50, 107, 109, 110
 whitening – 94, 135, 142
 Willemstad – 108
 workforce – 5, 12, 49, 124, 135, 139