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GLOSSARY

alien land laws—laws enacted by various Western states (including California) that prevented Asian immigrants from purchasing agricultural land. Although the law was aimed at the Issei, the term “aliens ineligible for citizenship” was used instead. Issei thus owned land in the name of one of their American-born children or asked trusted friends for help.

assembly center—term used by the U.S. government for the 16 temporary detention camps used to incarcerate Japanese Americans after President Franklin D. Roosevelt signed Executive Order 9066. The Japanese were held in these centers under armed guard while permanent concentration camps were being built. The horse stables at the Santa Anita, Calif., racetrack; the fairgrounds at Salinas, Calif.; and the stockyard at Portland, Ore., were examples of “assembly” centers.

Civil Liberties Act of 1988—enacted on August 10, 1988, to redress the wrongs committed by the U.S. government toward Japanese Americans during World War II. It called for a formal apology by the president and \$20,000 in compensation for each survivor of the camps.

concentration camp—“a guarded compound for the confinement of political prisoners, minorities, etc...” (*Random House Webster’s College Dictionary*, 1996). “A camp where prisoners of war, enemy aliens, or political prisoners are confined.” (*American Heritage Dictionary*, 1983). In 1942, after spending an average of 100 days in temporary detention centers, Japanese Americans were transported under armed guard to ten concentration camps in desolate areas of the United States.

CWRIC—Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians. It was created in 1980 to review the impact of Executive Order 9066 and its effect upon American citizens and permanent resident aliens, and to recommend appropriate remedies.

coram nobis, writ of—legal procedure used by the attorneys for Fred Korematsu, Gordon Hirabayashi, and Minoru Yasui to overturn

their convictions during World War II. From the Latin, meaning “error before us,” the procedure can be used only after a defendant has been convicted and released from custody; it raises errors of fact that were intentionally withheld by the prosecution from the judge and the defense.

Day of Remembrance (DOR)—a program in Japanese American communities to commemorate the February 19, 1942, signing of Executive Order 9066 by President Franklin D. Roosevelt. The first Day of Remembrance was held in 1978 in Seattle, Wash. In 2003 U.S. Representative Mike Honda, D-Calif., introduced a resolution to establish a national Day of Remembrance to increase public awareness of the events surrounding the restriction, exclusion, and incarceration of individuals and families during World War II.

enemy alien—term used by the U.S. government initially during World War II to describe citizens of Axis nations living in the United States but later included American citizens of Japanese ancestry, particularly Nisei soldiers classified IV-C (enemy aliens) by the armed forces.

euphemism—the substitution of a milder, vaguer, or more pleasant word or expression for one considered to be offensive or unpleasant.

evacuation—refers to moving people in order to rescue and protect them from danger. The U.S. government used *evacuation* as a euphemism to refer to the forced removal of the Japanese Americans during World War II.

Executive Order 9066 (EO 9066)—an order issued by President Franklin D. Roosevelt on February 19, 1942, which gave authority to the secretary of war and military commanders to establish military areas from which “any or all persons may be excluded.” Although the order did not directly mention Japanese Americans, it was the outcome what to do with Japanese Americans during the first months after war was declared on Japan. It was clearly directed toward Japanese Americans.

GLOSSARY

- Executive Order 9102**—an order issued by President Franklin D. Roosevelt on March 18, 1942, which led to the establishment of the War Relocation Authority.
- 442nd Regimental Combat Team**—all-volunteer Army team formed in 1943 by Nisei from Hawaii and the mainland. The men were trained at Camp Shelby, Miss., and sent to fight in Italy, where they were joined with the 100th Battalion and became the 100th/442nd Regimental Combat Team; the 100th/442nd RCT fought in France, Italy, and Germany, suffered 9,486 casualties, and was the most highly decorated combat unit in American history for its size and length of service.
- FBI** (Federal Bureau of Investigation)—the investigative arm of the U.S. Department of Justice. Its stated mission is “to protect and defend the United States against terrorist and foreign intelligence threats and to enforce the criminal laws of the United States.”
- gaman** (*gah-mahn*)—Japanese word meaning “to endure.”
- gohan** (*go-hahn*)—Japanese word meaning “rice.”
- grassroots**—originating among or carried on by the common people; as a *grassroots* political movement of ordinary people working to achieve a common goal.
- internment camp**—camp administered by the Immigration and Naturalization Service of the Department of Justice (DOJ) and/or the Army. These camps initially detained approximately 4,000 “enemy aliens,” of which over half were Japanese. Later, many families were reunited either in the DOJ camps or in the War Relocation Authority-administered concentration camps.
- Issei** (*ee-say*)—first generation of Japanese immigrants to settle in America.
- Jap**—derogatory term used to dehumanize Japanese Americans.
- J-school**—Japanese-language schools established to teach Japanese to American-born children or children brought to America at a young age.
- kibei** (*kee-bay*)—American-born Japanese (Nisei) who were sent by their parents to Japan during their formative years.
- loyalty oath**—In February 1943 the Army distributed a questionnaire to all camp inmates over the age of 17. Questions 27 and 28 created deep divisions among the incarcerated. Question 27 asked the inmates whether they would be willing to serve in the U.S. armed forces. Question 28 (the loyalty oath) asked: “Will you swear unqualified allegiance to the United States of America and faithfully defend the United States from ... attack ... and forswear any form of allegiance or obedience to the Japanese emperor or any other foreign government...” The inmates were thus asked to declare their unqualified loyalty to a country that had incarcerated them in concentration camps. The Issei, who were prohibited by law from becoming U.S. citizens, were particularly concerned, because they would become persons without a country if they renounced their Japanese citizenship.
- Manzanar cemetery monument**—a stone marker dedicated at the Manzanar “War Relocation Center” cemetery on August 14, 1943. The inscription on its front (*ireitoh* in Japanese), translated to English, means “consoled spirits monument.” The rear inscriptions read “August 1943” on the right and “erected by the Manzanar Japanese” on the left. Fifteen of the 143 people who died at Manzanar were buried in the cemetery.
- Manzanar Pilgrimage**—annual pilgrimage sponsored by the Manzanar Committee to educate the public about the Japanese American incarceration experience. Participants travel to the site of the Manzanar “Relocation Center,” 210 miles northeast of Los Angeles in the Owens Valley. The Manzanar Committee began the pilgrimage in 1969.
- military necessity**—a term used by the U.S. government to justify the incarceration of Japanese Americans during World War II.
- MIS/MISLS**—Military Intelligence Service/Military Intelligence Service Language School. Army intelligence officers founded the school in

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- San Francisco in 1941 to train Japanese-language interpreters and translators. The school moved to Camp Savage, Minn., and then to Fort Snelling, Minn. The MISLS graduated 6,000 men before it closed in 1946. Its volunteer Kibei and Nisei graduates were indispensable in the Pacific theater during the war and during the reconstruction of Japan after the war. During their service they translated captured Japanese documents, interrogated Japanese soldiers, and interpreted at the war crimes trials. Because the MIS was a covert operation, the general American public is still largely unaware of the volunteers' loyal service.
- NCCR**—National Coalition for Redress/Reparations. The group was founded in 1980 in Los Angeles by a coalition of grassroots organizations to seek reparations for Japanese Americans incarcerated during World War II. It was renamed Nikkei for Civil Rights & Redress in 2000 to better reflect its civil rights work and its pursuit of justice for those still denied redress.
- Nikkei** (*nee-kay*)—term meaning Americans of Japanese ancestry.
- Nisei** (*nee-say*)—American-born children of Issei, and the second generation of Japanese living in America.
- non-alien**—War Relocation Authority (WRA) euphemism meaning “American citizen.” The use of the euphemism is a typical example of how far the government and the WRA went to underplay the forced removal and detention both to the general public and to the Japanese American community.
- “no-no” boys**—emotionally charged term often used to describe male inmates who answered no to Questions 27 and 28 on a questionnaire distributed to all inmates over the age of 17 in February 1943 (*see* loyalty oath). The no-no boys were sent to and segregated at the Tule Lake concentration camps.
- 100th Battalion**—The 100th Battalion had its origins in the Hawaii National Guard. It was composed of 1,432 volunteers who trained at Camp McCoy, Wis., and Camp Shelby, Miss. The battalion served in North Africa and in Italy, where it became part of the 442nd Regimental Combat Team, the most highly decorated combat unit in American history for its size and length of service.
- picture bride**—a woman who marries a man after an exchange of photographs. The practice of arranged marriages was common in the early 20th century because, by law, Japanese men were allowed to marry only Japanese women.
- Pinoy**—a male of Filipino extraction (the female form is *Pinay*). The term is now widely used to describe all Filipinos.
- Public Proclamation No. 1**—On March 2, 1942, Lieutenant General John DeWitt established Military Areas No. 1 and No. 2, which set aside certain exclusion zones for German and Italian aliens and all Americans of Japanese ancestry. It was not rescinded until December 1944.
- redress**—to make remedies or to correct and compensate.
- relocation**—euphemism for the imprisonment/incarceration of Japanese Americans in concentration camps within the interior of the United States.
- relocation center**—euphemism used by the U.S. government for the ten permanent WRA camps.
- reparations**—anything paid or done to make up for something else; compensation; making of amends. Japanese Americans mounted a reparations movement that culminated in the passage of the Civil Liberties Act of 1988.
- resettlement**—term commonly used for the movement of the incarcerated out of the permanent detention centers to areas outside the prohibited military zones and, after Public Proclamation No. 1 was rescinded, back to the West Coast.
- resister**—a “person who acts or make efforts in opposition.” Resisters were men and women who protested their detention in American concentration camps. Draft resisters refused to be inducted into the armed services as

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long as their constitutional rights were violated; other resisters were punished for their outspoken criticism of the U.S. government during their incarceration.

Sansei (*sahn-say*)—third generation of Japanese living in America, the children of the Nisei.

shikata ga nai (*shee-kah-tah gah nah-ee*)—Japanese phrase meaning “It can’t be helped; there’s nothing you can do about it.”

shoyu (*sho-you*)—Japanese word for soy sauce.

stereotypes—conforming to a fixed or general pattern; a standardized mental picture held in common by members of a group that represents an oversimplified opinion, prejudiced attitude, or uncritical judgment.

Tojo—Hideki Tojo, the Japanese prime minister who ordered the December 7, 1941, attack on Pearl Harbor. Just before his arrest in 1945 he attempted but failed to commit suicide. He was tried and convicted as a war criminal by the International Military Tribunal and was executed in 1948.

Voluntary evacuee—term used by the government for the 4,889 Japanese Americans who left designated military zones during March, 1942, before plans for the mass forced relocation to concentration camps were finalized. Most moved to Colorado, Utah, and Idaho.

WRA (War Relocation Authority)—a civilian agency established by President Franklin D. Roosevelt to “provide for the removal from designated areas of persons whose removal is necessary in the interest of national security.” The WRA supervised the removal of the incarcerated from Army “assembly” centers to concentration camps and later administered the release of inmates from concentration camps. It was in operation until June 30, 1946.

yellow journalism—a type of journalism where sensationalism triumphs over factual reporting.

Yonsei (*yohn-say*)—fourth generation of Japanese living in America, the children of the Sansei.

CHRONOLOGY

1790

The Naturalization Act of 1790 states that “any alien, being a free white person who shall have resided within the limits and under the jurisdiction of the United States for a term of two years, may be admitted to become a citizen thereof.” Thus only “free white persons” could become naturalized citizens until 1873, when “persons of African nativity or descent” were added. Japanese and other Asian immigrants were denied citizenship until 1952.

1868

The first immigrants from Japan arrive in Hawai‘i to work as contract laborers.

1869

The Wakamatsu Colony is established in California.

1882

The Chinese Exclusion Act stops immigration of Chinese to the United States. Japanese emigrate to the United States in greater numbers.

1908

Under the Gentlemen’s Agreement, Japan is prohibited from issuing visas to laborers wanting to enter the United States.

1913

Alien land laws in California prohibit “aliens ineligible to citizenship” from owning land. The leasing of land is limited to three years.

1915

The Hearst newspapers launch anti-Japanese series.

1920

The revised alien land laws in California prohibit Japanese immigrant parents from serving as guardians of property for their minor citizen children and prohibit any leasing of land to aliens.

1922

In *Ozawa v. United States*, the Supreme Court establishes that Issei, or Japanese immigrants, are prohibited from gaining citizenship through naturalization. The Cable Act stipulates that any woman marrying an alien who is ineligible for citizenship ceases to be an American citizen.

1924

The Immigration Act of 1924 prohibits all Asians except Filipinos from immigrating to the United States.

1929

Japanese American Citizens League formed.

1936

The Cable Act is repealed.

1937

Japan invades China, and the United States breaks off commercial relations with Japan.

1939

World War II begins in Europe. Britain and France declare war on Germany.

1941

November 1. Japanese Americans are recruited for the secret Army Intelligence School in San Francisco. It is later moved to Camp Savage, Minn. (renamed the Military Intelligence Service Language School), and then to Fort Snelling, Minn.

November 7. The report by State Department investigator Curtis Munson certifies that Japanese Americans are loyal to the United States.

December 7. Japan bombs Pearl Harbor. The U.S. military base and American ships suffer major damage. Within 24 hours, 736 Japanese American citizens and resident aliens are arrested in Hawaii and on the mainland.

December 8. The United States declares war on Japan.

December 11. The United States declares war on Germany and Italy. The number of Japanese American citizens and resident aliens detained by the FBI rises to 1,370.

1942

January 5. Japanese American men of draft age are classified IV-C, “enemy aliens,” by the War Department. Many Nisei soldiers are discharged.

January 26. The Ringle report, from the Office of Naval Intelligence, states that the mass incarceration of Japanese Americans is not necessary.

January 29. Attorney General Francis Biddle declares certain harbors, airports, and other sensitive areas off limits to enemy aliens.

February 13. The West Coast congressional delegation urges President Franklin D. Roosevelt to remove all Japanese from the West Coast.

CHRONOLOGY

1942 (cont.)

February 14. Lieutenant General John L. DeWitt, commander of the Western Defense Command, recommends to Secretary of War Henry Stimson that Japanese in America be removed.

February 19. President Roosevelt signs Executive Order 9066, which authorizes the secretary of war to establish military areas "from which any and all persons may be excluded as deemed necessary or desirable." The order stipulates that those required to move will be provided transportation, food and lodging.

February 20. Lieutenant General DeWitt is appointed to carry out the removal.

February 25. The Navy gives Japanese Americans living on Terminal Island 48 hours to leave.

March 2. Public Proclamation No. 1 is issued by Lieutenant General DeWitt to establish Military Areas 1 and 2. The western half of Washington, Oregon, and California, and the southern portion of Arizona are in Military Area No. 1. Fearing forced removal and imprisonment, some Japanese Americans begin to leave Military Area No. 1 for inland areas. Those that settle in the "free zone" in eastern California are later forced into assembly centers and concentration camps.

March 12. The Treasury Department designates the Federal Reserve Bank of San Francisco as overseer of Japanese American property and gives the Farm Security Administration authority over farms and farm equipment.

March 21. Manzanar, Calif., the first American concentration camp, opens as an "assembly" center. In June it becomes a "relocation" center.

March 24. The forced removal of Japanese Americans from Military Area 1 begins and continues for over seven months.

March 27. Curfews are imposed on all Japanese Americans. Only German and Italian aliens are restricted by the curfew. "Voluntary evacuation" is halted on Lieutenant General DeWitt's order.

March 28. Minoru Yasui violates the Portland, Ore., curfew law.

May 16. Gordon Hirabayashi challenges the constitutionality of military orders by violating the Seattle curfew.

May 26. An all-Nisei infantry battalion is formed in Hawai'i.

May 29. The Japanese American Student Relocation Council is established by the American Friends Service Committee to help students find colleges outside of military areas.

May 30. Fred Korematsu is arrested in San Leandro, Calif., for not reporting for detention.

June 3–6. Battle of Midway. The Japanese Navy is defeated by the United States in decisive World War II air combat.

June 7. Evacuation of Military Area No. 1 is complete. The United States incarcerates Japanese Americans in temporary detention centers or in concentration camps, called "relocation centers" by the War Relocation Authority (WRA).

July 12. Mitsuye Endo, incarcerated at Tule Lake, Calif., files for release under the writ of *habeas corpus*.

July 27. Two ill inmates are shot to death at the Lordsburg Internment Camp in New Mexico, after transfer from the Fort Lincoln Internment Camp in Bismarck, N.D.

October 12. Roosevelt declares Italian aliens are no longer considered "enemy aliens."

October 30. The last assembly center is closed with the transfer of the remaining Japanese at the Fresno Assembly Center to the Jerome, Ark., concentration camp.

November 18. Demonstrations take place at Poston, Ariz., after two inmates attack an alleged informer and two popular inmates are arrested. A general strike follows.

December 5. JACL official Fred Tayama is attacked at Manzanar. The next day Army soldiers fire into the gathering crowd, killing two. Harry Ueno of the Kitchen Workers Union is accused of attacking Tayama, and he and 15 others are sent to a WRA isolation center at Moab, Utah, and later to Leupp, Ariz.

CHRONOLOGY

1943

January 5. Gordon Hirabayashi's conviction for violating the curfew is reaffirmed by the Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals.

January 28. The United States announces the formation of a segregated, all-Japanese American combat unit in the U.S. Army.

February 3. A loyalty questionnaire is distributed at all camps. Nearly 10,000 Nisei volunteer from Hawai'i and 1,100 volunteer from the mainland concentration camps. The way is paved for the activation of the 442nd Regimental Combat Team/100th Infantry Battalion.

February 5. Wyoming passes a law denying Heart Mountain Japanese Americans the right to vote. Other states housing concentration camps pass similar laws.

April 11. James Hatsuki Wakasa, age 63, is shot to death at Topaz by sentry Gerald B. Philpott, who claims Wakasa was trying to escape. However, Wakasa is shot five feet inside the camp fence.

April 13. Lieutenant General DeWitt testifies before the House Naval Affairs Subcommittee in San Francisco, saying, "A Jap's a Jap. You can't change him by giving him a piece of paper."

June 21. The U.S. Supreme Court upholds the lower court decisions in the *Hirabayashi* and *Yasui* cases.

June 25. Tule Lake is designated as the "segregation camp" for the "disloyal."

July 3. Judge Michael J. Roche dismisses Mitsuye Endo's petition for a writ of *habeas corpus*.

September. The transfer of 8,500 "disloyals" from other camps to Tule Lake begins, and over 6,000 Tule Lake residents are transferred to other camps.

October 15. A strike at Tule Lake begins after a camp inmate dies in a truck accident.

November 1. The Army places Tule Lake under military rule. Mass demonstrations follow.

1943–44

The 100th Infantry Battalion fights in North Africa and Italy and joins by 442nd Regimental Combat

Team in June 1944. They battle in Italy, France, and Germany and rescue the Texas "Lost Battalion."

1944

January 14. Military rule at Tule Lake ends.

January 20. Japanese Americans are subject to the military draft.

March 1. The Heart Mountain Fair Play Committee, formed to protest the government's denial of their constitutional rights, holds a series of meetings. Four hundred Nisei from several camps vote to resist the military draft until their constitutional rights are restored.

May 24. Shoichi James Okamoto, age 30, is shot at Tule Lake by Private Bernard Goe. Okamoto dies the next day.

June and July. Sixty-three Heart Mountain draft resisters are convicted and sentenced to three years in the federal penitentiary. Newspaper editor James Omura and seven leaders of the Heart Mountain draft resisters are arrested for conspiracy to encourage draft resistance. In all, 315 from the ten concentration camps are eventually convicted for draft resistance.

July 29. Indictments are dropped against 26 Tule Lake draft resisters because the judge finds it shocking that American citizens should be forced to serve in the armed forces when they are confined for "disloyalty."

October 11. The U.S. Supreme Court hears the *Korematsu* and *Endo* cases.

November. James Omura is found not guilty, but seven leaders of the Heart Mountain draft resisters are sentenced to three years in prison.

December 17. The West Coast Exclusion Order is rescinded by the issuance of Public Proclamation No. 21. Most Japanese Americans that are not issued individual exclusion orders are allowed to return home effective January 2, 1945, and contraband regulations are lifted.

December 18. The Supreme Court rules in the *Endo* case that the WRA cannot detain loyal citizens against their will. It upholds the lower court rulings in the *Korematsu* case.

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1945

January 8. The building of a returning Japanese American inmate in California is firebombed, the first of 30 acts of terrorism against Japanese returning to their West Coast homes.

March 12. The Court of Appeals upholds the convictions of the Heart Mountain draft resisters.

April 29. The 522nd Field Artillery Battalion of the 442nd Regimental Combat Team liberates a group of Dachau concentration camp survivors.

August 6. The United States drops an atomic bomb on Hiroshima.

August 9. The United States drops an atomic bomb on Nagasaki.

August 14. Japan surrenders, and World War II finally ends.

September 4. The Western Defense Command issues Public Proclamation No. 24, revoking all West Coast exclusion orders against Japanese Americans.

December. The U.S. Court of Appeals reverses the conviction of the Heart Mountain Fair Play Committee leaders on technical grounds, but they remain in prison until March 1946.

1946

March 20. Tule Lake is the last of the ten WRA concentration camps to close.

June 30. The WRA program officially closes.

1947

December 24. President Truman pardons all 315 Japanese American draft resisters.

1948

February 27. The Justice Department Internment Camp at Crystal City, Texas, is closed. Most of the last internees to leave are Japanese Latin Americans.

July 2. The Japanese American Evacuation Claims Act provides limited compensation to former incarcerated Japanese Americans who can furnish proof of lost property.

1949

October 7. Iva Toguri, mistakenly labeled the “Tokyo

Rose,” returns to America voluntarily to vindicate herself but is, instead, convicted of treason and sentenced to ten years in prison.

1952

April 17. The California Supreme Court rules that alien land laws violate the 14th Amendment.

June 27. The Walter-McCarran Immigration and Naturalization Act passes Congress. It allows immigration quotas and permits Asian immigrants to become citizens.

1956

California alien land laws are repealed.

1962

Daniel Inouye becomes the first Japanese American elected to the U.S. Senate.

1965

The Immigration Law of 1965 eliminates the “national origin” quota system, and Asian nations are granted equal quotas of 20,000.

1967

June. Anti-miscegenation (intermarriage) laws are ruled unconstitutional by the U.S. Supreme Court.

1969

December. The first Manzanar Pilgrimage is organized.

1970

Edison Uno, redress pioneer, proposes and gets support for redress within the JACL.

The JACL National Convention in Chicago adopts a resolution to seek redress.

1973

Manzanar becomes a California Historical Landmark.

1974

Norman Mineta becomes the first mainland Japanese American elected to the U.S. House of Representatives.

1975

EO 9066 Inc. in Los Angeles and the Seattle JACL Evacuation Redress Committee become the first groups to activate redress campaigns.

CHRONOLOGY

1976

February 19. President Gerald Ford rescinds Executive Order 9066.

1977

January. President Gerald Ford issues a presidential pardon for Iva Toguri, who was in fact a loyal American.

1978

The Los Angeles Community Coalition for Redress and Reparations (LACCRR) is formed. Later, it and several other community groups join to form the National Coalition for Redress and Reparations (NCRR), which is established in 1980.

November. At the Puyallup Fairgrounds, Seattle holds the first Day of Remembrance to commemorate the signing of EO 9066 by President Roosevelt.

1979

May. The National Council for Japanese American Redress (NCJAR) is formed.

1980

July 31. President Jimmy Carter signs the bill creating the Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians (CWRIC).

1981

The CWRIC holds hearings in six cities including sessions in Los Angeles on August 4–6.

1983

Personal Justice Denied, the report of the CWRIC, is published, documenting the effects of Executive Order 9066 on persons of Japanese ancestry from Hawai'i, the U.S. mainland, and Latin America and on the Aleuts who were evacuated.

January 19. Fred Korematsu files a petition for a writ of error (*coram nobis*), challenging his conviction in 1943. Minoru Yasui and Gordon Hirabayashi follow suit with their *coram nobis* petitions.

March 16. NCJAR files a class-action lawsuit on behalf of the more than 110,000 Japanese Americans affected by Executive Order 9066.

November 10. Judge Marilyn H. Patel of the U.S. District Court in San Francisco grants Fred Korematsu's petition for a writ of error *coram nobis* and vacates his 1943 conviction.

1984

January 26. Judge Robert Belloni of the U.S. District Court in Portland, Ore., grants the government's motion to vacate Minoru Yasui's wartime conviction and dismisses Yasui's petition for a writ of error *coram nobis*. Yasui appealed but passed away before a decision could be made on the appeal. His case died with him.

May 17. NCJAR's lawsuit is dismissed in federal court and the Supreme Court declines to review the case.

The U.S. District Court in Portland, Ore., invalidates Minoru Yasui's conviction for violating curfew orders.

1985

The National Park Service designates Manzanar a National Historic Landmark.

1986

February 10. Judge Donald Voorhees of the U.S. District Court in Seattle vacates Gordon Hirabayashi's exclusion order conviction but declines to vacate Hirabayashi's curfew order conviction. Upon appeal, Hirabayashi's curfew order conviction is vacated on January 12, 1988.

1987

NCRR organizes the first ever Japanese American delegation to Washington, D.C. More than 120 former inmates and supporters of redress urge members of Congress to pass reparations legislation.

1988

August 10. The Civil Liberties Act of 1988, which provides restitution of \$20,000 per surviving inmate and others affected by EO 9066 and a presidential apology from the U.S. government is signed into law by President Ronald Reagan.

1990

Congress finally appropriates the redress funds and President George H. Bush authorizes the first payments to the surviving inmates.

1992

February 19. Manzanar is declared a National Historic Site.

1995

Linda Kawabe Consolo and Douglas Ishida, born in interior states to parents who left the West Coast

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in March 1942, win their case for redress in federal court. Their lawsuit enabled 900 other redress applicants born between March 1942 and January 20, 1945, to receive reparations.

1996

The Civil Liberties Public Education Fund (CLPEF) makes available \$5 million for educational and research projects.

1998

February 27. Railroad and mine workers fired from their jobs during World War II are found to be potentially eligible for redress on a case-by-case basis.

June 12. Japanese Latin Americans announce that a compromise settlement has been reached for individual payments of \$5,000 and an official apology from President Bill Clinton for their wrongful abduction and incarceration during World War II.

August 10. The redress program ends. Under the provisions of the Civil Liberties Act of 1988, 82,900 receive monetary compensation and an apology. However, over 1,504 persons are denied redress.

1999

Carole Seno Song, who was born on June 5, 1945, in Bridgeton, N.J., wins her NCCRR-supported redress case in the U.S. Court of Federal Claims. The court rules that the federal government maintained effective barriers to the Seno family's return to California before January 20, 1945, and failed to provide adequate notice that they could return to their former home on the West Coast.

2001

Representative Xavier Becerra, D-Calif., initiates the Wartime Parity and Justice Act of 2001 to resolve the remaining redress issues for Japanese Americans and for Japanese Latin Americans who received only partial redress.

September 28. More than 300 people gather in Los Angeles's Little Tokyo for a candlelight vigil to express support for the victims of 9/11 and to speak out against the scapegoating of Arab Americans and American Muslims.

December 8. The NCCRR 9/11 Committee and the Muslim Public Affairs Council initiate a "Break the Fast" event during Ramadan to exchange experiences as communities targeted after attacks on the United States.

2002

December. The Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) begins the "special registration" of non-immigrant males, 16 years and older, beginning with countries with large Muslim and Arab and South Asian populations. Thousands of people register and many are detained for visa violations.

2003

March. The United States declares war on Iraq.

2006

Senator Daniel Inouye, D-Hawaii, and Representative Xavier Becerra, D-Calif., introduce the Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Latin Americans of Japanese Descent Act, which would create a commission to investigate and determine the facts and circumstances surrounding the relocation, incarceration, and deportation of Japanese Latin Americans.

Resources for the Chronology include Brian Niiya's *Encyclopedia of Japanese American History*; Facts on File, Inc., New York, 2001; Ellen Levine's *A Fence Away from Freedom*, G.P. Putnam's Sons, New York, 1995, pp. 231–40; *Teacher's Guide, The Bill of Rights and the Japanese American World War II Experience*, National Japanese American Historical Society, 1992, pp. 12–14; *Due Process*, National Japanese American Historical Society, 1995, and the Civil Liberties Public Education Fund Board website at <http://www.igc.apc.org/clpef>.

EXECUTIVE ORDER 9066

February 19, 1942

Authorizing the Secretary of War to Prescribe Military Areas

Whereas, The successful prosecution of the war requires every possible protection against espionage and against sabotage to national-defense material, national-defense premises and national-defense utilities as defined in Section 4, Act of April 20, 1918, 40 Stat. 533, as amended by the Act of November 30, 1940, 54 Stat. 1220, and the Act of August 21, 1941, 55 Stat. 655 (U.S.C., Title 50 Sec. 104):

Now, therefore, by virtue of the authority vested in me as President of the United States, and Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy, I hereby authorize and direct the Secretary of War, and the Military Commanders whom he may from time to time designate, whenever he or any designated Commander deems such action necessary or desirable, to prescribe military areas in such places and of such extent as he or the appropriate Military Commander may determine, from which any or all persons may be excluded, and with respect to which, the right of any person to enter, remain in, or leave shall be subject to whatever restriction the Secretary of War or the appropriate Military Commander may impose in his discretion. The Secretary of War is hereby authorized to provide for residents of any such area who are excluded therefrom, such transportation, food, shelter, and other accommodations as may be necessary, in the judgment of the Secretary of War or the said Military Commander, and until other arrangements are made, to accomplish the purpose of this order. The designation of military areas in any region or locality shall supersede the responsibility and authority of the Attorney General under the said Proclamation in respect of such prohibited and restricted area.

I hereby further authorize and direct the Secretary of War and the said Military Commanders to take such other steps as he or the appropriate Military Commander may deem advisable to enforce compliance with the restrictions applicable to each Military area hereinabove authorized to be designated, including the use of Federal troops and other Federal Agencies with authority to accept assistance of state and local agencies.

I hereby further authorize and direct all Executive Departments, independent establishments and other Federal Agencies, to assist the Secretary of War or the said Military Commanders in carrying out this Executive Order, including the furnishing of medical aid, hospitalization, food, clothing, transportation, use of land, shelter, and other supplies, equipment, utilities, facilities, and services.

This order shall not be construed as modifying or limiting in any way the authority heretofore granted under Executive Order No. 8792, dated December 12, 1941, nor shall it be construed as limiting or modifying the duty and responsibility of the Federal Bureau of Investigation, with respect to the investigations of alleged acts of sabotage or the duty and responsibility of the Attorney General and the Department of Justice under the Proclamations of December 7 and 8, 1941, prescribing regulations for the conduct and control of alien enemies, except as such duty and responsibility is superseded by the designation of military areas hereunder.

Franklin D. Roosevelt

The White House, February 19, 1942

WESTERN DEFENSE COMMAND AND FOURTH ARMY WARTIME CIVIL CONTROL ADMINISTRATION

Presidio of San Francisco, California

May 3, 1942

INSTRUCTIONS TO ALL PERSONS OF JAPANESE ANCESTRY

Living in the Following Area:

All of that portion of the City of Los Angeles, State of California, within that boundary beginning at the point at which North Figueroa Street meets a line following the middle of the Los Angeles River; thence southerly and following the said line to East First Street; thence westerly on East First Street to Alameda Street; thence southerly on Alameda Street to East Third Street; thence northwesterly on East Third Street to Main Street; thence northerly on Main Street to First Street; thence northwesterly on First Street to Figueroa Street; thence northeasterly on Figueroa Street to the point of beginning.

Pursuant to the provisions of Civilian Exclusion Order No. 33, this Headquarters, dated May 3, 1942, all persons of Japanese ancestry, both alien and non-alien, will be evacuated from the above area by 12 o'clock noon, P. W. T., Saturday, May 9, 1942.

No Japanese person living in the above area will be permitted to change residence after 12 o'clock noon, P. W. T., Sunday, May 3, 1942, without obtaining special permission from the representative of the Commanding General, Southern California Sector, at the Civil Control Station located at:

Japanese Union Church,
120 North San Pedro Street,
Los Angeles, California.

Such permits will only be granted for the purpose of uniting members of a family, or in cases of grave emergency.

The Civil Control Station is equipped to assist the Japanese population affected by this evacuation in the following ways:

1. Give advice and instructions on the evacuation.
2. Provide services with respect to the management, leasing, sale, storage or other disposition of most kinds of property, such as real estate, business and professional equipment, household goods, boats, automobiles and livestock.
3. Provide temporary residence elsewhere for all Japanese in family groups.
4. Transport persons and a limited amount of clothing and equipment to their new residence.

The Following Instructions Must Be Observed:

1. A responsible member of each family, preferably the head of the family, or the person in whose name most of the property is held, and each individual living alone, will report to the Civil Control Station to receive further instructions. This must be done between 8:00 A. M. and 5:00 P. M. on Monday, May 4, 1942, or between 8:00 A. M. and 5:00 P. M. on Tuesday, May 5, 1942.

2. Evacuees must carry with them on departure for the Assembly Center, the following property:

- (a) Bedding and linens (no mattress) for each member of the family;
- (b) Toilet articles for each member of the family;
- (c) Extra clothing for each member of the family;
- (d) Sufficient knives, forks, spoons, plates, bowls and cups for each member of the family;
- (e) Essential personal effects for each member of the family.

All items carried will be securely packaged, tied and plainly marked with the name of the owner and numbered in accordance with instructions obtained at the Civil Control Station. The size and number of packages is limited to that which can be carried by the individual or family group.

3. No pets of any kind will be permitted.

4. No personal items and no household goods will be shipped to the Assembly Center.

5. The United States Government through its agencies will provide for the storage, at the sole risk of the owner, of the more substantial household items, such as iceboxes, washing machines, pianos and other heavy furniture. Cooking utensils and other small items will be accepted for storage if crated, packed and plainly marked with the name and address of the owner. Only one name and address will be used by a given family.

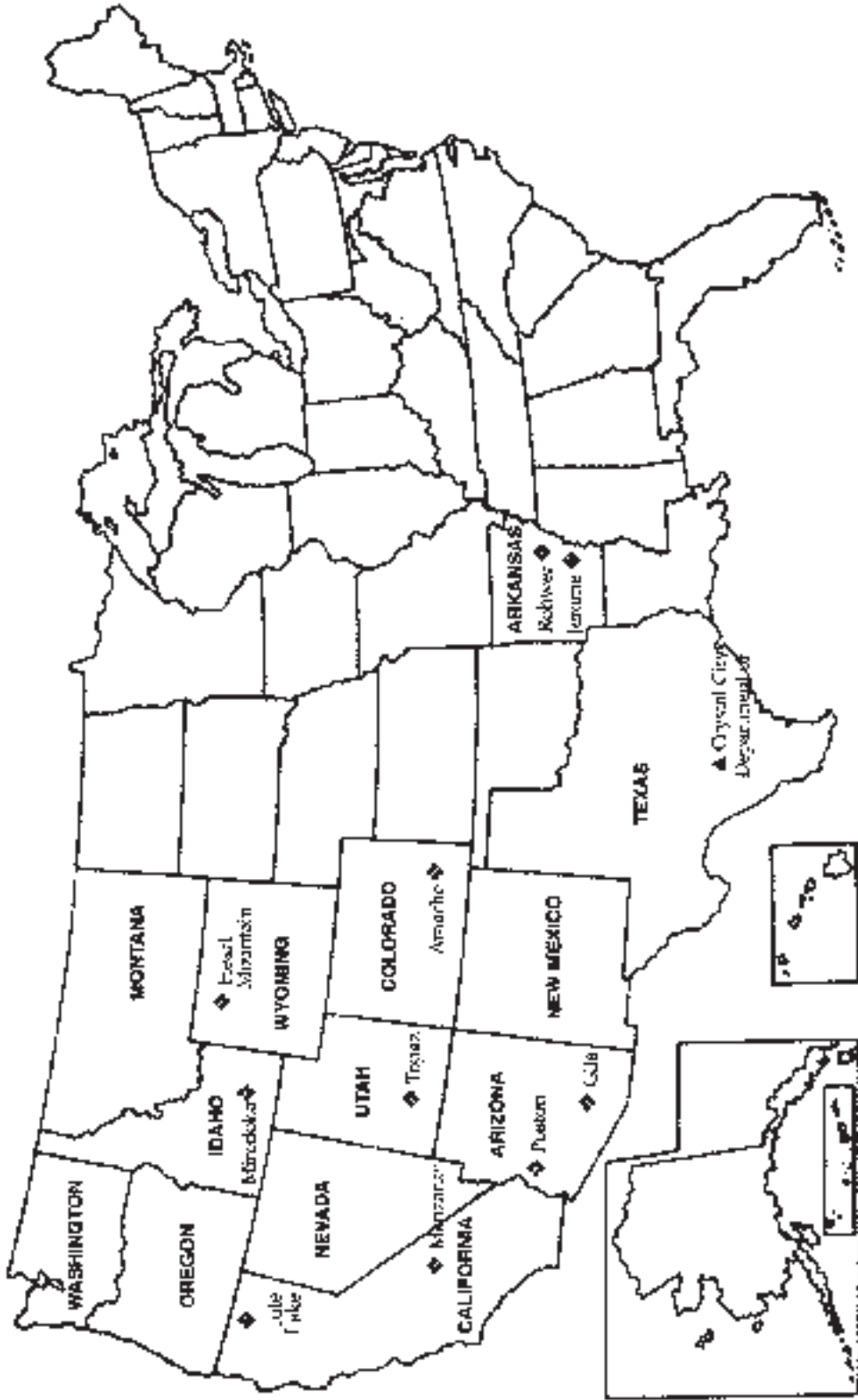
6. Each family, and individual living alone, will be furnished transportation to the Assembly Center or will be authorized to travel by private automobile in a supervised group. All instructions pertaining to the movement will be obtained at the Civil Control Station.

Go to the Civil Control Station between the hours of 8:00 A. M. and 5:00 P. M., Monday, May 4, 1942, or between the hours of 8:00 A. M. and 5:00 P. M., Tuesday, May 5, 1942, to receive further instructions.

J. L. DeWITT
Lieutenant General, U. S. Army
Commanding

SEE CIVILIAN EXCLUSION ORDER NO. 33.

MAP OF AMERICA'S CONCENTRATION CAMPS



AMERICA'S WORLD WAR II CONCENTRATION CAMPS AND DETENTION CENTERS

AMACHE (Granada), Colorado

10,500 acres, Granada, Prowers County, 140 miles east of Pueblo

Capacity: 8,000

Building start: June 12, 1942

Cost per capita: \$525

First internees: 212 from Merced Assembly Center, August 1942

Maximum population at one time: 7,318, October 1942. Total: 10,295. Internees brought from Merced and Santa Anita Assembly Centers

Operation: from August 27, 1942, to October 15, 1945

GILA RIVER (Rivers), Arizona

16,000 acres, Gila River Indian Reservation, Sacaton, Pinal County, 50 miles south of Phoenix

Capacity: 15,000

Building start: May 1, 1942

Cost per capita: \$500

First internees: 520 from Turlock Assembly Center, July 20, 1942

Maximum population at one time: 13,348, November, 1942. Total: 16,655. Internees brought mainly from California and Arizona: Tulare, Turlock, Stockton, and Fresno Assembly Centers

Operation: from July 20, 1942, to November 10, 1945

HEART MOUNTAIN, Wyoming

46,000 acres, Vocation, Park County, 13 miles northeast of Cody

Capacity: 10,000

Building start: June 15, 1942

Cost per capita: \$470

First internees: 290 from Pomona Assembly Center

Maximum population at one time: 10,767. Total: 14,025. Internees brought from California, Oregon, and Washington.

Operation: from August 12, 1942, to November 10, 1945

JEROME (Denson), Arkansas

10,000 acres, Jerome, Chicot, and Drew Counties, 30 miles southwest of Arkansas City

Capacity: 10,000

Building start: July 15, 1942

Cost per capita: \$500

First internees: 202 from Fresno Assembly Center, October 6, 1942, others from Santa Anita Assembly Center

Maximum population at one time: 8,497, November 1942. Total: 10,241. Internees were all from California

Operation: from October 6, 1942, to June 30, 1944 (the last camp to open and the first to close)

MANZANAR, California

60,000 acres, Manzanar, Inyo County, 5 miles south of Independence

Capacity: 10,000

Building start: March 10, 1942

Cost per capita: \$375

First internees (as Assembly Center): from Bainbridge Island, Washington

Maximum population at one time: 10,046, September 1942. Total: 11,062. Internees were brought from California and Washington

Operation: from March 21, 1942, to November 21, 1945

AMERICA'S WORLD WAR II CONCENTRATION CAMPS AND DETENTION CENTERS

MINIDOKA (Hunt), Idaho

33,000 acres, Gooding, Jerome County, 25 miles northeast of Twin Falls

Capacity: 10,000

Building start: June 5, 1942

Cost per capita: \$580

First internees: 210 from Puyallup Assembly Center, August 1942

Maximum population at one time: 7,318. Total: 10,295. Internees were brought from Oregon and Washington

Operation: from August 10, 1942, to October 28, 1945

POSTON (Colorado River), Arizona

71,000 acres, Colorado River Indian Reservation, Yuma County, 12 miles south of Parker

Capacity: 20,000

Building start: March 27, 1942

Cost per capita: \$470

First internees: 250 from Mayer Assembly Center, Ariz.

Maximum population at one time: 17,814, September 1942. Total: 19,534. Internees were brought from California (Salinas, Santa Anita, and Pinedale Assembly Centers) and Mayer, Arizona.

Operation: from May 8, 1942, to November 28, 1945

ROHWER, Arkansas

10,000 acres, Rohwer, Desha County, 1/2 mile north of Rohwer

Capacity: 10,000

Building start: July 1, 1942

Cost per capita: \$480

First internees: 250 from Stockton and Santa Anita Assembly Centers

Maximum population at one time: 8,475, November 1942. Total: 11,928. Internees were all from California

Operation: from September 18, 1942, to November 30, 1945

TOPAZ (Central Utah), Utah

19,000 acres, Abraham, Millard County, 140 miles southwest of Salt Lake City

Capacity: 11,000

Building start: July 10, 1942

Cost per capita: \$390

First internees: 215 from Tanforan and Santa Anita Assembly Centers, September 1942

Maximum population at one time: 8,130. Total: 11,212. Internees were all from California.

Operation: from September 11, 1942, to October 31, 1945

TULE LAKE (Newell), California

7,400 acres. Newell, Modoc County, 35 miles southeast of Klamath Falls, Oregon

Capacity: 16,000

Building start: April 15, 1942

Cost per capita: \$430

First internees: 447 from Portland and Puyallup Assembly Centers

Maximum population at one time: 18,789, September 1942. Total: 29,490. Internees were brought from Mayer, Arizona; Marysville, Manzanar, Pinedale, Pomona, Sacramento, and Salinas, California; Portland, Oregon; and Puyallup, Washington, Assembly Centers.

Operation: from May 27, 1942, to March 20, 1946 (last to close)

TEMPORARY DETENTION CENTERS

FRESNO, California

May 6–October 30, 1942; 178 days
5,100 evacuees from central San Joaquin Valley
Most were sent to Jerome and Gila River

MANZANAR, California

March 21–May 31, 1942; 72 days
9,600 evacuees from Bainbridge Island, Washington, Los Angeles County, Sacramento, and Amador-area
evacuees stayed after its change to a concentration camp on June 1, 1942

MARYSVILLE, California

May 8–June 29, 1942; 72 days
2,400 evacuees from Colusa, Yuba, Placerville, and Sacramento
Most were sent to Tule Lake

MAYER, Arizona

May 7–June 2, 1942; 27 days
250 evacuees from Arizona
Most were sent to Poston

MERCED, California

May 6–September 15, 1942; 133 days
4,500 evacuees from north San Francisco Bay area and north San Joaquin Valley
Most were sent to Granada

PINEDALE, California

May 7–July 23, 1942; 78 days
4,800 evacuees from Pierce, King, and Kitsap counties, Washington; Hood River County, Oregon; San
Francisco, Fresno, and Sacramento, California
Most were sent to Tule Lake and Poston

POMONA, California

May 7–August 24, 1942; 110 days
5,400 evacuees from Los Angeles, San Francisco, and Santa Clara counties
Most were sent to Heart Mountain

PORTLAND, Oregon

May 2–September 10, 1942; 132 days
3,700 evacuees from Multnomah and western Oregon counties; central Washington counties
Most were sent to Heart Mountain and Minidoka

PUYALLUP, Washington

April 28–September 12, 1942; 137 days
7,400 evacuees from Seattle, Tacoma, and Alaska areas
Most were sent to Tule Lake and Minidoka

SACRAMENTO/WALERGA, California

May 6–June 26, 1942; 52 days
4,700 evacuees from San Joaquin and Sacramento counties
Most were sent to Tule Lake

TEMPORARY DETENTION CENTERS

SALINAS, California

April 27–July 4, 1942; 69 days

3,600 evacuees from Monterey, Santa Cruz, and San Benito counties

Most were sent to Poston

SANTA ANITA, California

March 27–October 27, 1942; 215 days

18,000 evacuees from Los Angeles, San Diego, and Santa Clara counties

Most were sent to Poston, Gila River, Heart Mountain, Granada, Rohwer, Topaz, and Jerome

STOCKTON, California

May 10–October 17, 1942; 161 days

4,300 evacuees from San Joaquin County

Most were sent to Rohwer and Gila River

TANFORAN, California

April 28–October 13, 1942; 169 days

7,800 evacuees from the San Francisco Bay Area

Most were sent to Topaz

TULARE, California

April 20–September 4, 1942; 138 days

5,000 evacuees from Ventura, Santa Barbara, San Luis Obispo, Los Angeles, and Sacramento counties

Most were sent to Gila River

TURLOCK, California

April 30–August 12, 1942; 105 days

3,600 evacuees from Solano, Alameda, Los Angeles, and Sacramento counties

Most were sent to Gila River

JUSTICE DEPARTMENT INTERNMENT CAMPS

Alexandria (Fort Livingston), La.

Angel Island, Calif.

Bismarck (Fort Lincoln), N.D.

Crystal City, Texas

East Boston, Mass.

Ellis Island, N.Y.

Florence, N.Y.

Fort Mead, Md.

Fort Richardson, Ark.

Fort Sill, Okla.

Fort Stanton, N.M.

Kennedy, Texas

Kooskia, Idaho

Lordsburg, N.M.

McCoy, Wis.

Missoula, Mont.

Montreat (Assembly Inn), N.C.

Old Ratan Ranch, N.M.

Sand Island, Hawaii

Santa Fe, N.M.

Seabrook, N.J.

Seagoville, Texas

Sharp Park, Calif.

Stringtown, Okla.

Tullahoma, Tenn.

Tuna Canyon, Calif. (La Tuna Canyon)

CITIZEN ISOLATION CAMPS

Leupp, Ariz.

Moab, Utah

BILL OF RIGHTS

Article I

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievance.

Article II

A well-regulated militia being necessary to the security of a free State, the right of the people to keep and bear arms shall not be infringed.

Article III

No soldier shall, in time of peace, be quartered in any house without the consent of the owner; nor in time of war but in a manner to be prescribed by law.

Article IV

The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and the persons or things to be seized.

Article V

No persons shall be held to answer for capital or otherwise infamous crime, unless on presentment or indictment of a grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be a witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor shall private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

Article VI

In all criminal prosecutions the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

Article VII

In suits at common law, where the value in controversy shall exceed twenty dollars, the right of trial by jury shall be preserved, and no fact tried by a jury shall be otherwise re-examined in any court of the United States than according to the rules of the common law.

Article VIII

Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.

Article IX

The enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others, retained by the people.

Article X

The powers not delegated to the United States by the Constitution, nor prohibited by it to the States, are reserved to the States respectively, or to the people.

SUMMARY OF CONSTITUTIONAL RIGHTS VIOLATED

Objective: TO IDENTIFY THOSE CONSTITUTIONAL RIGHTS THAT WERE VIOLATED DURING WORLD WAR II.

While the Supreme Court never ruled that the removal and incarceration of Japanese Americans was unconstitutional, historians and political analysts have described the violations which they believe occurred.

RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Freedom of religion • Freedom of speech • Freedom of press • Right to assemble
BILL OF RIGHTS AMENDMENT	<p>I. Restrictions on Powers of Congress: Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or of the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the Government for a redress of grievances.</p>
Violations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Japanese Americans' religious freedoms were violated with respect to the practice of Eastern religious beliefs. The practice of the Shinto religion was prohibited in the camps. Christianity was officially encouraged by camp administrators. At the same time, Buddhism was severely restricted by the ban on written materials in Japanese and the placement of Buddhist clergy in separate Department of Justice internment camps.</i> • <i>Japanese Americans were denied the guarantee of freedom of speech and press with the prohibition of using the Japanese language in public meetings and the censorship of camp newspapers. The right to assemble was abridged when mass meetings were prohibited, and English was required to be the primary language used at all public gatherings.</i> • <i>The guarantee of freedom to petition for redress was violated when a few Japanese Americans exercised their citizen rights and demanded redress of grievances from the government. The War Relocation Authority administration labeled them as "trouble-makers" and sent them to isolation camps.</i>
RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Freedom from unreasonable searches and seizures
BILL OF RIGHTS AMENDMENT	<p>IV. Seizures, Searches, and Warrants The right of the people to be secure in their persons, houses, papers, and effects, against unreasonable searches and seizures, shall not be violated, and no warrants shall issue, but upon probable cause, supported by oath or affirmation, and particularly describing the place to be searched, and persons or things to be seized.</p>
Violations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>The FBI searched homes of Japanese Americans often without search warrants, seeking any items identified as being Japanese. Items that appeared as contraband such as short-wave radios were confiscated.</i>

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 Curriculum and Resource Guide, JACL, National Education Committee

SUMMARY OF CONSTITUTIONAL RIGHTS VIOLATED

RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS

- **Right to an indictment or to be informed of the charges**
- **Right to life, liberty and property**
- **Right to be confronted with accusatory witnesses**
- **Right to call favorable witnesses**
- **Right to legal counsel**

BILL OF RIGHTS AMENDMENT

V. Criminal Proceedings and Condemnation of Property

No person shall be held to answer for a capital, or otherwise infamous crime, unless on a presentment or indictment of grand jury, except in cases arising in the land or naval forces, or in the militia, when in actual service in time of war or public danger; nor shall any person be subject for the same offense to be twice put in jeopardy of life or limb; nor shall be compelled in any criminal case to be witness against himself, nor be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor private property be taken for public use, without just compensation.

Violations

- *The forced removal and subsequent detention of Japanese Americans resulted in the denial of witnesses in their favor, and the denial of assistance of counsel for their defense.*
- *Japanese Americans who were picked up in the FBI sweep were denied a speedy trial or access to any legal representative. They could not call upon witnesses nor confront accusatory witnesses.*
- *Japanese Americans were not told of their crime or the charges against them.*

RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS

- **Right to a speedy and public trial**

BILL OF RIGHTS AMENDMENT

VI. Mode of Trial in Criminal Proceedings

In all criminal prosecutions, the accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial, by an impartial jury of the State and district, wherein the crime shall have been committed, which district shall have been previously ascertained by law, and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation; to be confronted with the witnesses against him; to have compulsory process for obtaining witnesses in his favor, and to have the assistance of counsel for his defense.

Violations

- *These rights could not be taken away except upon evidence of a criminal act and conviction in a court of law. Yet, Japanese Americans were deprived of their liberty and property by being forcibly removed from their homes and locked up in detention camps without the required statement of charges and trial by jury. How could this happen? The government adopted semantics to justify the act of imprisonment. Even though Japanese Americans were held against their will in barbed wire compounds under armed guard, the government euphemistically called the event an "evacuation" or "relocation."*

RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS

Right to habeas corpus (to be brought before a court)
Freedom from bills of attainder and ex post facto laws
Right against involuntary servitude
Right to equal protection under the laws

SUMMARY OF CONSTITUTIONAL RIGHTS VIOLATED

RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Right to reasonable bail • Freedom from cruel and unusual punishment
BILL OF RIGHTS AMENDMENT	<p>VIII. Bails, Fines, Punishments</p> <p>Excessive bail shall not be required, nor excessive fines imposed, nor cruel and unusual punishments inflicted.</p>
Violations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>The treatment of the Japanese Americans in the “assembly centers” and detention camps were a form of cruel and unusual punishment on the basis that conditions were “grossly inadequate.” Hospitals were understaffed, medical care poor and food was dietetically deficient.</i>
RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Right to vote
BILL OF RIGHTS AMENDMENT	<p>XV. Elective Franchise</p> <p>The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude.</p>
Violations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>The right to vote in public elections was essentially denied from Japanese Americans since they were prohibited from returning home to vote at their place of residence. No provisions were made to enable them to vote absentee. Although elections were held in the camps, the internee “self-government” had no power to regulate their own welfare or direct their own destiny.</i>
CONSTITUTIONAL ARTICLES	<p>ARTICLE I</p> <p>Section 9. - Limitations on Powers Granted to the United States</p>
RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Right to habeas corpus (to be brought before a court)
CONSTITUTIONAL ARTICLES	<p>2. Habeas Corpus</p> <p>The privilege of the writ of habeas corpus shall not be suspended unless when in cases of rebellion or invasion the public safety may require it.</p>
Violations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • <i>Japanese Americans were denied the right as detainees to be brought before a court at a stated time and place to challenge the legality of their imprisonment. Not only was this right violated, but the government attempted to suspend habeas corpus through legislation in response to Mitsuye Endo’s petition for freedom under habeas corpus. U.S. Intelligence reports showed no indication that Japanese Americans posed a threat to the U.S. defense or public safety.</i>

SUMMARY OF CONSTITUTIONAL RIGHTS VIOLATED

RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS

• **Freedom from bills of attainder and ex post facto laws**

CONSTITUTIONAL ARTICLES

3. Ex Post Facto and Bill of Attainder

No bills of attainder, or ex post facto laws (legislative acts that inflict punishment without trial) shall be passed.

Violations

• *Presidential proclamations and orders, such as Executive Order 9066 together with the enforcement bill, Public Law 503, made it a crime with penalties to violate curfew and not to comply with the removal orders. Together, the orders and public laws constituted a Bill of Attainder which was unconstitutional enactments against Japanese Americans pronouncing them guilty without trial.*

RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS

• **Right against involuntary servitude**

CONSTITUTIONAL ARTICLES

XIII. Slavery

Neither slavery nor involuntary servitude as a punishment for crime whereof the party shall have been duly convicted, shall exist within the United States, or any place subject to their jurisdiction.

Violations

• *Payment for work was way below the monthly average outside the camps. Inmates in the highest professions received only \$19 a month.*

RIGHTS AND FREEDOMS

• **Right to equal protection under the laws**

CONSTITUTIONAL ARTICLES

XIV. Citizenship Representation, and Payment of Public Debt

All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.

Violations

• *The equal protection of Japanese American was violated because the government acted "solely on the basis of race and national ancestry" when identifying persons to be excluded from designated "military areas" along the West Coast states.*

• *In addition, the government failed to compensate or provided grossly inadequate compensation to the internees for losses of property rights when they were forced to leave within 48 hours to a couple of weeks.*

• *Japanese Americans were deprived of their liberty and property by the State when forced from their jobs, homes, and communities into barbed wire, guarded centers and camps.*

WRIT OF ERROR CORAM NOBIS

(A Court Proceeding to Correct Fundamental Error) 1983-1988

In 1981, a team of mostly young Sansei lawyers began the task of trying to get the convictions of Hirabayashi, Yasui and Korematsu overturned. The petition asked for a correction of fundamental error and injustice at the time of the original trials.

In all three cases the Supreme Court's wartime decisions had been based on General DeWitt's allegations that (1) espionage and sabotage were being conducted by Japanese Americans, (2) the government could not readily distinguish the loyal from the disloyal, and therefore, (3) there was a military necessity for the mass removal and incarceration of all persons of Japanese ancestry.

The coram nobis petition stated the fundamental error was that the officials of the War Department and the Justice Department failed to inform the Supreme Court of the falsity, which was known to them, of DeWitt's allegations. In the process, the government suppressed, altered and destroyed evidence.

Thus, the failure of the government to advise the court of this evidence constituted misconduct that both violated ethical standards of conduct and subverted the judicial process.

The convictions in three cases were vacated by the Federal District Courts – Korematsu in 1984, Yasui in 1985 and Hirabayashi in 1986. In 1987, in Hirabayashi's case, appeals by both sides resulted in a federal court of appeals decision setting aside both of his criminal convictions.



[Chris Huie photo]

Reprinted from **DUE PROCESS**: Americans of Japanese Ancestry and the U.S. Constitution with revisions by Karen Kai and Robert Rusky, February 2007.

SUPREME COURT RULING

"No person shall . . . be deprived of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law." (5th Amendment)

"No state shall . . . deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws." (14th Amendment)

"It should be noted . . . that all legal restrictions which curtail the civil rights of a single racial group are immediately suspect."
(majority opinion, Korematsu vs. U.S.)

The wisdom of the Constitution and the Supreme Court's own words were muted when the Court upheld the mass incarceration of American citizens of Japanese ancestry on the sole basis of ancestry and without regard to due process.

In *Gordon Hirabayashi vs. U.S. (1943)* and *Minoru Yasui vs. U.S. (1943)*, the Supreme Court ruled that a discriminatory curfew imposed against one group of American citizens based solely on ancestry was constitutional.

In *Fred Korematsu vs. U.S. (1944)*, the Court further ruled that one group of American citizens may be singled out and expelled from their homes without benefit of charge or trial, again based solely on ancestry.

The Court ignored the lack of evidence to support the contention of "military necessity" and refused to question the validity of military orders applied to civilians without a declaration of martial law.

In *Korematsu*, Justice Robert Jackson stated in dissent: "The Court for all time has validated the principal of racial discrimination in criminal procedure."

In *Ex Parte Mitsuye Endo (1944)*, The Supreme Court finally granted a writ of habeas corpus and ordered the release of civilians who were concededly loyal. The ruling, however, came only after almost three years of imprisonment. As in the other three cases, the Court declined to address the validity of or to condemn the internment program itself.

Thus, the *Korematsu* decision takes precedence allowing the government to exclude a whole community on racial grounds, until such time the government decides that the imprisoned citizens are loyal and of no danger after all.

RESISTANCE TO INJUSTICE

“Congress shall make no law . . . abridging the right of the people to petition the government for a redress of grievances.” (1st Amendment)

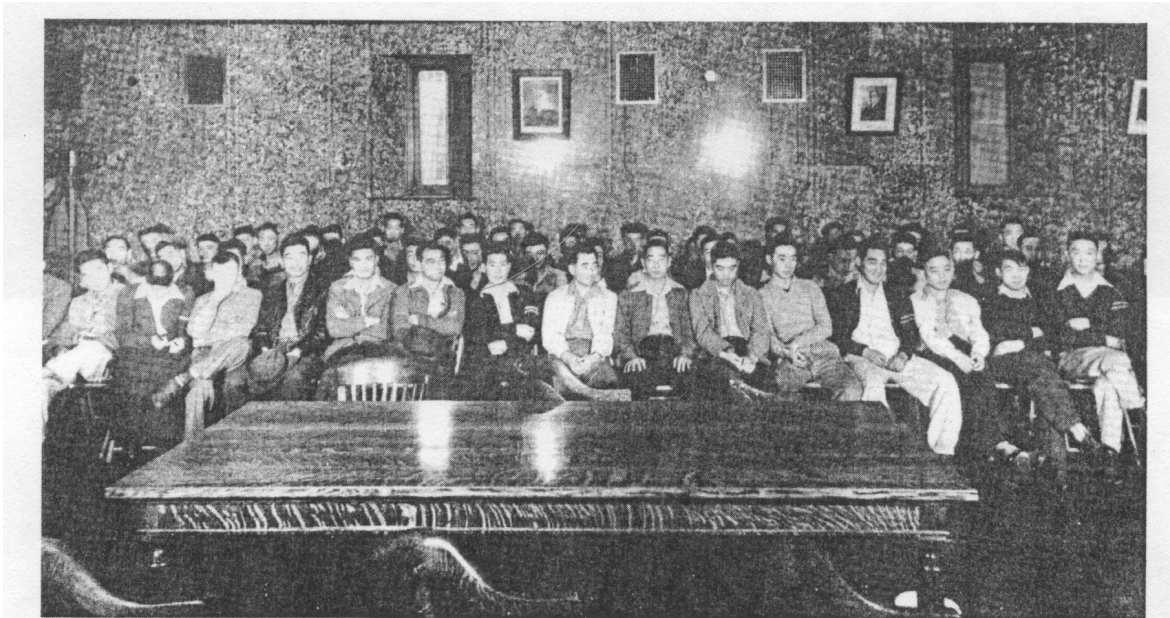
Not all Japanese Americans acquiesced to government orders stripping them of their constitutional rights. Some chose to resist the awesome power of the armed forces and the federal government. The resisters and protesters took the words of the Constitution seriously and demanded that those precepts apply to all citizens alike.

Gordon Hirabayashi, Minoru Yasui and Fred Korematsu were among the first to protest by refusing to comply with and challenging the constitutionality of the curfew and internment orders. Shortly after the camp gates closed behind them, Ernest Wakayama and Mitsuye Endo sought freedom through a writ of habeas corpus.

After a year of imprisonment, 315 inmates from ten detention camps refused to obey the draft notice until their constitutional rights were restored to them. The best organized draft resistance was by the Fair Play Committee at Heart Mountain. At Manzanar, Poston and Tule Lake, the inmates organized mass demonstrations and worker strikes which paralyzed the camps.

Even those who were already in the armed forces (prewar enlistees) risked everything by engaging in acts of protest. Over 100 Japanese American soldiers at Fort McClellan, Alabama, refused to undergo combat training while their families were still incarcerated.

The protesters and resisters paid a heavy price for their acts. The government cracked down hard with long prison terms, solitary confinement, beatings in stockades, forced-labor units, dishonorable discharges, and exile from the country. However, they can now be recognized as Americans who fought against injustice to “secure the blessings of liberty to ourselves and our posterity.” (Preamble)



Reprinted from **DUE PROCESS**: Americans of Japanese Ancestry and the U.S. Constitution with revisions by Karen Kai and Robert Rusky, February 2007.

PRESIDENTIAL APOLOGY



THE WHITE HOUSE
WASHINGTON

A monetary sum and words alone cannot restore lost years or erase painful memories; neither can they fully convey our Nation's resolve to rectify injustice and to uphold the rights of individuals. We can never fully right the wrongs of the past. But we can take a clear stand for justice and recognize that serious injustices were done to Japanese Americans during World War II.

in enacting a law calling for restitution and offering a sincere apology, your fellow Americans have, in a very real sense, renewed their traditional commitment to the ideals of freedom, equality, and justice. You and your family have our best wishes for the future.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script, appearing to read "G. W. Bush".

GEORGE BUSH
PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES

OCTOBER 1990

A TEENAGER'S COURAGE REMEMBERED

by Cecilia Rasmussen

In a unique, powerful and now forgotten protest of one of America's worst social injustices, Ralph Lazo, a Latino teenager, joined his Japanese American friends from Bunker Hill when they were interned during World War II.

When his friends and their families were ordered to Manzanar, an internment camp in the desert, Lazo followed them. He was the only non-Japanese in any of the internment camps.

While he was growing up, anti-Japanese bigotry was a staple of California's divisive racial politics, as it had been for many decades. In the anxious early days of World War II, this long-held prejudice quickly escalated to a hysterical pitch.

The American Legion, the California Farm Bureau, unions and all California's leading newspapers quickly began to demand the internment not only of resident Japanese immigrants, but also of Americans of Japanese descent. "Herd 'em up, pack 'em off and give 'em the inside room in the badlands. Let us have not patience with the enemy or with anyone whose veins carry his blood," wrote syndicated columnist Henry McLimore of the San Francisco Examiner.

Popular columnist Westbrook Pegler agreed. "To hell with habeas corpus," he wrote.

On Feb. 19, 1942, President Franklin D. Roosevelt signed an executive order approving the internment of 120,000 Japanese Americans on the West Coast, alleging that they threatened national security.

Among the handful of non-Japanese Americans willing to resist such vicious official nonsense was Lazo, who was growing up in the Temple Street neighborhood on Bunker Hill, in those days a melting pot of Japanese, Basques, Jews, Latinos, Filipinos, Koreans and African Americans.

His father—John Houston Lazo, a house painter and muralist—was a widower, often absent, supporting him and his sister Virginia. Ralph Lazo

frequently ate at the homes of his nisei friends, played basketball on a Filipino Community Church team and enrolled at night in a Japanese language class at Central Junior High School.

"He was a real hustler, who always made everyone laugh," said his high school friend Yoshindo Shibuya, who is now a dentist in San Diego.

Lazo also was an idealist who shared his nisei friends' pain and confusion when they were pulled out of Belmont High and forced into the internment camps. He helped in the sad task of hurriedly selling their personal belongings.

Soon afterward, Lazo resolved to accompany his friends to the internment camp at Manzanar. "Internment was immoral. It was wrong, and I couldn't accept it," Lazo later said.

When Lazo, then 16, told his father of his decision, he was purposely vague, allowing his father to believe he was going to a Boy Scout-type camp. Days later, when the headlines of a local newspaper roared: "Mexican American passes for Japanese," his father knew the truth. But he made no effort to bring his son home. And despite the news story, internment camp authorities permitted him to stay.

Ringed by barbed wire and machine gun towers, Manzanar was located on barren, dusty land 200 miles northeast of Los Angeles in the Owens Valley and—for four harsh summers and four bitter winters—was home to 10,000 Japanese Americans and one Mexican American.

No one of Japanese descent was exempt from internment. Young and old, sick and well, even 101 orphans and foster children, some as young as 6 months, were imprisoned. Lazo was the only one who could walk out, but he didn't. He stayed and made more friends, who would remain steadfastly loyal to the country that imprisoned them.

He landed a job delivering mail for \$12 a month. Later, he was a \$16-a-month recreation director.

Lazo, who had a slight build, was cheerleader for the camp football team,

which played all its games at home because the squad was forbidden to leave Manzanar. He was elected president of his high school class, although academically he ranked last among 150 students.

When everything looked grim to Lazo, Toyo Miyatake, who would become a famous photographer, would take out his contraband camera and point out to the boy the beauty around them.

His Latino background was officially acknowledged only when Lazo was drafted in August 1944. At that time a news release from the U.S. Department of the Interior, War Relocation Authority, announced: "America's only non-Japanese evacuee, Ralph Lazo ... of Los Angeles will leave Manzanar Relocation Center soon to join the U.S. Army."

Lazo served in the South Pacific, helping to liberate the Philippines, where he earned a Bronze Star for heroism in combat.

After the war, he graduated from UCLA and later earned a master's degree in sociology from Cal State Northridge. He taught at several schools throughout Los Angeles and worked with gang members before becoming a counselor at Valley College, where he retired in 1987.

Until his death in 1992, Lazo maintained close ties to the Japanese American community. He was one of 10 contributors who gave \$1,000 or more to the fund initially used to prepare the class-action lawsuit against the U.S. government that finally won financial compensation for those who were interned.

His only regret: "that there was a Manzanar."

Four years ago, the Manzanar High School class of 1944 dedicated its reunion to the skinny Chicano kid from Bunker Hill, recording this sentiment:

"When 140 million Americans turned their backs on us and excluded us into remote, desolate prison camps, the separation was absolute — almost. Ralph Lazo's presence among us said, No, not everyone."

Reprinted with permission from the *Los Angeles Times*, April 5, 1998

RALPH LAZO AT MANZANAR



Lettermen's Club, Manzanar High.
Ralph Lazo, 2nd row, right



Photographs from *Our World*, 1944
Manzanar High School Yearbook courtesy of Archie Miyatake, Toyo Miyatake Collection

IN MEMORIAM • RALPH LAZO

A dear friend, Ralph Lazo, died on New Year's Day after more than two years of ill health. Ralph was a gentle and kind man, who gained fame after he went along with his Nisei friends to spend the World War II years in the Manzanar concentration camp. While his original intent was to go along with his friends from Central Junior High School, he was outraged at what was happening to his friends and their families.

Over the years, after I met him in Manzanar, Ralph and I used to run into each other. He lived in Mexico for a while and got married there. He was finished with college and soon he was calling me from Los Angeles Valley College, where he was a counselor. He would mention a book which had just come off the press about the Peruvian Japanese. Had I seen it? Or he would call and ask me to join him in a panel discussion at some community college or high school. "I can't do it without you," he would say. And so we went, over the years, doing presentations and workshops, swapping information about books and people.

Ralph had been drafted into the U.S. Army out of Manzanar, but he seldom talked about the grimy side of war. He never mentioned the Bronze Star he had won—but he cried when he spoke of the enemy soldiers he had killed in the Pacific.

When the presidential Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians was formed, he telegraphed Washington and recommended me for the position of the commission's director.

In 1989, he got out of a sickbed to take a long bus ride from San Fernando Valley to Manzanar for our pilgrimage, and Rose Kakuuchi took our last snapshot together. Until last summer, he wrote me postcards, reminding me to vote for some "good" politicians, or a measure on the ballot.

Always ready to laugh over a good joke, a funny incident, Ralph never said anything about his personal problems or anguish he may have experienced in his lifetime. On one thing he was consistent and strong—the evacuation and internment were utterly unjustified and he would never keep quiet about how he felt. Few of his friends knew he had been threatened on more than one occasion. But Ralph was like that. He may have been scared, but he wasn't going to be bullied. At the same time, he was kind and considerate of his friends, a loyal comrade whose friends loved him in return.

With this strong commitment, Ralph went one step further. He became a "Ronin"—one of ten gallant people to put up \$1,000 to initiate a class action suit for the National Council for Japanese American Redress (NCJAR).

We will miss you Ralph. And on this 50th year of Remembrance, we will especially remember you.

Sue Kunitomi Embrey
1992

Tribute to Ralph Lazo, Day of Remembrance, 1992

Ms. Embrey, former inmate at Manzanar, was the chair and founding member of the Manzanar Committee, which sponsors the annual Manzanar Pilgrimage. The retired teacher had been a longtime civil rights advocate.

He never abandoned us...he was our friend...his name was Ralph Lazo

“I remember him at the train station and I thought he came to say good-bye,” recalls Nori Kuroyama. “He asked our friend Joe to borrow his school newspaper and Joe gave it to him, saying that he needed to get it back to him, somehow. After we had gotten on the train, about an hour into our trip, there comes Ralph Lazo into our train car and he brings back Joe’s newspaper. We told him he better get off because he wasn’t supposed to be there. He just smiled and said okay.”

Ralph never got off the train and went with his buddies from Belmont HS in Los Angeles to Manzanar. It is said that he is the only Mexican-Irish American to voluntarily place himself in camp out of loyalties to his buddies. It was not something his friends asked him to do. It was something he wanted and planned to do for himself.

Lazo’s friend Yoshindo Shibuya remembers that he was part of an earlier group to evacuate and Ralph wrote him a letter saying that he was coming to join him. Shibuya remembers that Ralph was taking a Japanese language course at night and wanted to tag along with the teacher to camp. Shibuya went to meet Ralph when he arrived at camp and he lived next door to his barrack. A week after Lazo’s arrival, Shibuya got another letter but this time from Lazo’s sister, Virginia, saying that they hadn’t seen Ralph and was worried about his whereabouts.

Shibuya asked Lazo how he should answer the letter and he remembers him saying, “Tell them I am where I am suppose to be.”

Although his family were quite shocked to find he had placed himself in a Japanese American prison camp at Manzanar, they did not take action to bring him home. No one seemed to question why he was there. He was assigned to the bachelor’s quarters, where

he said that he felt his older roommates were like his parents and they looked after him in camp. Lazo lived at camp just like everyone else.

“My family knew I was safe. How much safer can you be, behind barbed-wire fences, with searchlights and sentries in watch towers with loaded rifles?” said Lazo.

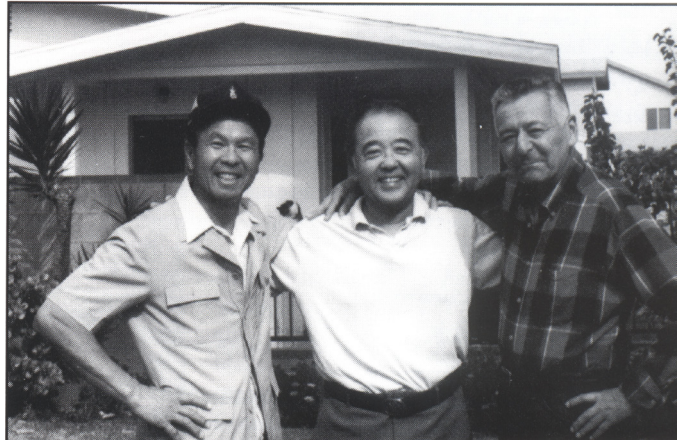
Everyone in Manzanar knew Ralph. He motivated friends to participate in extracurricular activities. He played football, delivered mail, organized Friday night dances and became class president during his high school year.

“I remember when we all went Christmas caroling. He gathered us all into the laundry room and tuned us up. There we were in the rain, but everybody just laughed, nobody ever had so much fun in their lives,” said Rosie Kakuuchi.

Government officials discovered Lazo was not Japanese American when he was drafted in August 1944. At that time, a news release from the U.S. Department of the Interior, War Relocation Authority, announced, “American’s only non-Japanese evacuee, Ralph Lazo, of Los Angeles will leave Manzanar Relocation Center soon to join the United States Army.

In the Army, Lazo served in the South Pacific during a campaign for the liberation of the Philippines. He was awarded a Bronze Star for heroism in combat.

After the war, Lazo graduated from UCLA and earned a master’s degree from Cal State University, Northridge. He taught in the Los Angeles Uni-



Prewar classmates John Yee, Yoshindo Shibuya and Ralph Lazo in 1985

fied School District before becoming a counselor at Valley College in 1970. Lazo died in 1992, of liver disease.

William Hohri concluded his “In Memoriam” article for Lazo in the materials for the Manzanar, Class of ’44, 50th reunion:

“When 140 million Americans turned their back on us and excluded us into remote, desolate prison camps, the separation was absolute—almost. Ralph Lazo’s presence among us said, No, not everyone. As a nation, as Japanese Americans, and his classmates, we need to remember Ralph for his gift of courage and human kindness and embrace him in our hearts with love and gratitude.”

Reprinted from *Our World*, Class of ’44
Manzanar High School Yearbook, 2nd edition

RALPH LAZO'S STORY: A MATTER OF PRINCIPLE

WHATEVER HAPPENED TO THAT MEXICAN-AMERICAN BOY WHO WAS AT MANZANAR?

Editor's Note: L.A. Valley College counselor Ralph Lazo has been nominated by U.S. Rep. James Corman (D-Van Nuys) to serve on the seven-member Commission on the Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians which is due to convene next year. Whether he is actually named to the presidential panel or not, we feel that Lazo's inspiring story deserves telling. Los Angeles Sansei Frederick H. Katayama, a student at Columbia Univ. in New York, reports.

Although the wartime exclusion notice of May 3, 1942 stipulated that all persons of Japanese ancestry, including those who had a little as 1/8 percent of Japanese blood, were to be evacuated from the West Coast, not all of those interned at the ten relocation camps fitted that description. The non-Japanese internees included those who had voluntarily opted to accompany their Japanese spouses and children. However, in the case of 16-year old Ralph Lazo, there certainly were no legal injunctions or conjugal obligations requiring his relocation. Rather, his loyalty for his friends and his humanitarian sense of justice served as the motives that brought him to Manzanar.

Lazo, an American of Mexican heritage who was raised in the Temple-Beaudry area of Los Angeles, voluntarily participated in the internment predicament that relocated his Japanese American friends. It was on February 19, 1942, that President Franklin D. Roosevelt had signed Executive Order 9066, which authorized the forced relocation of over 110,000 of Japanese ancestry from the shores of the West Coast. Manzanar, the first of the detention camps to be established, was to serve as the site where 10,046 Japanese Americans were to be incarcerated.

Having been raised in a family that fostered individuality, Lazo explained that his "father and sister knew my friendship for my friends, and they had to let me decide." (His mother had passed away.) So, at age sixteen, an age at which he claimed he knew "right from wrong and was aware of my reasons for going with them." Lazo packed his bags in 1942 and headed

off for Manzanar, a desert site located 280 miles north of Los Angeles. It was here in the Owens Valley, a region that includes Mt. Whitney and Death Valley, the highest and lowest points on this continent, that young Ralph was to spend the next quarter of a decade of his life.

When asked why he had willingly sacrificed 2 ½ years of life with his family to endure life behind barbed wire, he explained that he had gone because he had to share the experience of his friends and because he had sensed the "injustice" that was being perpetrated upon them.

"I knew their loyalty; they hadn't done anything I hadn't done, and time has proven this," he said. "It was wrong. I come from a long line of great humanitarians; the most important thing for us is a human being, a human life, a human dignity."

How did the other internees react to the presence of the non-Japanese adolescent who chose to be there on his own will?

"Beautifully. They just accepted me," he said.

Families were kept together in barracks, while single people were allotted bachelor's quarters. Accordingly, Lazo was assigned to one of the latter. With a sentimental smile, he recalled some of the various trivial but touching deeds that the Issei (first generation Japanese of America) performed for him.

"All of them were my Issei parents. They would straighten out my bed because I would wake up in a hurry. I had a little bag of dirty laundry. I couldn't find my laundry when all of a sudden I'd find it folded on my bed. Underneath my pillow, I would find a candy bar."

At first, some did have their reservations towards the adolescent Ralph, mistaking him for an "ainoko". (Japanese word meaning "half breed," used particularly in reference to individuals of mixed Japanese and White Anglo-American parentage.) Once they

had gotten to know that he was not an "ainoko," he was treated "just like anyone else," Lazo said. Prior to his relocation, he had just completed the tenth grade. Continuing his secondary education, Lazo graduated as a member of Manzanar's Class of '44. Asked for his evaluation of the quality of education at camp, he remarked without hesitation, "Daiichi—number one." He backed his appraisal by citing examples of the successful job positions held by his friends. Today, Arthur Katayama is a leading lawyer for the Japanese American community of Los Angeles; Bruce Kaji is president of Merit Savings in Southern California; and Archie Miyatake is a successful photographer in Los Angeles.

As for daily camp life, he attributed the successful operations to the internees, complimenting them on their "typical initiative, willingness to work and assume responsibilities." He added, "We took over. We had it working perfect."

There were slight discomforts and inconveniences, however. He pointed out the lack of privacy undergone while bathing and while using the latrines. While he acknowledged that there were many "physical and psychological deprivations," Lazo, always the optimist, concluded with a sense of pride, "We made the best of it. I'm proud of my friends. Everything we did was the best; we made the best we could."

During the interview this reporter could not help but notice the subject's frequent use of the word, "we." Did Lazo identify with his Japanese American friends?

"Without question. Outside, I'm Hispanic, Latino, Mexicano, Chicano, whatever you want to label me, but inside, I'm 'kikkoman,' (Kikkoman" is the name of a top selling Japanese soy sauce.) I was befriended."

Like any other internee, all rules, including curfew, were applicable to Lazo, despite the fact that he was not of Japanese ancestry. But that did not bother him, nor did that deter him. He and his friends would often go on hunting expeditions by sneaking out

through the wire fences.

Like the others, Lazo was also subjected to the two-question test of loyalty. The loyalty questionnaire, which was administered in February of 1943, asked the interned Japanese Americans whether or not they would (1) swear allegiance to and defend the U.S., and (2) be willing to serve in the U.S. armed forces. The administration of this questionnaire came under sharp criticism for having forced the internees to answer the questions while being subjected to a pressurized life behind barbed wire, where they had been stripped of their civil rights and possessions. Moreover, those who had answered “no; no” to the above questions were again relocated to a special camp in Tule Lake, Calif., where such so-called “radicals and dissidents” were to be detained. The majority of the internees, however, affirmatively signed the oath.

In response to the first question, Lazo wrote “yes.” Because he desired to complete his education first, he answered “no” to the second question. Lazo later served as a combat infantryman in the South Pacific and was decorated with a Bronze Star.

Determined to further his education, Lazo attended the University of California at Los Angeles, where he graduated with a degree in sociology. He also earned a master’s degree in counseling and guidance at Cal State Northridge College in Van Nuys. Today, Ralph Lazo is a counselor at Los Angeles Valley College. Before his arrival at Valley College, he had served as one of the first Hispanic teachers in the San Fernando Valley of the Los Angeles Unified School System back in 1954. Later, he became the first Hispanic counselor in the Valley.

A truly modest humanitarian, Ralph Lazo never sought publicity. It was thirty years after the internees were released that Lazo was discovered by a local television reporter (KNBC’s Tritia Toyota) at the thirty-sixth annual reunion of Manzanar alumni. His reason for maintaining a low profile was to prevent the cultivation of himself as a hero—the creation of which, he ex-

plained, might belie the issue of forced relocation and the attempt by the community to seek redress.

“It’s very natural for us to romanticize. They might see me and say, ‘Here’s someone who didn’t have to do this, but he did it.’”

“The issue is evacuation—the injustice of it. I just happen to be a consequence of it,” he maintained.

Lazo supports the current efforts made by Japanese American movements in seeking redress and reparations for injustices suffered during World War II.

“I’ve been waiting a long time for it; I’m proud of my friends who’re presenting it. I understand the situation and the attitude—part of the culture is to not accept recompensation and to accept the ordeal as good citizens . . . but at the same time, this government has never recognized a mistake that is well known and documented. (Lazo was referring to some members of the Japanese American community who believe that it is wrong to ask the U.S. government for monetary compensation. Lazo then likened this attitude to the characteristic of “*gaman suru*,” a term often used by sociologists to explain Japanese behavior. The term means, “to endure, practice one’s patience.”)

“In honor of the individuals who’ve not lived, who’ve suffered, and continue to suffer, I think the nation owes the recognition of that situation, and whatever monetary compensation (that could be awarded pending the outcome of the Presidential commission hearing) is a very small amount. If we had remained here, we could have made that in three months, working overtime.”

Despite the fact that he also underwent the experience behind barbed wire, Lazo does not desire monetary compensation for himself. He is not certain as to whether or not he too is legally entitled to it, but if it is offered to him, he said that he would accept it. (Lazo did not receive nor did he request the minute amount of \$25 given to internees upon leaving camp.)

How has the experience affected or influenced his character and outlook on life?

“I think it’s made me a much more sensitive human being without question. It’s made me a much stronger individual.” His acquaintance with Toyo Miyatake, the late Los Angeles photographer whose pictures and portraits of Manzanar camp life serve as historical documentation of a downplayed part of U.S. history cultivated in Lazo an appreciation for the beauty of nature in the desert.

Lazo’s humanitarianism was not only limited to the Japanese Americans he assisted in the development and founding of the Technological Institute in the state of Chihuahua, Mexico, where he spent four years preparing students for careers as engineers and technicians.

What if history were to repeat itself, as evidenced by Senator S.I. Hayakawa’s proposal to intern the Iranians? Would he go again?

“That’s an ideal question to ask if you can. No one should’ve gone to the camps.” He paused, then added, “I had to go because my friends shouldn’t have had to go. So sure; yes, I would.”

Reprinted by permission of *The Rafu Shimpō* from December 18, 1980.

MANZANAR Free Press

VOL. 8, NO. 14

MANZANAR, CALIFORNIA SATURDAY, AUGUST 13, 1944

Story Of Local Youth Told In L. A. Daily News

Ralph Lazo, former 19-year-old Los Angeles resident of Mexican parentage, has been voluntarily encompassed in the Manzanar Relocation Center for Japanese Americans by passing himself off as a Japanese American in May, 1942, the Los Angeles Daily News declared today.

It is reported that the strange case of Ralph Lazo, whose father a navy veteran of the last war, lives at 1438 Court Street, came to light through a recent announcement by the War Relocation Authority in San Francisco that Lazo soon would leave this center for induction into the army.

Lazo, who has broken out of the center only twice, gave the following reason for registering:

"My Japanese American friends at Belmont High in Los Angeles were ordered to evacuate the West Coast, so I decided to go along with them. Who can say I haven't got Japanese blood in me? Who knows what kind of blood runs in their veins? So I registered as being of Japanese ancestry and came along with the first group to be sent to Manzanar.

"I said my lie with the Japanese Americans because I did not believe that my friends at Japanese ancestry were displaced to the United States," he said.

Driers Cautioned By Chief Of Police

Project drivers are cautioned against violating the safety regulations by driving through the blocks, warned Chief of Police

Vandals Desecrate Japanese Cemetery

PORTLAND, Ore.—Judicial court officials here blamed vandals for the recent desecration of the Japanese cemetery at Portland, according to the Pacific Citizen. It reported that this was the second to occur within the year.

"Theft of gravestones were broken and tossed into heaps at the cemetery June 26. A child's act of bludge—so scoldered that officer George J. Cress said he doubted that graves and monuments could ever be reassembled," the Citizen said.

It also reported that wooden markers were splintered and lost about and that a nearby incident came to the cemetery to extinguish one fire with a hose.

The cemetery has been practically abandoned since the evacuation of persons of Japanese ancestry from Portland in 1942. In 1943, a group of Portland church people announced that they would clean up and beautify the cemetery in the "interest of the Japanese and Japanese Americans. They were prevented from doing so by a group of American Legionnaires.

Clayton said a Japanese dollyman had pilfered part of the vandalism, but could not be blamed for all of the ruined graves.

Release Ruling On Picnic Ground Area

Rules regarding the use of the picnic and project area were released recently by the Administration, according to the Community Management Division.

When leaving or entering the center, all persons must check in and out of the gate with the internal security gate guard. The picnic and maintenance areas are permitted to leave the center by proceeding a road, which is billy-billy, which each member holds, and a blanket poem which is held by the forerunner of the group.

Persons going to the picnic area must present a blank check's pass, or, if a group of persons, a pass from their hall to the gate guard upon leaving and entering the center.

Persons going to the swimming pool may use the tracks or walk ways, but must come and go through the same gate.

Motor pool furnishes transportation of food, small children, and the aged or infirm to the picnic area, but no transportation is available to the swimming pool.

Responsibility for enforcing the above regulations is given to the nearest patrol section of the General Police, who are also equipped to apply first aid to the injured. Residents are asked to cooperate with them on this matter.

State Benefit Dance For Nisei Soldiers

"Dances for Soldiers" benefit dance will be held next week, July 25, at New York under the sponsorship of the Japanese American Committee for Democracy.

The Committee announced that contributions are being received and that individuals such as

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<http://www.asianamericanmedia.org>

Children of the Camps: <http://www.children-of-the-camps.org/>

Conscience and the Constitution: <http://www.resisters.com/>

Densho Project: <http://www.densho.org/>

Dorothea Lange exhibit from the Library of Congress: <http://www.loc.gov/exhibits/wcf/wcf0013.html>

Exploring the Japanese American Internment: <http://www.jainternment.org/>

Go for Broke: Oral Histories
http://www.goforbroke.org/oral_histories/oral_histories_video.asp

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<http://www.sfmuseum.org/war/evactxt.html>

National Japanese American Historical Society: <http://njahs.org>

Nikkei for Civil Rights & Redress: <http://www.ncrr-la.org/>

"Suffering under a Great Injustice," Ansel Adams's Photographs of Japanese American Internment at Manzanar: <http://memory.loc.gov/learn/features/immig/alt/japanese4.html>

Visual Communications: <http://vconline.org>

CONTACT AND ORDERING INFORMATION

For more information about ordering the *Stand Up for Justice* film and teacher's guide, which are available to California secondary teachers and selected libraries, please contact either Nikkei for Civil Rights & Redress (NCRR) or Visual Communications. Ordering information will be posted on both organizations' websites as it becomes available. Inquiries can also be directed to NCRR and Visual Communications via e-mail.

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