

MEMORANDUM

From: Clifford I. Uyeda Date: March 10, 1978
To: National Board; Subject: Informational
 Reparation Committee Members, brochure.
 present and past.

Attached material was put together for use in the forthcoming public campaign to gather support for the concept of meaningful compensations for the U.S. residents of Japanese descent who were forcibly expelled from the West Coast and incarcerated during World War II.

- 1) The brochure is written for the general American public.
- 2) This is the latest draft.
- 3) Not for public dissemination at this time.
- 4) Please suggest title. Purpose and identity should be immediately recognizable.
- 5) Please comment, suggest, correct, etc. and return before end of March 1978 to:

Clifford I. Uyeda
JACL National Hqs
1765 Sutter Street
San Francisco, CA 94115

INTRODUCTION

"No person shall be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law. The accused shall enjoy the right to a speedy and public trial by an impartial jury and to be informed of the nature and cause of the accusation. No state shall deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws." These protections are guaranteed in the 5th, 6th, and the 14th Amendments to the Constitution of the United States of America.

However, during 1942-46, some 72,000 American citizens and 41,000 permanent residents were summarily deprived of liberty and property without criminal charges, and without trial of any kind. At least seven persons were also violently deprived of life. All persons of Japanese ancestry on the West Coast, but not Hawaii, were expelled from their homes and confined in inland detention camps. The sole basis for these actions was ancestry; citizenship, age, loyalty, or innocence of wrongdoing did not matter. Japanese Americans were the only ones singled out for mass internment; German and Italian nationals, and citizens of German and Italian ancestry were not similarly treated.

This episode was one of the worst blows to constitutional liberties

that the American people have ever sustained. Many Americans find it difficult to understand how such a massive injustice could have occurred in a democratic nation. This booklet will attempt to explain how and why it happened; and what can be done to correct the mistake, and insure that it will never happen again. Professor Eugene V. Rostow once wrote: "Until the wrong is acknowledged and made right we shall have failed to meet the responsibility of a democratic society--the obligation of equal justice."

ROOT CAUSES

The seeds of prejudice which gave fruit to the World War II internment were sown nearly a century earlier when the first immigrants from Asia arrived in California. California then was a lawless frontier territory. Anglo immigrants from the Eastern United States had just succeeded in wresting control of the territory from Mexico, and had briefly proclaimed an independent Republic of California.

Mexico was forced to cede California to the United States in 1848, and almost simultaneously, gold was discovered in the Sierra foothills. Immigrants from the Eastern states, and from all over the world, rushed to California. There was intense, often violent, competition for control of the gold mines, and ultimately for control of the Territory of California.

About 25% of the men seeking their fortunes in gold came from China. Having previously established dominance over the Native, Spanish, and

Mexican Californians, the Anglo immigrants were in no mood to tolerate competition from another group of non-Anglo people. Using acts of terrorism--mass murder and arson--the Anglo immigrants drove the Chinese immigrants out of the mining areas.

When California became a state in 1850, lawless violence was transformed into legal discrimination. Official government prejudice against an Asian minority was thus born. The California state constitution contained a specific anti-Chinese article; and Chinese persons, by law or court decision, were prohibited from: becoming citizens or voting; testifying in court against a white person; engaging in licensed businesses and professions; employment in public agencies or chartered corporations; attending school with whites; and marrying whites. Chinese persons alone were required to pay special taxes; and the major source of revenue for many cities, counties and the State of California came from these assessments against the Chinese.

Despite such barriers, there was still more opportunity in California than in poverty-stricken China, and more Chinese immigrants arrived. But with the much larger influx of white immigrants from the Eastern states and Europe, the proportion of Chinese persons in California dropped to 10% of the population. Chinese pioneers moved on to mine mercury, coal, and other minerals in the Western states. They developed the fishing industry on the Pacific coast, and were the mainstays for the building of the transcontinental railroad.

Big business recruited Chinese workers for menial labor, but white labor unions agitated for the removal of all Chinese persons from California. The rallying cry for white labor leaders became: "The Chinese must go!" White elected officials soon joined the exclusion movement and pressured the federal government to stop immigration from China. In response to the California lobby, Congress passed a series of Chinese Exclusion Acts beginning in 1882. The California pressure groups won their first campaign to exclude an Asian minority.

JAPANESE ARRIVE

As the Chinese population rapidly declined due to emigration and lack of women, an acute labor shortage developed in the Western states and Territory of Hawaii. The agricultural industry wanted another group of laborers who would do the menial work at low wages, and they looked to Japan as the new source. In 1884, due to pressure from the United States, Japan relaxed her law which previously forbade laborers from going to another country.

The American agricultural industry recruited Japanese laborers to work in the sugar cane fields of Hawaii, and the fruit and vegetable farms of California. From the handful who were here prior to the Chinese Exclusion Act, the Japanese population increased to around 61,000 in Hawaii and

24,000 on the mainland by 1900. The Japanese replaced the Chinese as the largest non-white ethnic group in the West Coast states and Hawaii.

As long as the Japanese remained docile, their hard labor was welcomed, but as soon as they showed signs of initiative they were perceived as threats to white dominance. The Japanese reclaimed much of the unwanted land and developed it into rich agricultural areas. Although cultivating only about 4% of the land in California, the Japanese produced 50-90% of certain fruits and vegetables. Japanese farm laborers formed unions and staged one of the first successful agricultural strikes in California. Organized Japanese farm laborers eventually received higher pay than unorganized white farm laborers. Envy led to hate, and the prevailing anti-Asian animosities became focused on the Japanese.

The anti-Japanese campaign began with acts of violence and lawlessness: mob assaults, arson, and forcible expulsion from farming areas became commonplace. Soon the prejudices became codified into law. By law, administrative ruling or court decision, the Japanese were prohibited from: becoming citizens or voting; owning land or giving gifts of land; engaging in certain businesses, occupations and professions; attending school with whites; and marrying whites.

Just as before, California politicians put pressure on the federal government to stop all immigration from Japan. By legislation or executive order, Japanese laborers were excluded beginning in 1907; and all Japanese persons were excluded in 1924. Japan considered the Exclusion Act an insult to their nation and people, particularly since the United States

insisted upon Japanese immigration in the first place. President Theodore Roosevelt remarked: "The infernal fools in California...insult the Japanese recklessly and in the event of war it will be the nation as a whole which will pay the consequences."

To the dismay of the exclusionists, the Japanese population did not dwindle as the Chinese population did earlier. There were sufficient number of Japanese women immigrants who gave birth to an American-born generation. As the exclusionists intensified their efforts to get rid of the Japanese, their campaign was enhanced by the development of a powerful new weapon--the mass media.

Newspapers, radio, and motion pictures stereotyped Japanese Americans as untrustworthy and unassimilable. The media made no distinction between American citizens of Japanese ancestry and Japanese nationals in Japan. As Japan became a military power, the media falsely depicted Japanese Americans as agents for Japan. Newspapers inflamed the "Yellow Peril" myths on the West Coast; and radio, movies and comic strips spread the disease of prejudice throughout the United States.

Trapped in segregated neighborhoods and with no access to the media, Japanese Americans were unable to counteract the false stereotypes. Even though the American-born were culturally American, spoke English fluently, and were well educated, they faced insurmountable discrimination in employment, housing, public accommodations, and social interaction.

It should be noted that there was one important exception to the

foregoing discussion. In the territory of Hawaii, Japanese Americans and other Asian Americans were treated much more fairly. Hawaii was a cosmopolitan territory, and no single race dominated the islands. The prejudices and legal discrimination which plagued California society did not develop in Hawaii.

OUTBREAK OF WAR

It is difficult to pinpoint exactly when World War II began. Germany and Japan became military powers in the 1930's and began their conquests by annexing neighboring nations by sheer intimidation. Actual fighting broke out in Asia when Japan invaded China in 1937, and in Europe when Germany invaded Poland in 1939.

As Germany overran the European continent and drove into Africa and the Soviet Union, and Japan likewise in Asia and Southeast Asia, the United States was placed under tremendous pressure to enter the war. American involvement became imminent in July 1941 when the United States imposed a critical oil blockade against Japan. Japan had no natural source of oil, so if the embargo could not be lifted by diplomatic means within a few months, military action was inevitable.

The United States had broken Japan's top secret code and was aware of the oil crisis in Japan and the possibility of armed conflict. Consequently, the government undertook certain precautionary measures. In October 1941, the State Department dispatched a special investigator, Curtis B. Munson, to check on the disposition of the Japanese American communities on the

West Coast and Hawaii.

In November 1941, Munson submitted his confidential report which certified that Japanese Americans possessed an extraordinary degree of loyalty to the United States, and immigrant Japanese were of no danger. Munson's findings were corroborated by years of secret surveillance conducted by the Federal Bureau of Investigation (FBI) and Navy Intelligence. Both the FBI and Navy Intelligence reported they had a few potential extremists identified but the rest of the Japanese American population was perfectly trustworthy. High government and military officials were aware of these intelligence reports, but they kept them secret from the public.

Japan's attack on the American military base near Honolulu, Territory of Hawaii, in December 1941 was not the complete surprise that people were led to believe at the time. Post-war disclosures have indicated that high officials in Washington, D. C., whose job it was to monitor Japan, knew that some kind of strike was coming soon, and that the military bases near Honolulu and Manila, Territory of the Philippines, were the two most likely targets.

Many people have assumed that Japan's attack in Hawaii was the cause of, or justification for, what happened to Japanese Americans living in the West Coast states. But one needs only to ponder the simple facts in order to dismiss that theory: the attack took place in Hawaii, but Japanese Americans in Hawaii were left unmolested. Actually, the decision to remove and incarcerate all Japanese Americans in California, Oregon, and Washington was the logical extension of the prevailing Asian exclusion

movement which began nearly 100 years earlier. The anti-Japanese pressure group in California used the war as the opportunity to accomplish the goal they had been seeking for some 50 years.

There was very little public panic, hysteria, or irrationality immediately following the attack. In fact, public opinion was remarkably enlightened for the first two months. Even West Coast newspapers published editorials and letters sympathetic to Japanese Americans, and elected officials urged the public not to blame Japanese Americans. But the California pressure groups, with the willing cooperation of the press, mounted an intense rumor campaign. Totally false stories were published about spies and saboteurs among the Japanese Americans.

The truth was that no person of Japanese ancestry living in the United States or Territory of Hawaii was ever charged with, or convicted of espionage, sabotage, or any other disloyal act. (Japan used white people as agents, and numerous white Americans were arrested and convicted as enemy agents.)

Because of the background of prejudice and stereotypes, the public found it easy to believe the false stories. High federal officials knew the facts, but they kept silent. By mid-February 1942, public opinion turned against the Japanese Americans. Elected officials, city councils, and civic organizations in California demanded the ouster and internment of all Japanese Americans. Earl Warren, then attorney general of California, made the incredible statement that the very absence of fifth column activities by Japanese Americans was confirmation that such actions were planned for

the future. Warren also claimed American citizens of Japanese ancestry were more dangerous than nationals of Japan.

EXPULSION AND DETENTION

Like the immigration exclusion campaigns before, the California lobby pressured the federal government to remove and/or lock up all Japanese Americans. Oregon and Washington supported California's demands, but the rest of the nation was generally unconcerned about the tiny Japanese American minority. There were far more important war problems to worry about, but white Californians seemed preoccupied with the Japanese Americans.

President Franklin Roosevelt finally yielded to the pressures from California and signed Executive Order 9066 on February 19, 1942. Roosevelt signed the order despite objections from Attorney General Francis Biddle, who felt it was unconstitutional, and FBI Director J. Edgar Hoover, who felt it was unnecessary.

Executive Order 9066 broadly authorized any military commander to exclude any person from any area. The presidential order did not mention any specific group, nor say anything about detention. However, there was an understanding among high officials that the authorization was to be used for the purpose of removing and incarcerating the Japanese Americans. Also due to the lobbying from California, Congress backed up the Executive Order

by passing Public Law 77-503, which made it a civil offense for a civilian to disobey a military order.

General John L. DeWitt, military commander of the Western Defense Command, thereupon issued a series of over 100 military orders applying exclusively to civilians of Japanese ancestry living in the West Coast states. The sole basis for DeWitt's worders was ancestry; he was often quoted as stating: "A Jap's a Jap. It makes no difference whether the Jap is a citizen or not."

Of the 1,100,000 "enemy" nationals in the United States in 1942, less than 4% were Japanese nationals. DeWitt first ordered all persons of Japanese ancestry to "voluntarily" leave the West Coast states, and approximately 10,000 tried to do so; but many were turned back at the borders of interior states by armed posses. Next, DeWitt placed American citizens of Japanese ancestry under curfew, along with nationals of Japan, Germany and Italy. Citizens of German and Italian ancestry were not restricted in any way. Then, he forbade all travel by persons of Japanese ancestry, regardless of citizenship, and ordered them to remain in their homes until ordered to report for internment. Finally, beginning in March 1942, he ordered all persons of Japanese ancestry in California, Oregon, Washington and parts of Arizona to turn themselves in at interim detention camps near their homes.

There were 15 such interim detention facilities scattered throughout the West Coast states. They were mostly county fairgrounds, race tracks and livestock exhibition halls hastily converted into internment camps with barbed wire fences and guard towers. Each camp held around 5,000

Japanese Americans, except for the Santa Anita Race Track near Los Angeles which held over 18,000, and Mayer, Arizona which held only 247. Living quarters consisted of horse stalls, some with manure still inside.

The internment was ostensibly for the protection of the West Coast against sabotage, but babies, orphans, adopted children, the infirm and bedridden elderly were included. Children of multiple ancestry were interned if they had any Japanese ancestry at all. Colonel Karl Bendetsen, who directly administered the program stated: "I am determined that if they have one drop of Japanese blood in them, they must go to camp."

Non-Japanese spouses, adoptive parents, and orphanage directors were forced to surrender their children for internment, or enter the camp themselves. The only exemptions were for those confined in prisons or asylums, and the few adults with 1/32 or less Japanese ancestry who could prove they had no contact whatsoever with other persons of Japanese ancestry. It should be noted that DeWitt's orders were not imposed on Japanese Americans in Hawaii. Hawaii did have limited martial law, but the regulations applied to everyone, including whites.

Except for the four individuals who decided to fight the discriminatory treatment in the courts, the entire Japanese American population obediently followed military orders. They had to leave their homes with only a few days notice and could take only what they could carry in their two hands. Property had to be hurriedly sold, abandoned or given away, and crops left to rot in the fields. They lost title to homes, businesses,

and farmlands because taxes and mortgage payments became impossible to pay. Bank accounts were frozen or confiscated as "enemy assets," and there was little source of income within the camps.

By June 1942, the Battle^{of} Midway was won and the tide of war shifted in favor of the United States. Japan was no longer capable of attacking the West Coast, or even Hawaii. The government and military were aware of this fact, but they relentlessly went ahead with plans to build permanent mass detention facilities in the interior regions. At great cost and despite the critical shortage of materials, the government built 10 mass detention camps in the isolated areas of Arizona, Arkansas, Colorado, Idaho, Utah, Wyoming and Eastern California. The vast majority of Japanese Americans were moved from the interim camps near their hometowns to the permanent camps thousands of miles away after the threat of invasion had vanished. Each of the permanent camps held around 10,000 Japanese Americans, and a total of around 113,000 Japanese Americans were ultimately interned.

The inland camps were located in desert or swamp areas and were surrounded by a high barbed wire fence, sometimes two such fences, sometimes electrified. Guard towers were placed at strategic intervals, and any Japanese American leaving without permission was shot. Dozens of internees were shot and wounded, and seven were killed by guards. Living quarters were crowded and there was no privacy; large extended families or groups of unrelated individuals were squeezed into tiny unpartitioned 16 x 20 feet units.

Japanese Americans were known for their pride in rarely having been on welfare or locked up in prisons, but the camps relegated them into wards of the government guarded by armed soldiers. Fathers were no longer the family breadwinners; parents lost control of their children; and families rarely ate meals together. The Japanese language was banned at public meetings, and Eastern religions were suppressed. Many were terrified because of the unpredictable future, and did not expect to come out alive.

American citizens in the camps were denied their right to vote, either by absentee ballot in their home states or by direct ballot in the state where the camp was located. All incoming and outgoing communications were censored, including personal letters and newspapers. And all internal communications were strictly controlled by the camp administration.

While the Japanese Americans were incarcerated, and unknown to them at the time, the State Department and some members of Congress proposed executive action or legislation to involuntarily strip all native-born Americans of Japanese ancestry of their citizenship and deport them to Japan after the war. Other elected officials demanded that the interned Japanese Americans be used as reprisal targets for the mistreatment of American prisoners of war. One member of Congress even proposed a mandatory sterilization program. Fortunately, these extreme measures were not taken.

Japanese Americans tried to make the best of their predicament. Internees operated their own camp farms, and the camps became self-supporting

in food. Additional internees volunteered to relieve the critical farm labor shortage in the mountain [;]plans area and were granted seasonal work leaves. Others were given leaves to fill labor shortages in Midwest and East Coast factories, and students were granted educational leaves. But these leaves were a form of parole: they were not free to go or do anything they wanted, and had to periodically report to government officials. During 1943 and 1944, about 33% of the internees, mostly young single men and women, were temporarily and conditionally released on these various forms of leaves. The other 67% remained in the camps for the duration of the war.

When the United States entered the war, there were around 5,000 Japanese Americans in the armed forces, but ^{many} ~~they~~ were summarily discharged as unsuitable for service. All Japanese Americans were classified by the draft as ineligible for service. Thousands of Japanese American volunteered for duty but were refused enlistment.

At the urging of the Japanese American Citizens League, the War Department changed their policy in January 1943 and started accepting volunteers for a segregated combat team. Most of the volunteers came from Hawaii, but there were many who volunteered from within the camps. They became part of the celebrated 442nd Infantry Regiment, the most decorated American unit to fight in World War II.

By January 1944, Japanese Americans were drafted like everyone else, even though they were still incarcerated in the camps. Some 33,000

Japanese Americans served in the U.S. armed forces during World War II, 6,000 of them in the Pacific Theater. Many Japanese American soldiers in the combat zones were much more concerned about the treatment of their families still incarcerated behind barbed wire fences in the United States than they were about the enemy firepower they faced.

THE SUPREME COURT

Three men and one woman challenged the discriminatory orders in the courts, but the judicial system failed in their constitutional responsibility to protect citizens against abuses by the executive and legislative branches. Regretfully, judges, and even justices of the Supreme Court were not immune from the prejudices of the time⁵.

In order to set up the court test, Minoru Yasui deliberately violated the curfew; Gordon Hirabayashi violated the curfew and refused to report for internment; and Fred Korematsu refused to report for internment. These three men were convicted in the trial courts of having disobeyed military orders; and their convictions were upheld in the appellate courts.

On the other hand, Mitsuye Endo reported for internment, but after she was detained against her will without charges, she sought a writ of habeas corpus. Endo's plea for release was denied in the trial and appellate courts. The Japanese Americans argued that the orders were unconstitutional when applied to citizen civilians; and the government conceded that all four individuals were loyal citizens who had not committed any criminal

acts other than to resist or oppose DeWitt's orders; but the lower courts refused to grant relief.

Eventually, the appeals were brought before the Supreme Court. In Hirabayashi and Yasui v. U.S., the Court ruled that a curfew may be imposed against one group of American citizens based solely on ancestry. In the Korematsu v. U.S., the Court further decided that one group of citizens may be singled out and expelled from their homes and imprisoned for several years without trial, again ⁶based solely on ancestry.

The Court justified these decisions by reiterating the false stereotype about Japanese Americans which had permeated white American thinking. The justices argued, without any foundation in fact, that Japanese Americans were inherently more dangerous to national security than other people merely because of their ancestry. The Court ignored the constitutional guarantees of due process and equal protection of law, and violated the basic principle of American justice that guilt and punishment must be individual, i.e. the inalienable rights of life, liberty and property cannot be deprived except upon conviction of an individual's own wrongdoing--not the wrongdoing of others, nor of a group. Justice Robert Jackson stated in dissent: "The Court for all time has validated the principle of racial discrimination in criminal procedure."

In the companion case of Ex Parte Endo, the Court did grant Endo her unconditional release from confinement; but in a very important sense, she lost her point. The court specifically stated that the original

expulsion from homes and the detention for three years without charges or trial were legitimate exercises of presidential and military power during an emergency. The Court merely ruled that Endo and other admittedly loyal American citizens could not be imprisoned forever.

Refusing to consider the salient constitutional issues begging for resolution, the Court decided the Endo case on narrow technical grounds-- that Executive Order 9066 did not authorize the indefinite detention of citizens who the government conceded were loyal; nor did it authorize the imposition of parole conditions on citizens once removed from the West Coast.

By the time Endo decision was announced, the war was nearly over; and General DeWitt had already rescinded his exclusion and internment orders. Japanese Americans were free to return to their homes on the West Coast effective January 1945.

RETURN HOME

The return of Japanese Americans to their homes in California, Oregon and Washington was marked by vigilante violence, and the agitation of pressure groups to keep out the Japanese Americans permanently. Homes, farms, and businesses left behind were occupied by whites unwilling to return property to rightful owners. Homes were burned and dynamited, and Japanese Americans were shot at. More acts of violence and terrorism were committed against Japanese Americans at the end of the war than in the beginning.

Despite the well-publicized accomplishments of the 442nd Regimental Combat Team, the names of Japanese American soldiers were removed from community honor rolls, and dead soldiers were refused burial in hometown cemeteries. Restaurants, hotels, barbershops, gasoline stations, grocery stores, and other public accommodations refused to serve Japanese Americans. United States Army Captain Daniel K. Inouye (later Senator), in full uniform with all his medals on, walked into a San Francisco barbershop, but he was told: "We don't serve Japs here." When news of the hostility reached those still remaining in the camps, they became reluctant about going home. The Pacific war ended in August 1945, but the last internee did not leave the camp until March 1946.

Reconstructing their lives was not easy, and for some it was too late. Elderly pioneers had lost everything they worked for all their lives, and were too old to start anew. Having been expelled from their homes and jobs at the height of their productive years, they were unable to save much for retirement. About 20% of the surviving pioneers were below poverty level by the 1970 Census. The American-born had their education disrupted and could no longer afford to go to college because family support became their responsibility.

Property losses alone were conservatively estimated by the Federal Reserve Bank in San Francisco to be in excess of 400 million dollars based on 1941 figures. Congress appropriated partial restitution for property losses, but only 8½% of property losses were ever compensated.

Nothing was done to compensate for the tremendous increase in land values during the war years, nor for lost income.

Not only were material losses sustained, but long lasting psychological damages resulted. Families disintegrated under the prison-like conditions, and individuals became disoriented and embittered. People lost their sense of self-esteem and could not regain enough self-confidence to compete as well as they could have in American society. Adult internees could never forget the experience, and the children faced the life-long stigma of their birth certificates or school records indicating they spent their childhood in captivity. Most importantly, Japanese Americans suffered the indignity of being falsely imprisoned by their own government.

RESTITUTIONS

By custom and tradition, any American who has been injured by a false accusation, arrest or imprisonment is expected to bring the responsible parties into court and obtain a judgement clearing his or her name and collecting redress for damages. Liberty is considered so precious by Americans that even a few days of false imprisonment have been compensated with large monetary sums.

German Jews experienced the horrors of the Nazi death camps.

Japanese Americans experienced the agonies of being incarcerated for an indeterminate period. Both were imprisoned in barbed wire compounds with armed guards. Both were prisoners of their own country. Both were there without criminal charges, and were completely innocent of any wrongdoing. Both were there for only one reason--ancestry. German Jews were systematically murdered en masse--that did not happen to Japanese Americans; but the point is that both Germany and the United States persecuted their own citizens based on ancestry.

West Germany has made a 25 billion dollar restitution payments to Jews and Jewish institutions, and another 10 to 15 billion dollars will be paid. The fact that the victorious Allied Powers initially imposed on Germany the concept of reparations to the victims of the Third Reich does not diminish the righteousness nor the justice of the act. The Federal Republic of Germany has stated that it is giving precedence to the payment of compensatory damages to "those who suffered in mind and body, or had been deprived unjustly of their freedom." In subsequent legislation Germany went far beyond the responsibilities assumed in the earlier agreements.

More recently, the United States government designated an American Jewish organization to negotiate with East Germany on restitutions. The United States has informed the German Democratic Republic that a refusal to acknowledge the necessity of restitutions would delay the establishment of diplomatic relations.

The mass expulsion and incarceration of American citizens without trial did happen here in the United States. As the professed leader in civil and human rights throughout the world, the United States must take meaningful action to correct its own mistakes too.

Redress for the injustices of 1942-1946 is not just an isolated Japanese American issue; it is an issue of concern for all Americans. Restitution does not put a price tag on freedom or justice. The issue is not to recover what cannot be recovered. The issue is to obtain proper redress for the victims of injustice, and thereby make such injustices less likely to recur in the future.

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MASS DETENTION CAMPS FOR
JAPANESE AMERICANS, 1942-46.

<u>Name</u>	<u>Location</u>	<u>Capacity</u>
1. Central Utah (Topaz) Utah	Millard County Northwest of Delta	8,130
2. Colorado River (Poston) Arizona	Colorado River Indian Reservation South of Parker	17,814
3. Gila River (Rivers) Arizona	Gila River Indian Reservation West of Sacaton	13,348
4. Granada (Amache) Colorado	Prowers County Between Koen and Granaada	7,318
5. Heart Mountain Wyoming	Park County Between Cody and Ralston	10,767
6. Jerome (Denson) Arkansas	Chicot and Drew Counties Between Hudspeth and Jerome	8,497
7. Manzanar California	Inyo County Between Independence and Lone Pine	10,046
8. Minidoka (Hunt) Idaho	Jerome County North of Eden	9,397
9. Rohwer Arkansas	Desha County Between Kelso and Rohwer	8,475
10. Tule Lake (Newell) California	Modoc County Between Stronghold and Newell	18,789

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