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House of Representatives

TRIBUTES TO THE JAPANESE AMERICAN CONTRIBUTIONS TO THE UNITED STATES

JAPANESE-AMERICAN 22D BIENNIAL CONVENTION

The SPEAKER pro tempore. Under previous order of the House, the gentleman from Hawaii (Mr. MATSUNAGA) is recognized for 60 minutes.

SPEECH
OF

HON. SPARK M. MATSUNAGA

OF HAWAII

(Mr. MATSUNAGA asked and was given permission to revise and extend his remarks.)

Mr. MATSUNAGA. Mr. Speaker, "For better Americans in a greater America"—that is the refreshing motto of the Japanese American Citizens League, a national civic organization with over 100 chapters in 32 States, now holding its 22d biennial convention here in Washington, D.C.

The JACL, as it is better known, staged a banquet in honor of the Members of Congress last night at the Shoreham Hotel. Despite the late hour at which the House adjourned, a considerable number of the Members of the House were in attendance to break bread with their Japanese-American constituents. Today, the approximately 600 delegates to the convention are spending their time on Capitol Hill to meet with their Senators and Congressmen and to tour the historic Capitol, the Supreme Court, and the Library of Congress.

Mr. Speaker, the story of the Japanese American is an inspiring one and one which should be told and retold. It is for this reason that I have reserved this hour, along with another 2 hours reserved by my good friends, the distinguished gentlemen from California (Mr. HOLIFIELD and Mr. MILLER) to pay tribute to our Americans of Japanese ancestry.

Although Japanese-Americans constitute only a minute part of our Nation's population—fewer than 600,000—their story is an important one, consisting in large part of adversity, challenge and, eventually, a degree of success and triumph. The implications, however, reach far beyond one ethnic group, particularly today, when America faces grave problems involving the denial of full equality and justice to large segments of our population.

Just 3 years ago, the centennial celebration of Japanese immigration to the United States was observed. Perhaps, no other immigrant group encountered higher walls of discrimination and prejudice than did the Japanese—the denial of the right to citizenship, denial of the right to own land or enter certain professions, and eventually complete exclusion. No other ethnic group experienced the dramatic and emotional crisis of being uprooted from their homes and herded into American concentration camps, complete with barbed wire fences and armed guards. Few have shown greater loyalty to the United States or greater willingness to make sacrifices for their country on the battlefield or at home.

As the late Barratt O'Hara, when a Member of this House, put it in a floor speech in 1963:

> I do not know of any group in the history of our country who has suffered so much without justification and has come out of it to make such a great contribution with never a scar of resentment or faltering their love of and loyalty to country.

Although 1869 has been generally regarded as the date when the first Japanese immigrants arrived on the mainland United States, the first organized group of immigrants arrived in Hawaii, then a kingdom, on June 19, 1868. They had been recruited to labor on Hawaii's sugar plantations.

Shortly thereafter, due partly to the slavery-like treatment these first laborers received on the plantations, Japan forbade emigrant workers from going to Hawaii. But Hawaii's need for farm labor grew enormously following the U.S. agreement to permit Hawaiian sugar to enter the mainland United States duty-free. This was at the same time that the native Hawaiian population, afflicted with various diseases brought by Captain Cook and his crew in the late 18th century, was actually shrinking.

To save Hawaii's sugar industry, King Kalakaua journeyed to Japan in 1881 to seek an agreement with the Japanese Government to permit Japanese laborers to migrate to Hawaii to work on the sugar plantations. He was successful, and thousands of Japanese migrated to the islands before the turn of the century. Most of them, however, considered their stay in Hawaii as temporary, and fully intended to return to Japan as soon as their contract with the plantation company was fulfilled, normally 3 years. They came as "contract laborers," and the contracts were harsh ones indeed. The Hawaiian planters provided free but inadequate housing and paid their new employees as little as $9 a month, and imposed on them restrictions touching every facet of their lives.

In 1900, when Hawaii was annexed to the United States, the "contract labor" practice ended, and the Japanese began to make their way up the economic and social ladder in Hawaii.

The "Issei," or first generation immigrants, however, never realized their dream of amassing a fortune in Hawaii and returning to a life of ease in Japan. They were forced to remain in Hawaii with no fortune in sight. Their struggles, industry, and perseverance gained for them the respect of their employers, but unlike other immigrants before them, they were denied the right to become American citizens and denied the right to own any part of the land which they tilled.

Undaunted by discriminatory laws passed against them at both the Federal and State levels, the Issei abandoned their earlier goal and built a dream of hope not for themselves, but for their children—the Nissei. No sacrifice was too great. They were determined that by the sweat of their brow every Nissei child was going to have the highest possible education for a life of decency and dignity in America. This became the Issei's life goal—to prepare their children for a life they themselves were denied.

I am the son of one of those immigrant plantation workers—and I have benefited from the hardships endured by the first generation of Japanese in America.

By and large, the Isseis were successful in attaining this one goal. Until a few years ago, statistics showed that Americans of Japanese ancestry constituted the highest educated of all identifiable minority groups in the United States. Although the Nissei were themselves subjected to acts of discrimination —such as being denied certain types of

employment, both in the public and private sectors—things were beginning to improve. One early success was Kikutaro Matsumoto, who arrived in Hawaii in 1891 at the age of 24. Starting as a laborer in a fertilizer plant, he later became a building contractor and is cited as the first Japanese American millionaire.

As the son of one of these immigrant plantation workers—and one who has benefited from the hardships endured by the first generation of Japanese in America—I am convinced that American Democracy—an idea dedicated to the freedom and dignity of the individual, regardless of race, color, or creed—can be made to work. It is this commitment to a dynamic, progressive democracy that I would most like to transmit to other Americans of minority groups, particularly the younger generation.

As a child in school, I was taught that under our American system of government all men are created equal, endowed with certain inalienable rights, that among these are life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. I was taught that as an American, regardless of race, color, or national origin, I could aspire to the highest office in the land. This I believed as a child, and of its truth I am convinced as a man.

My belief, however, was not without severe testing during the period shortly after December 7, 1941. I had already volunteered for military service and was serving in the Hawaii National Guard which had been federalized. When the invasion of Hawaii was believed to be imminent, all Americans in uniform, regardless of race, stood side by side in beach dugouts and trenches, fully prepared to repel the enemy.

After the battle of Midway was won, however, and invasion of the Hawaiian Islands by the military forces of Japan became a remote matter, our fellow Americans suddenly turned to us of Japanese ancestry and looked at us with a suspicious eye, almost as if to say "Why, he's a Jap."

Shortly thereafter, in June 1942, all of us of Japanese ancestry who were in American uniform were ordered to turn in our weapons. Then, without even a chance to say goodbye to our loved ones, we found ourselves on board a troopship sailing for the mainland. Speculation was rife that we were headed for a concentration camp.

When we arrived at our final destination, after more than a week of travel by ship and train, one of the first things that we saw was a barbed wire enclosure. You can imagine our feelings. The pessimists were right—we were headed for imprisonment in a concentration camp.

We then learned that our destination was Camp McCoy, Wis. The barbed wire fences, we subsequently discovered, enclosed the two Japanese prisoners of war captured in the two-man submarine off Waimanalo Beach, Hawaii on December 7, 1941, We were not placed behind the fences with them, but speculation again arose as to what was in store for us. Since our unit was called a "provisional battalion," we speculated that we were to be a battalion of forced laborers. Nevertheless, we wrote home of our great desire to prove our loyalty to the United States. We learned later that our letters had been censored and, because of their tenor, the War Department decided to give us an opportunity to prove our loyalty.

It was with this spirit that the men of the 442d Regimental Combat Team and the 100th Infantry Battalion, of which I was a member, fought and died in World War II and carved for themselves an unforgettable place in American history. When peace was won, they had amassed for themselves among other awards, seven Presidential Unit Citations, a Congressional Medal of Honor, 52 Distinguished Service Crosses, 560 Silver Star Medals, more than 4,000 Bronze Star Medals with more than 12,000 Oak Leaf Clusters. Gen. Mark Clark described them as the "most fightingest and most highly decorated unit in the entire military history of the United States."

But the hardships of Japanese Americans did not end with the activation of the 442d Regimental Combat Team. While we were fighting and dying in Europe to save American democracy, 110,000 Americans of Japanese ancestry—some of them parents of members of our unit—were being evacuated from their homes on the west coast and thrown into so-called "relocation camps," which in essence were concentration camps, complete with barbed wire fences and armed guards. If ever any group of Americans had been driven to a point of despair and rebellion, it was the Japanese Americans during World War II. They would have been fully justified in the eyes of the world had they turned against the country they called their own.

But they did not! Why? Because even in the height of adversity, they had faith in this thing we call American democracy.

That our faith was not misplaced is abundantly in evidence today, for Americans of Asian ancestry enjoy a much better life than they ever did before World War II. Primarily through the untiring efforts of the Japanese American Citizens League, and its amazing legislative representative, Mike Masaoka, some 500 National, State, and local laws which were once directed against Asian Americans have been removed from the statute books, the Oriental Exclusion Act of 1924 has been repealed, and an act to permit the naturalization of immigrants from Asian nations was passed by Congress in 1953. Only last year this Congress repealed the abhorrent Emergency Detention Act of 1950, which stood as a grim reminder of the deplorable experience of World War II.

One of the most striking examples of the Nisei advancement can be seen in Hawaii governmental officials. As my colleagues well know, three of Hawaii's four Members of Congress are of Japanese ancestry—my distinguished colleague in the House, Mrs. MINK, Senator DAN INOUYE, in the other body, and myself. Of the 75 members of the Hawaii legislature's two Houses, more than half are Americans of Japanese ancestry, including the Speaker of the House, Tadao Beppu. About half of the heads of State government departments are Japanese Americans, as is the Lieutenant Governor, George Ariyoshi. Shunichi Kimura is mayor of the county of Hawaii. The most remarkable little known aspect of the rise in political success among the Niseis in Hawaii is that the Japanese Americans constitute only 27 percent of its population. And then, of course, there is the well publicized story of Norman Mineta, Mayor of San Jose. Dr. Edwin O. Reischauer, of Harvard University, has aptly referred to the success story of the Japanese Americans as "A Horatio Alger tale on an ethnic scale."

The Japanese American Citizens League helped to write much of this great American success story, and I take this opportunity to pay tribute to its members and to all Americans of Japanese ancestry.

HON. GEORGE P. MILLER
OF CALIFORNIA

Mr. MILLER of California. Mr. Speaker, as my distinguished colleague from Hawaii, SPARK MATSUNAGA, has remarked, we have requested these special orders this afternoon in order to pay tribute to the many and great contributions of the Japanese to the development of America.

As many of you know, I have known the Japanese and worked among them for many years and have the greatest respect and admiration for them as individuals and as a nationality group. And I am proud to have been able to cooperate with the JACL ever since I came to Congress in 1945 in securing legislation which would, in a small way, make up for the many discriminations and prejudices which they suffered over the years.

As the gentleman from Hawaii has stated, the first immigrants from Japan were to Hawaii. Thereafter, they moved eastward through the Golden Gate and on to the continental mainland of the United States.

This afternoon, my remarks will have to do with the early history of the Japanese in northern California, since this is the area in which they first settled in any numbers.

In the first year of the Meiji Restoration, 1868, 153 Japanese arrived in Hawaii as laborers, the first group to emigrate out of Japan after 300 years of the nation's self-imposed isolation. Then for 17 more years, there were no further immigrants from Japan.

In 1869, John Henry Schnell brought some 20 Japanese political refugees from Aizu Wakamatsu to El Dorado County. In Gold Hill, Schnell purchased 600 acres to farm mulberry bushes for silk worms, bamboo shoots for food and craft, tea, grapes and other plants from Japan. Many of the colonists died of fever epidemics, and the colony folded in 1870 due to lack of capital. Some colonists stayed, but most returned to Japan.

A 19-year-old girl named Okei, who came as a nursemaid for the Schnells—he was said to have married a Japanese woman and had a child—died in 1870 and was buried at Coloma. The site of the Wakamatsu Colony was declared a State Historical Site in 1969.

Among other early Japanese in the United States is one Umekichi Takahashi, whose grave is found in a Reno, Nev., cemetery. The grave was discovered in 1961, and information on it says he arrived in the United States in 1868 and died October 8, 1907, at the age of 61. The grave marker also stated that he was considered the first Japanese to have landed in the United States. No other information is available on Takahashi.

Both the Japanese Embassy in Washington, D.C., and the Japanese consulate in San Francisco were set up in 1870. An

1873 report by Vice Consul Saburo Takagi puts the Japanese population in California at 68 males, eight females, and four children. They were mostly servants in Caucasian homes. Pay for those with experience was about $15 a month. Schoolboys were paid room and board and a small amount of spending money.

To help provide a social outlet, help the young men learn English and exert wholesome influence on them, the Fukuin Kai, a Christian evangelical association was formed in San Francisco in 1879, the first Japanese organization in the United States. From about 1875 on, students looked forward to getting together every Sunday at the Powell Street Union Church under the leadership of a Reverend Gibson, who was superintendent of the Chinese Mission in San Francisco. The Fukuin Kai later operated a hostel and looked after the newcomers, finding jobs for them, and so on, until the 1906 earthquake.

Japanese who arrived between 1882 and 1890 generally stayed long years in the United States and built the foundation for the Japanese communities to come. They were young men, full of ambition to succeed, who were attracted by the extraordinary growth of California. They were to concenrate their efforts in agriculture.

The 1890 census put the number of Japanese in the United States at 2,039 mainly in San Francisco, with other growing centers in Portland, Tacoma, and Seattle.

Since passports were not required of sailors in those days, many jumped ship in groups of five and 10, mainly at New York and Philadelphia in the East and at San Francisco and Portland in the West. Prostitutes began to follow about 1886.

To combat the unhealthy influence of the latter, many Christian congregations were established around that time. The San Francisco Presbyterian Church was established in 1885, followed by the San Francisco Methodist Church in 1886, the Oakland Methodist Church in 1887, the Fresno Methodist Church in 1887, and the San Jose Methodist Church in 1892.

Rather unusual was a group of about 40 Japanese craftsmen who toured the United States in 1884 under the aegis of a British art store owner. The men elected to stay here and went into the foodstore, bookstore, billard parlor, and restaurant businesses in San Francisco, Pasadena, and Los Angeles.

From 1892 on, an increasing number of Japanese came to the United States from Hawaii. An immigration treaty had been signed by Hawaii and Japan in 1884 to provide labor to the sugar industry after the Chinese Exclusion Act was passed the year before.

The first group of 956 workers, recruited mainly from the prefectures of Hiroshima, Yamaguchi, Kumamoto, and Niigata, came to Hawaii in 1885. In a few years, they were sending 2 million yen back to Japan annually.

Between 1893 and 1900, immigration contracting companies sent 40,208 workers to Hawaii. The process came to a halt when Hawaii became a territory of the United States. The bubonic plague epidemic which swept through Hawaii at the time also alarmed both the Japanese Government and the United States.

Labor shortages soon persuaded Hawaii to ask for more Japanese immigrants, who were sent 60 at a time in 1901. From 1901 to 1905, 36,493 Japanese emigrated to Hawaii. From 1906, 1,000 a month were allowed to leave Japan. From 1902 on, many of them reemigrated to the U.S. mainland.

Businesses in the United States welcomed Japanese labor, but the increasing numbers met the opposition of native workers. In 1907, the sugar industry lobbied actively to engineer the passage of a law forbiding the Japanese to reemigrate to the U.S. mainland from Hawaii or the Philippines.

The rapid increase in the Japanese population is shown by the following U.S. census figures:

1880, 148; 1890, 2,039; 1900, 34,326; and 1910, 72,157.

Of the total in 1900, 10,151 were living in California. By 1908, there were over 100,000, distributed in almost every State of the Union. The period between 1900 and 1924 may be labeled the golden era of Japanese immigration to the United States.

Many of the immigrants were single young men who came to make their fortune. As they grew older and better established, they wanted families. The more affluent ones went back to Japan for their brides, but a larger number resorted to proxy marriages by photographs. Picture brides did not fit with American customs and mores and provided fodder for much anti-Japanese propaganda, but family responsibilities resulting from these marriages were credited with toning down the earlier wild aspects of young, headstrong male immigrants. The peak year for picture brides was 1915 when a total of 973 young women entered San Francisco and Seattle to meet their future husbands. After March 1920, the Japanese Government declined to issue passports to picture brides.

The immigrants became established in a variety of industries—agriculture, commerce and fishing, to name the main areas of their endeavor.

In agriculture, the earliest instance was the Wakamatsu Tea and Silk Colony mentioned earlier.

In 1875, Kane Nagasawa, a samurai from the Satsuma Clan, arrived in the United States as a student and decided to stay. He came to Santa Rosa and bought 400 acres of vineyard which he later successfully expanded to 2,000 acres. He built a 500,000 gallon-capacity winery and demonstrated the Japanese ability with growing things.

However, he is only one example of an early pioneer. Japanese did not really begin to participate in California agriculture in large numbers until some 20 years later. Once begun, however, their progress between 1895 and 1920 was phenomenal, producing crops worth $40 million annually. In the bonanza years immediately after World War I, that figure even went up to $100 million.

Many reasons can be advanced for their amazing progress. Mainly, the Japanese have always placed great value on argiculture. They had long experience, and their skill, combined with rich American soil, produced the results. The majority of immigrants were from farming families in Japan, and they naturally gravitated to the land. Agriculture became the Japanese American's largest and most productive industry, and through it, they contributed greatly to the development of the West Coast in the United States.

From about 1888 on, agriculture in California changed from grain cultivation to fruit cultivation. The Chinese Exclusion Act created a labor shortage which white workers were reluctant to fill, their trend being toward the industrialized cities. They did not have the background of careful, precise farming methods so necessary for growing fruits and vegetables.

The main agricultural product of California were fruits, which required hand labor and dexterity from planting to harvest. Since the product was highly perishable, it required quick harvesting, and in quickness, the Japanese even surpassed the Chinese.

Once farmers employed Japanese workers and noted their industry, faithfulness and ambition to improve farming methods, they vied with one another to make them their tenants. Thus passed the first period in which the Japanese worker familiarized himself with the land, learned farming techniques which were suited to the land and the crops, received training and saved his earnings.

Gaining the trust of landowners and land brokers, he progressed to percentage farming in which the harvest was divided between the owner and tenant in accordance with a previously agreed upon percentage. It was a safe method for the tenant because of the small margin of profit or loss. For many landowners, having Japanese tenants was more profitable than cultivating the land themselves.

As independent farming became more prevalent among the Japanese, their financial strength increased and led to outright cash leasing of the farm. This required quite a bit of capital, but with the excellent trust and confidence enjoyed by the Japanese among landlords, they were offered many convenient ways to make up the capital. To lease to the Japanese meant that the value of the farm would eventually increase for the landlord, and brokers, being practically guaranteed handsome profits from superior crops at harvest time, were willing to extend generous credit.

The next step was the dream of all farmers—owning one's own acres. In the early days, it was fairly easy to buy land. Down payment required was one-tenth to one-fourth, with 8 to 10 years to pay off the mortgage. Since payment could be made with crops, it was as easy to own land as to lease it. By 1903, many were able to reach this status. By 1909, Japanese owned 20,000 acres of land in California.

However, the alien land law prohibiting Japanese ownership of land was passed in 1913, culminating over a decade of anti-Japanese agitation by labor unions, politicians and professional patriots. In 1920, even percentage and leased farming were prohibited by a statewide vote on an initiative measure.

The area in which there is the oldest record of Japanese in farming is in Vacaville, Solano County. In 1887, a group of Japanese laborers arrived there with two Englishmen to experiment with growing Japanese Unshu oranges. In 1889, 60 Japanese laborers were there for the harvest. They were paid $1 a day, 90 cents in the winter. The number increased to 300 the next summer and continued to increase until in the summer of 1896, there were

900 to 1,000 workers. Even during the winter, at least 300 stayed on, and gradually the number of permanent residents increased.

In 1894, a railroad workers' strike brought disgruntled white workers to California from the east. They resented the presence of the Japanese and attacked the labor camps in Vacaville until repulsed by vigilantes.

A glance at the Vacaville agricultural picture from 1900 to 1906 shows the following increases in acreage:

Cherry, 7 to 72 acres.
Peaches, 80 to 597 acres.
Grapes, 20 to 187 acres.
Apricots, 50 to 743 acres.
Pears, 10 to 98 acres.
Plums, 95 to 711 acres.
Vegetables, 30 to 131 acres.
Hay, 58 to 0 acres (decrease).
Flowerless fruits, 0 to 9 acres.
Total, 350 to 2,538 acres.

Japanese tenant farmers increased from 45 to 351 in 1905, while white farmers decreased from 1,420 to 1,322 in the same period.

In 1881, the Spreckles Co. put up a sugar refinery in Watsonville and encouraged widespread cultivation of sugar beets in Pajaro Valley. A sudden rise in production enabled the company to increase its productive capacity to 650 tons 4 years later.

In May 1893, Japanese came to work in the sugar beet farms. At that time, sugar beet acreage in the Salinas Valley was only about 50 acres. In 1896, more Japanese contracted to farm sugar beets. A total of 130 workers were employed on about 600 acres by that time. Contract price for sugar beets was then $1.25 a ton.

In later years, Watsonville became famous for strawberries, but its history goes back many years. Strawberries were first sent to the San Francisco produce market from Watsonville in 1880, with a price of from $11 to $20 a crate. At that time, only 14 acres were under cultivation. With the assurance of profits, the acreage increased to 272 in 1893, about the time that Japanese first began taking a hand in its cultivation. By 1895, there were many improvements in irrigation methods. Coupled with technical knowhow, it helped double the strawberry crop.

The San Jose area, with its good climate and good soil, early attracted Japanese farmers, although the earliest Japanese worked at the Dixon Cannery on Fifth Street in 1890. Three others leased land and went into the nursery business, one of the earliest instances of Japanese leasing land.

By 1891, there were 100 Japanese workers, which increased to 300 by 1892 and hit 500 in 1893. A noted fruit rancher name Hume first hired Japanese in 1893 and sang such high praises of them that in 1894, there were upwards of 1,000 workers. In 1895, there were 2,300, surpassing the earlier arrivals, the Chinese. This area saw may early Japanese farmers in fruits, strawberry, vegetable and seed farming.

Japanese involvement in agriculture in Alameda County took the form of floriculture, rather than the more conventional forms of farming. It began in Oakland in 1887 with Hiroshi Yoshiike and Kentaro Domoto, the latter quickly succeeding in the business to purchase four acres in Melrose.

In other areas of agriculture, it was not until 1897 that the Japanese really came into the picture. Main products of the area were sugar beets, cucumber, tomatoes, green peas, green onions and asparagus, with apricots and plums among the fruits.

With an increasing number of contract farmers, the price of food products declined too much for profit. Since Alameda County was near the big city of San Francisco, with good climate and good soil, land prices as well as rents were high. In addition, the earlier-arriving Portuguese had flourished in the same area, and Japanese progress was more difficult.

The land was especially suited to cucumbers and tomatoes, and soon Japanese farmers were farming them in Mount Eden, San Leandro, San Lorenzo, Hayward, Alvarado, Centerville, Newmark, et cetera.

This, then, is part of the early history of the Japanese in northern California, and especially in the Bay Area. And from this small beginning, the Japanese were able to become, by the time of the outbreak of World War II, among the biggest and most prosperous farmers and horticulturists in the State and the Nation. Even today, when like so many others from rural regions there is an accelerated movement to the city, Japanese Americans are the leaders in the agricultural and horticultural industries of the State.

HON. PHILLIP BURTON
OF CALIFORNIA

Mr. BURTON. Mr. Speaker, I commend my distinguished colleague, the gentleman from Hawaii, for giving us the opportunity to join in this special order. I am delighted to join with him in extending congratulations and best wishes to the Japanese American Citizens League on the occasion of their 22d Biennial National Convention.

The JACL has been a positive force in the community I am privileged to represent, San Francisco, and it has been an equally positive force in our Nation and has contributed greatly to the struggle to achieve social, racial and economic justice for all peoples.

Mr. Speaker, for the early immigrants from Japan, the Port of San Francisco was the gateway to the United States. Just as for the immigrants from Europe, America was the land of opportunity for some, of freedom for others, and of haven for still others.

The Japanese have always been known for their love of nature, and of beauty—in flowers, in trees, in landscapes, etc. And, the first immigrants from Japan brought with them this love of beauty—and their contributions to horticulture in California and elswhere have brought beauty to the homes of many who otherwise might never have known flowers and blossoms.

So, another industry in which Japanese had a major impact in California is the floriculture and nursery industry. Their history traces back to 1886, when Yoshiike and the Domoto brothers began growing chrysanthemums and other flowers in the Oakland area.

The Domoto brothers were pioneers in the plant nursery business. Yonoshin and Kentaro arrived in the United States in 1884 and the next year began to grow plants and flowers—mainly mums and carnations—on an empty lot they leased in Oakland. They later imported camellias, wisteria, spearflowers, and azaleas, and at one time had practically a monopoly on lily bulbs from Japan. In 1887, Motonoshin came, and in 1890, Konoshin. They prospered and purchased 2 acres of land in 1980. By 1904, they had about 40 acres in flowers and sold them not only all over the United States, but in Europe as well.

In those preautomobile days, Kentaro drove his horse and wagon to the front of a flower shop on Sutter Street near Grant Avenue to sell his wares. Gradually other florists gathered in the area and a flower market blossomed on the streets of San Francisco. It was the beginning of the wholesale flower market in that city.

It took an extraordinary effort on the part of the flower growers to overcome problems of management, financing and distribution to establish their businesses. With no connections yet established in the beginning with wholesalers, they went around to each retail outlet, carrying their flowers in the same willow baskets in which they had brought their few belongings when they emigrated from Japan.

Just when things were beginning to go smoothly for them, anti-Japanese agitation was beginning in San Francisco. By 1900, flower growers were made aware that their progress was being watched with fear and envy by their non-Japanese competitors.

The earthquake of 1906 was thought to deal a heavy blow to the flower industry, since flowers were considered a luxury; however, the opposite was true. Flowers were in great demand for visiting the sick and injured and for funerals.

In 1900, the city prohibited the selling of flowers on the street. By then, the need for an association to maintain steady market prices led to the formation of the California Flower Growers' Asociation in 1906.

Discrimination made it extremely difficult to buy a wholesale market place. A building was leased in an alley between Montgomery and Kearney Streets. It was later moved to larger quarters in the basement of a building on Bush Street. Japanese flower growers shared the same building in competition with Chinese and white growers. As the Japanese prospered, the whites went to the owners and urged them to refuse to lease to the Japanese. They told the Japanese that the additional room they needed was already leased by them and demanded that they leave.

The Japanese moved one block away to what was formerly the California theater and opened their market there. Soon the majority of retailers were going to the Japanese market, which was an undisputable indication of the capability of the Japanese flower growers. Later, both markets got together and in 1922 established the wholesale market at Fifth and Howard Streets.

Flowers were first shipped to the east in 1914 when 15 growers established a cooperative to ship some chrysanthemums. An eastern market for carnations was established Chicago in 1927 by Torayoshi Maeda.

The Chrysanthemum Growers' Association was formally organized in 1928, after low market prices resulted in 1927 from overproduction. With headquarters in Redwood City, the association had members from San Mateo, Belmont, San

Carlos, Redwood, Menlo Park, Palo Alto and Mount View. By 1939, it had 56 members, who had 90 acres under cultivation with an annual volume of $300,000. By 1940, the association owned a building worth $2,500, a car worth $900 and capital funds of $15,000.

By 1923, 50 shareholders owned 204 shares worth $5,100 each in the San Francisco wholesale flower market.

The real capability of the flower growers in northern California can be noted from the fact that in 1940, about 140 firms were represented in the flower market, with a total annual volume worth $2,110,000. Total greenhouse area covered some 3,500,000 square feet, and the outdoor area covered some 150 acres. About 1,300 workers were permanently employed in the industry, and more than 100 varieties of flowers were grown, particularly chrysanthemums, roses, and carnations.

Unlike agriculture which never attained its postwar status again among the Japanese, the flower growers have prospered even more in the postwar years under second generation management.

In prewar years, fishing was an industry second only to farming in the number of Japanese participating in it. They ranged north to Alaska and south to Mexico and South America.

The early history goes back to 1892 when five or six Japanese were hired in Monterey to catch squids. In 1900, eight independent Japanese fishermen went into salmon fishing. With the establishment of a cannery in Monterey, the fishing industry saw rapid growth.

By 1910, 145 Japanese fishermen were engaged in catching not only salmon but yellowtail, sea bass, smelt, rock cod, sardines and barracuda. They owned about seven medium-sized, gasoline-powered boats and 140 skiffs, sharing an annual income of about $100,000. At one time, Japanese fishermen had a monopoly in Monterey Bay.

Earlier, at Point Lobos, Carmel, Japanese were engaged in gathering abalones from about 1895. One pioneer, Gennosuke Kodani, fought anti-Japanese laws limiting abalone catches by hiring a lawyer to gather signatures for petitions, inviting legislators and newspaper reporters on seagoing picnics to demonstrate the non-injurious nature of abalone collection and even got a Columbia University scholar to testify on the ecological benefits of abalone fishing.

By 1914, Japanese fishermen in Monterey numbered 160 and they owned 65 5-horsepower gasoline boats and 325 ordinary fishing boats. From 1925 to 1926 was the golden age of Monterey fishing, with an annual catch worth $3 million. Japanese fishermen accounted for $100,000 in sardines, $100,000 in miscellaneous fishes and $168,000 in abalone.

As the fishermen aged and there were no more immigrants to take their place, Japanese fishing in Monterey began to show a decline, and by 1940, their annual income was down to between $250,000 and $300,000.

Sardines had always been plentiful off the coast of San Francisco, but uncertain weather kept the smaller crafts fishing on a small scale. In 1930, Katsusuke Hamachi of Monterey began net fishing from larger boats and opened a new field in northern California fishing. Other Japanese, Italian fishermen and others followed Hamachi. By 1940, their annual catch was never less than 25,000 tons. Most of it was shipped out as solid oil and fertilizer. Of the 50 to 60 boats in the San Francisco fishing fleet, 10 were Japanese owned. A total of 1,500 Japanese fishermen were based in San Francisco.

Aside from agriculture, floriculture and fishing, Japanese were engaged in smaller numbers in other industries. Among the more notable of these is poultry farming, which flourished particularly in the Petaluma area. Including other areas on the west coast and Rocky Mountain areas where Japanese were engaged in poultry farming, they owned altogether 3,700,000 chickens with an anual production worth close to $900,000 before the war. With the auxiliary development of the chick sexing industry by the Nisei, it holds an important place in the contribution of the Japanese to the economy of California.

The industry was first established in northern California by Aiyu Matsuzaki, who purchased 21 acres in Petaluma in 1900 to go into the business. Others followed and prospered, aided by research at the University of California and help from the Farm Bureau. The large demand during World War I when eggs sold for $1 a dozen gave a solid basis to the industry in Petaluma.

A 1940 survey there showed 30 families engaged in poultry farming. The majority owned their land, 304 acres in all. During the same period, Japanese poultry farmers owned 2,560,000 chickens, an average of 8,800 chickens to a family. The largest of them had 30,000 chickens. They produced about 30,730,000 eggs a year, and at 20 cents a dozen wholesale, their annual production was worth $614,000.

The outstanding characteristics of Japanese poultry farmers was that they produced two to three times more eggs than other farmers, they hatched more chickens and more of them lived—90 percent or more—they worked longer hours and every member of the family participated.

Hard hit by World War II evacuation, as were Japanese everywhere on the west coast, the Japanese poultry farmers are once more back on their feet and flourishing.

As in other areas of California, Japanese who were not engaged in farming, floriculture or fishing and their related industries generally clustered in little Japanese towns in urban areas, engaged in providing goods and services to one another.

Among the earliest San Francisco pioneers is Tsurukichi Tanaka, who arrived in 1867. His family was a "hatamoto," direct retainers of the Tokugawa shogun. Tanaka worked as a house boy for the president of a shoe company. He returned to Japan after learning the process of making salt by solar evaporation, but failed in the business there. He came back to the United States in 1887 to organize a colony, but separated from his partners and thereafter worked 30-odd years as an assistant accountant for the Orpheum Theater, avoiding contact with other Japanese. He died in 1925 at the age of 71.

Another early arrival was Chuemon Akabane, who came to San Francisco in 1874 with a tire pump salesman whom he met in Yokohama. He worked as a houseboy and later opened a restaurant about 1883. It was a combination restaurant-hotel, catering to sailors on Stockton Street. He died at the age of 79, after living 48 years in the United States.

In 1887, a group of Japanese tried to establish a pioneer colony in the Valley Springs area of Calaveras County, but lost title to the 20 acres they purchased. One man from the colony, Matsunosuke Tsukamoto, went into the laundry business in San Jose, prospered, expanded to San Francisco and lived to the ripe old age of 100.

The first Japanese art goods store was established on Sixth Street in San Francisco in 1886. By 1904, the San Francisco Art Goods Association had 50 members. In addition to art goods, these stores, later located primarily on Grant Avenue, sold dry goods, chinaware, handicraft, toys, kimono, and even some furniture. Their annual business ranged from $20,000 to $100,000, depending on their size.

A unique enterprise was the Japanese tea house built in Golden Gate Park in 1893 by Makoto Hagiwara. The family operated it until World War II.

Goldfishes were first imported by Ginnosuke Mori in 1890. By 1911, Ko Murata's goldfish farm in San Francisco was doing a $200,000 a year business.

Importing, breeding, and training pet birds was another business in which a few Japanese excelled. An Ekita Yasui formed the Japanese American Roller Canary Club in San Francisco in 1919. His birds cost from $50 to $100 each. Later, Tazo Ishida formed the St. Francis Roller Canary Club in San Francisco, which worked to improve the quality of the birds through annual competitions.

These were businesses aimed mainly toward non-Japanese customers.

Those aimed toward Japanese customers included Japanese food stores, which by 1940 numbered 500 in California; kimono and dry goods stores, 200 in 1940; jewelry and watch stores, 52; book stores, 30; agricultural supplies, 45. By 1940, there were more than 150 business associations with Japanese membership in the United States. The largest was the San Francisco Chamber of Commerce, which by 1940 had a 25-year-old history and 300 members.

The laundry business pioneered by Tsukamoto in San Jose and an Enomoto in Tiburon across from San Francisco in 1890 grew so rapidly that by 1907, anti-Japanese agitation began with a vengeance. Tsukamoto was arrested and jailed more than 20 times, but customers continued to increase for the Japanese, whose skill and trustworthiness overcame discrimination. By 1913, there were 211 Japanese laundry businesses with 312 owners and 1,675 workers employed by them. Among the pioneers are many who became quite well-to-do.

It was natural for many Japanese to go into the hotel business to provide the temporary first stopping-off place for new immigrants. The first was established at 505 O'Farrell Street in San Francisco in 1885 by Hiko Wada, who had a hotel in Yokohama. By 1899, Masakichi Suzuki was operating a 41-room, brick-built hotel on Stockton Street which was considered the largest at that time.

Many catered to a white clientele, and by 1940, there were 180 in Seattle, 210 within the area served by the San Francisco consulate and 220 in the Los Angeles region.

The cleaning and dyeing business also

had enough Japanese in it to form an association in San Francisco in 1909. In 1915, there were 123 Japanese cleaning and dyeing firms in California. The number increased to 580 in 1940.

Barbershops were another service that practically every community with a sizable Oriental population supported. In 1940, more than 500 Japanese barbershops were counted in the United States.

Another occupation which followed the rise and fall of Japanese immigration was tailoring. Hannosuke Sawada was the first to open a tailoring shop, located on Mission and Seventh in San Francisco in 1891. In 1905, there were over 50 tailors busy fitting the shorter-statured Japanese with new western-style suits. The business reached its peak in 1917 at the height of the picture bride immigration when 126 tailors were in the business.

Shoemaking was one of the earliest industries in westernized Japan. Domination by financiers made many skilled workers eager to try their luck outside the country. Tsunetaro Jyo was the first to arrive here in 1888, followed by Chukichi Sekine in 1889. Together they opened a small store at Mission and Third in San Francisco. Introduced to a white shoe manufacturer who recognized their skill, the two called their fellow shoemakers over from Japan the same year. The manufacturer set up a factory of all Japanese workers, which soon caught the wrath of the white shoemakers' union. In 1893, the Japanese set up their own factories in San Francisco and Alameda. Their association eventually grew to have 300 members. Increased mechanization, the post-World War I recession and general anti-Japanese discrimination caused the industry to decline, and the once flourishing association was forced to disband in 1929.

There was scarcely any manufacturing of note by the Japanese, who lacked capital. An exception was the California Mission Furniture Co., which was begun in 1906 just when anti-Japanese agitation was beginning in earnest. In 1911, with an investment of $120,000, a 1½ acre factory was set up in West Berkeley, employing 70 to 80 Japanese. Annual production hit $250,000, but constant harassment by anti-Japanese forces brought about the firm's closure in 1928.

As the early immigrants who came over as laborers saved a little money and began thinking of going into business, financial institutions began to be organized to provide capital. First to be organized by the immigrants was the Nichi Bei Financial Co. in 1899, which formally incorporated as the Nichi Bei Bank under California law in 1903, increasing its assets to $20,000. By 1905, assets were increased to $150,000. In the same year, Nippon Bank, with assets of $100,000 was also established in San Francisco and the Toyo Bank, with assets of $50,000 was formed in Seattle.

Several smaller banks were established in Sacramento and Vacaville, but the 1908–09 recession caused many of them to close.

For smaller financing, the Japanese relied on "tanomoshi," a kind of mutual trust credit union, often affiliated with organizations like the prefectural groups or churches and temples. In the post-World War II era, many Japanese financed their larger purchases like homes and cars through credit unions affiliated with the national JACL, churches and temples, and others. The largest of these is the Southwest Los Angeles Japanese Credit Union with over 5,000 members and assets over $2 million.

San Francisco in many ways may be considered the "home" of JACL. The first of all meetings which brought together several Japanese American clubs in northern California was held before JACL launched a national association in Seattle in 1930. San Francisco was JACL's national headquarters at the time of the outbreak of war, and after being relocated to Salt Lake City, Utah, during the World War II years, it returned to the city by the Golden Gate where it remains today.

JACL is, as many of my colleagues know, the only national organization of Americans of Japanese ancestry in this country. Indeed, it often seeks to protect and promote the welfare of other Asian American minorities. Though like many other old-line organizations, it has its critics and its faults, its record of accomplishment is outstanding and its potential for even greater works in the future seems brighter than for most.

As one who has worked closely with JACL chapters and members I am proud of my association with it and of my friends who are also JACL members.

HON. JEROME R. WALDIE
OF CALIFORNIA

Mr. WALDIE. Mr. Speaker, although I am a relative newcomer to the House when compared to the distinguished gentleman who preceded me, like most native Californians, I am familiar with the history of the Japanese in this country. But I do know that this story is not too well known, if at all, in most sections of the Nation outside the west coast and possibly the intermountain States.

The history of the Japanese in the United States is not an example of democracy at its best. Indeed, at times like during World War II when loyal Japanese Americans were evacuated and placed in concentration camps American-style, it may be among the most shameful chapters. Still, it is an epic that needs to be retold over and over again, for it demonstrates that in our country an immigrant minority, small though it may be in numbers and subject to the cruelest discriminations and prejudices, can overcome such obstacles and gain dignity and opportunity such as the group never knew and enjoyed before.

My contribution to this tribute to the Japanese in America will be to carry on from what Congressman MILLER has told you about this early history.

In the Sacramento Valley, Florin, about 10 miles south of Sacramento, developed into a virtual Japanese farming town. They first arrived at about 1895, and the early strawberry cooperatives were hostile to them, not only refusing them credit but actively discriminating against them. However, a man named Oppenheim recognized their skill in growing strawberries and not only extended credit but helped them in many ways. The Japanese made amazing progress, and Oppenheim prospered accordingly. The Japanese had 400 acres in strawberies by 1899–1900.

Hearing of their progress, the Japanese consul general in San Francisco decided to help organize a cooperative for Japanese strawberry growers. The news brought more Japanese to Florin. By 1901, 1,000 acres were in strawberries. Overproduction lowered their prices by 1904, and many gave up by the end of the year. The acreage dropped to 723 in 1905, balancing supply with demand.

A bitter lesson was learned, and many turned to grapes. The 400 acres devoted to grapes in 1904 increased to 450 acres the next year. The fact that strawberries and grapes do not require much capital and lent themselves readily to contract farming may have helped Japanese progress in the area.

The delta area of the Sacramento River may be called the Vegetable Treasure House. With naturally fertile soil and good water supply, the area attracted many investors who bought land, built levees and drained the land to make ideal farm lands.

Some 50 Japanese laborers were imported to pick hops in the New Hope area about 1889, marking the arrival of the Japanese in the area. From 1891, many of them began tenant farming asparagus on the islands in the Isleton area. Others began growing fruits and vegetables in the Courtland area.

From 1904 to 1905, the total acreage being tenant farmed by the Japanese increased from 17,855 to 20,408, the number of Japanese farmers increased from 356 to 558.

As their skill and trustworthiness became recognized, Japanese farmers showed phenomenal progress. By 1905, eight-tenths of the farms in Walnut Grove were being cultivated by the Japanese. In the Isleton area, four-tenths was Japanese, five-tenths Chinese, and one-tenth white. In 10 years, Japanese-farmed acreage increased to over 20,000 acres.

Placer County, Penryn, Newcastle, and Loomis had Japanese settlers from their earliest days, but tenant farming started about 1905–06. In 1905, cash leased and sharecropped land by Japanese totaled 898 acres in Newcastle, 916 in Penryn and 332 in Loomis. With high food prices, many farmers were able to buy land.

In Marysville, Biggs, and the Chico area, a fairly large number of Japanese farm workers were present by 1904, but there were comparatively few tenant farmers.

In 1904, a farm development company was organized in the Colusa area, which leased 1,200 acres for beans and corn. A few years later, Japanese farmers tried rice farming in the area. Fertile land and a suitable climate made the experiment a huge success, and there were not a few nouveau riche rice farmers in the area around the time of World War I.

In northern California, Japanese farmers demonstrated that rice could be grown on land formerly thought hopeless because of the large amount of inorganic salts in the soil. These wastelands were suddenly turned into golden fields of waving grain, a historic contribution to the development of agriculture in California.

The Stockton River delta is another famous farming area. Many islands scattered in the San Joaquin River make up the delta. The Japanese first arrived there in 1895. In those days, the whole area was a vast, watery swamp, with cattails growing wild all over. It seemed to have no value as farmland.

Later a solid levee was built and resulted in the appearance of islands from several hundred to several thousand

acres wide, and the swampland made a complete change into some of the richest farmlands in California. Among the pioneers in developing the area were men like Kinya Ushijima and Manki Matsumoto, who made great contributions in opening up the area.

Developed by the Japanese, the Stockton Delta was first farmed by sharecropping. Around 1901, 45,000 acres were under cultivation. The main crops were potatoes, onions and beans. Most of the Japanese were settled on such islands as Sargent, Canal, Bradford, Byron Victoria, and so forth.

With the passage of the Alien Land Law in 1913, the Delta Land Corporation, which until then had cordial relations with the Japanese, let them go all at once. An attempt was made to replace them with white workers, but it failed because of the inconvenient location of the farms and lack of health services and utilities there.

Forced out of the Delta area, the Japanese looked to the Stockton suburbs where farms were owned mainly by Italians. About 1914, Japanese colonies were established in French Camp and Race Tract.

About 1902–03, it became known that the Lodi area was suitable for grapes, and they were widely cultivated. The Japanese had only about 2,300 acres, but there were many brokers. The Lodi grapes were of good quality, particularly the Tokay.

The years from 1905 to 1929 may be regarded as the years of progress for Japanese in California agriculture. The growth from 1905 to 1908 was particularly amazing. A 1908 survey showed that 154,802 acres were being farmed by Japanese, who owned 5,140.5 acres, cash leased 55,971.5 acres. It was a total increase of 23,510 acres compared to 1907.

Statistics show that 2,400 acres were owned by the Japanese in 1905. By 1908 that figure was 14,600, about six times as large in a period of 4 years. Cash leased land increased from 35,000 acres to 44,500 acres in the same period, a 20-percent increase. Sharecropped acreage increased from 19,500 to 53,900 or three times as much. Contract farming increased four times over, from 4,700 to 20,900 acres. Total acreage increase was from 62,000 to 134,000 acres or more than twice as much.

The blow from the passage of the Alien Land Law in 1913 was not crucial. Land ownership in the name of Nisei children who had citizenship by birth increased, as did tenant farming.

A 1918 survey shows that in 1917, Japanese produced about $51 million worth of crops, about 1.1 percent of California's total $500 million from agriculture.

All of California's farms—about 12 million acres in all—were worth on the average about $42 an acre. Japanese farms were worth on the average about $141 an acre, attesting to their productivity and the skill of Japanese farmers.

Japanese farmers numbered 8,000, about one-eighth of the total in California. Where the average farm acreage was 200, for the Japanese it was 3.75. While white farmers had on the average about 185 acres under cultivation, Japanese farmers averaged only about 48 acres or 20.6 percent. At the time, Japanese owned only about 14,000 to 15,000 acres of farmland throughout California.

While gross income for the Japanese farmers was about $55 million, their profits were small. Expenses included rent (25 percent or $13,750,000); workers' wages (40 percent or $22 million); harvesting and packing costs (20 percent or $11 million); maintenance and board (7.5 percent or $4,120,000), leaving profits at about 7.5 percent or $4,120,000.

Small profits owed mainly to the high cost of rent. If the $13,750,000 spent for rental were applied to buying land at $134 an acre, 100,000 acres of land would have come under Japanese ownership annually. In other words, all 8,000 Japanese farmers would have been able to buy from 6 to 9 acres of land annually; however, most of them preferred to lease, since they neither desired to stay permanently in the United States then nor felt they were welcome to stay.

The 1920 alien land law was a major blow to Japanese in agriculture. The distribution of Japanese in various occupations in a 1924 survey indicate that of 36,000 families—93,000 persons—of Japanese ancestry in California, 9,100 families—24,000 persons—were engaged in farming and another 11,500 were farmworkers.

The 1920 law prohibited even leasing land or contract farming. Except for those who already owned their farms, Japanese farmers had to find other means of making a living. About the only way open to Japanese tenant farmers was to contract with a landowning company whose majority stockowners were American citizens or work lands for white landowners on a verbal agreement basis. But these methods were not only cumbersome but too often left the tenants at the mercy of the landowners.

A 1929 survey showed that there was an increase in Japanese farm foremen who accounted for one-third of the acreage farmed by the Japanese. Japanese farmer acreage in northern California decreased by about 10 per cent by 1923.

White-owned farms operated by Japanese foremen continued on a large scale, particularly in the production of asparagus in the lower deltas, lettuce in the Salinas and Watsonville areas. Acreage devoted to rice, potatoes and seeds showed a decrease by the 1930s.

While Japanese farmers did not escape the effects of the great depression, they felt the blow less than others because of the solidity and strength of their business.

A 1938 survey showed that 97 percent of the strawberries in northern California were grown by Japanese farmers, 82 percent of the onion, 59 percent of the celery, 45 percent of the asparagus, 36 percent of the potatoes, 25 percent of green vegetables, 21 percent of the tomatoes, 20 percent of the peas and 17 percent of the lettuce.

The effect of World War II, the evacuation of Japanese Americans from the west coast and the subsequent choice of other occupations by the Nisei is reflected in the fact that Japanese agricultural activity in the San Joaquin Valley is one-half of what it was before the war.

HON. B. F. SISK
OF CALIFORNIA

Mr. SISK. Mr. Speaker, Agriculture is the theme of the contributions of Japanese immigrants to the history and development of the great central valley. It is a theme played with many variations, all against the harrowing odds of racial discrimination, often with the stamp of approval of the government upon it.

A 1959 survey of the five central California counties of Madera, Fresno, Kings, Tulare and Kern estimated the population of Japanese at 14,000. Of the 848,943 acres planted in cotton and grapes, Japanese owned 40,000 acres, or a little over four percent Approximately 1,500 families were estimated to be engaged in business or in the professions. A contrast to the pre-World War II situation is the growing number of Japanese American white-collar workers.

To take the history of the area town by town, the first Japanese arrived in Fresno, the population center of the central valley, about 1880. Two youths from Tokyo accompanied an electrical engineer back to Fresno on a 3-year contract to work in his muscat grape vineyard for about $17.50 a month. They went back to Japan but returned to the United States in 1887 and developed and worked 93 acres in the Sanger area as vineyards.

Later, a John Smith heard that Japanese were hard workers and asked a friend in Sacramento to send six workers down to him, which was done. About the same time, a Kinzo Watanabe on the staff of the Ushijima Potato Farms in the Stockton area came down to investigate the central California area for working conditions and went back to urge his fellow Japanese to go down to Fresno. Two promptly did, but so poorly dressed that they were arrested as vagrants when they were seen roaming the streets of Fresno, unable to speak the language and completely lost. Such was the hard lot of the early pioneers.

Japanese gradually increased in number, and in 1904, a Buddhist priest named Asaeda inquired of Secretary of State Jordan if Japanese could own land. The answer in those early days was yes, and Reverend Asaeda organized the San Joaquin Land Co. and purchased 160 acres in the Bowles area.

By 1929 in Fresno County, Japanese owned 13,809 acres. The Japanese population was estimated at 4,372, composed of 940 families, of whom 314 owned land.

With World War I, the price of grapes rose, and many Japanese in the area attained sudden prosperity.

In the city of Fresno itself, there were 160 Japanese families in 1940, of whom 130 owned their own businesses.

Produce farming was begun in the West Fresno area about 1900 by Masuzo Tanimoto and his brother. The area became known as "Produce Town." By 1940, there were 40 Japanese families truck farming there, forming the backbone of the Fresno produce market.

Japanese began settling in the Biola area, famous for strawberries, in 1918. By 1940, 16 out of 19 families owned land, about 780 acres of it.

Ten miles southeast of Fresno is Fowler, noted mainly for its vineyards, but Japanese were beginning to engage in produce and strawberry farming there before World War II in increasing numbers. In 1940, the Japanese population was estimated at 5,000, with 100 families, 36 of whom owned land totaling 1,140 acres.

To provide investment capital for Fresno County farmers, the Japanese Investment Company was established in Fowler in 1920, with 170 stockholders throughout the county and a capitalization of $21,150. As the only Japanese financial institution in the Central Cali-

fornia area, it did yeoman service and prospers to this day.

Japanese in Selma have a fairly old history, arriving about 1896. They engaged mainly in growing grapes, owning 707 acres and leasing 2,300 more in 1940. There were about 75 families, totaling 404 persons.

The Kingsburg area is noted for its watermelon, winning the title from Dinuba. Of the 2,000 acres devoted to this product, in 1940 the Japanese owned 1,063 and sharecropped about 600 more. The first pioneer Japanese arrived in 1899, and by 1940, there were about 350.

Pioneer Japanese footsteps in the Sanger area go back fairly far to 1885 when a Tanaka Sasajima developed a plum orchard along the Sanger River. By 1940, there were 77 Japanese families numbering 358 persons, who owned 1,580 acres and leased 3,000 more. The area is famous for its superb table grapes, citrus fruits and carrots.

The only Japanese orange packing company was located in Sanger, as well as the only nursery in central California. The latter did some $15,000 business in a half-year season.

Japanese first came to Reedley in 1900 and were able to purchase land 7 years later. By 1940, there were 70 families of 345 persons growing grapes and other fruits. Thirty-six persons owned 1,730 acres in 1940, and another 5,600 acres were leased by other Japanese.

Parlier has been known as the Japanese Town of central California. Noted for the top quality of its grapes, the area's vineyards were mostly developed by Japanese hands. Year after year, Parlier grapegrowers got top prices of 25 cents or more per crate above the market on their crops. Rich soil also make Parlier's raisins among the best.

Contributions of the Japanese in central California would not be complete without detailing the birth and growth of an outstanding and peculiarly Nisei industry in the Sunnyside area. This is the industry of chick sexing, where newborn chicks are separated into male and female soon after they hatch to the immense benefit of poultry farmers, who save on feed by keeping only the hens for egg-laying purposes.

The skill was well-developed in Japan by 1933 when two chick sexors were invited from that country by Motojiro Hattori, who had long operated a poultry farm and hatchery in Fresno. The two held demonstrations at the University of California, Petaluma, and Hayward and evoked the first interest in the possibilities of the trade. The interest was further fanned when three sexors held demonstrations later in the year at the National Poultry Farmers' Convention in Grand Rapids, Mich.

In the next year, Hattori invited four Japanese chick sexors to hold demonstrations again in Petaluma, Los Angeles and Wisconsin. After 31 such demonstrations, interest in the industry finally began to pick up in earnest.

The four spent over 2 months teaching their skills to 30 students in the Fresno area and 26 more in the Los Angeles area before returning to Japan.

In 1935, four Nisei went to Nagoya, Japan, to learn chick sexing at its point of origin and returned to the United States to become the first Japanese Americans to go into the business of chick sexing.

In 1936, the U.S. Chick Sexing Association was organized in Fresno under the leadership of Hattori and Rokuro and Kiseto Saiki. A 2-month study course was held at the Hattori Poultry Farm, with 20 students enrolled. Schools were held annually after that to send out more trained Japanese American chick sexors to the poultry farms all over the United States.

Hattori returned to Japan in 1940, and the business has been continued by the Saikis as the International Chick Sexing School, which continues to this day.

In August, 1938, a similar school was established in Los Angeles—the Southern California Chick Sexing Association, with Takao Hayashi as manager. In October, the Los Angeles Chick Sexing Association was born, with Masashi Sato as manager. In the same year, the American Chick Sexing Association was formed in San Pedro by Kiyoshi Nitta. Two or three similar groups were also formed elsewhere.

During that period, some 10 Nisei returned from Japan as skilled chick sexors, and thereafter, 14 or 15 Nisei learned the skill annually in Japan and returned to take the test for chick sexors set up by the State Department of Agriculture. The nimble fingers of the Nisei were responsible for the high accuracy of their work—94 percent of those taking the tests passed.

By 1940, there were about 330 licensed chick sexors, and it was estimated that about 100 more were practicing without a license.

Their activities spread throughout the United States. On the west coast, 90 percent of the hatched chicks were differentiated according to sex; in the Rocky Mountain States—Nevada, Utah, Colorado, Idaho, and Wyoming—75 percent; in the Northwest—Oregon, Washington—80 to 90 percent; in the Midwest, 80 to 90 percent; in the South, about 80 percent; in the Northeast, 50 percent; and in the East, 60 to 70 percent. The figures showed that the supply of chick sexors had a long way to go in catching up with the demand in sections of the country.

The percentage of hatched chicks who grew to maturity after the sex differentiation was excellent, and farmers all over the United States demanded the services of the Nisei chick sexors. Invitations came from as far away as England and Belgium to send them 10 or so Neisi chick sexors.

The Nisei sexors posted an accuracy rate of 99 percent and could differentiate 500 to 700 chicks in an hour. In one season—about 4 months—they could handle 200,000 to 300,000 chicks.

Depending on their ability, their incomes varied from $700 to $3,000—an average of $1,500 a season before the war.

With World War II and the evacuation of Japanese from the West coast, the chick sexing schools moved eastward. The International Chick Sexing School moved to Mankato, Minn., sending out from 100 to 150 chick sexors to North and South Dakota, Illinois, Wisconsin, and Iowa as well as Minnesota in the spring. For a few years after 1950, it imported 15 to 16 chick sexors from Japan as special skilled technicians to supplement the supply of the school's own graduates. The school has been moved back to Fresno after the war, where it continues to this day.

The American Chick Sexing School moved to Lansdale, Pa., and has branches in the northeast, midwest, and south. The National Chick Sexing Association moved to Chicago and sends out its members throughout the Midwest and South. There are also smaller schools in Iowa, Arkansas, Louisiana, and Georgia operated by Nisei.

Of the 1,000 or so chick sexors in the United States in 1960, 80 percent were Nisei. Since the season generally lasts only from March to August or September, many make a prosperous income then and spend the remainder of the year at another job or in operating their own businesses.

HON. ROBERT B. MATHIAS
OF CALIFORNIA

Mr. MATHIAS of California. Mr. Speaker, I would like to continue this discussion by outlining the outstanding contributions of the Japanese in my area—California's 18th Congressional District.

In Tulare County, some 50 miles south of Fresno, the main population centers are Visalia, Dinuba, and Tulare, and Japanese lived mainly in and near the triangle formed by these three towns. in 1940, they numbered 1,200—800 more, if seasonal farmworkers were included.

Japanese owned 3,287 acres, leased 4,000 more and were in charge as managers over 4,000 more, making a total of 12,287 acres under their management. Japanese farmers produced citrus fruits, grapes, watermelon, peas, and tomatoes.

In the Visalia area, some 70 Jpanese families grew mainly grapes and vegetables, although some had citrus orchards totaling several hundred acres. To the west of Visalia, near the mountains, is a town called Ivanhoe, where noting the small amount of frost, Japanese began to harvest and plant peas ranging over several thousand acres. Jealous white farmers tried to dispossess them by bringing up the Alien Land Law, but the fair-minded district attorney declined to prosecute.

Japanese were pioneers in experimenting with the planting of tomatoes in the Orosi area in 1913. Early test plants failed, but undaunted, they were tried again until success came 15 years later in 1928. Since then, the area has been noted for its tomatoes.

While oranges were the chief crop of the Lindsay, Japanese farmers in the area concentrated on growing strawberries, noted for their quality and color, although the plants did not need transplanting for as long as 15 years. Over 200 acres of it were cultivated by many of the 40 Japanese families in the area. Peas and tomatoes are other crops.

While Japanese came to Kings County as early as 1896 and by 1920 numbered nearly 200 families, the post-World War I depression caused about half of them to move to southern Califorina by 1940. Those who remain have done fairly well, owning 700 acres, leasing 835 acres and sharecropping almost as much to have about 2,000 acres under their cultivation. Crops are about the same as Fresno—grapes, peaches, and apricots.

Bakersfield is the main population center in Kern County, and in 1940, there were about 50 families in the area

engaged in farming, producing mainly sweet potatoes, melons and asparagus. Two large Japanese labor camps were located in Arvin.

The first Japanese came from the Fresno area in 1904 and became an overseer for the Kern County Land Co.'s 800-acre vineyard. By 1911, the first Japanese were purchasing land. By 1922, the town of Delano was the scene of violent anti-Japanese demonstrations, with signs at the north and south entrances to the town displayed, saying, "No Japs Wanted." Hurt and dismayed, but not discouraged, Japanese community leaders talked things over with town leaders and persuaded them to have the signs taken down.

By 1940, there were about 50 Japanese families farming in the area. They owned only 300 acres, but leased 3,000 more and were producing melons, watermelons, lettuce, peas, beans, and other vegetables. Eight Japanese labor camps operators provided from 400 to 1,000 workers, and the Delano Agricultural Association, the Delano Farmers' Exchange and Kinichi Sakai, a shipper, provided the distribution of the produce.

In Madera County, there were 23 Japanese families farming in 1940. They owned 1,007 acres and leased 200 more and grew grapes, fruits, cotton and produce. More Japanese arrived about 1918–19 and bought land to farm, but many lost it again during the post-war recession. Nevertheless, those who remained mostly owned the land they worked and it has been one of the more prosperous communities of Japanese in the area.

In the Turlock area at the south end of Stanislaus County, the Japanese arrived around 1900. The area is noted for its watermelon and cantaloupe. In 1940, the Japanese population of about 500 persons owned 534 acres and leased 1,098. In the early 1920s, there were overt acts of anti-Japanese discrimination, but the town later came to acknowledge its Japanese citizens as among its pioneer developers.

Contribution of the Japanese in South Dos Palos is represented by the spectacular success of Kihei Ikeda and Keisaburo Koda in establishing the State Farming Company in 1927, growing 5,000 acres of rice. By 1940, 3,000 more acres were leased. Koda himself invented an incomparably efficient harvester and drier. During World War II, while the Koda family members were interned in wartime concentration camps, the agent entrusted with the management of their farm sold over two-thirds of the land and the rice refinery. U.S. government compensation to the Kodas came after long litigation and was among the last to be settled. The amount was far from the original worth. Beginning again after the war, the Kodas are again making the area one of the prime rice producers in the state, demonstrating their faith in the United States and demonstrating the capacity of the Japanese to bounce back from misfortune and blind prejudice against them to work with perseverance and determination to make the American dream come true for them.

The Cortez area is another that was developed mainly by the Japanese. Until they arrived to establish a colony there, the area was almost a desert, with only a lonely Santa Fe Railroad Valley line to show that man had even been there at all.

Twelve Japanese families settled there in 1919. They fought incredible hardships to clear the land and make it productive. By 1940, there were 38 Japanese families who owned some 2,000 acres and leased 500 more and were producing grapes, peach, vegetables and strawberries from the once arid land. The agricultural association established in 1925 built a packinghouse and through cooperative selling of their produce and buying of raw materials, saved over $18,000 of capital. By 1940, the association had fixed assets of $13,000 and negotiable assets of $18,000 and was able to negotiate loans for its members at an annual interest of 2 percent, payable in 5 years from the U.S. Central Bank, which demonstrated the confidence that the financial institutions in the area had in the Cortez Japanese farmers.

The Livingston area was another where a Japanese colony settled. The Yamato Colony, developed by Kyutaro Abiko, was established in 1910 and prospered to 69 families by 1940. Japanese owned 3,708 acres and leased 444 more and produced grapes, peaches, plums and almonds. The top agricultural product was eggplants, with 50,000 crates shipped out annually. Sweet potato was the next in amount.

The Japanese people have made many contributions to my area and I am glad to have had this opportunity to pay tribute to them today.

HON. CHET HOLIFIELD

OF CALIFORNIA

Mr. HOLIFIELD. Mr. Speaker, 30 years ago I campaigned for the first time for a seat in the Congress. During that campaign in the fall of 1942, many of my constituents remembered that earlier that same year I had spoken out against the mass military evacuation and internment of all persons of Japanese ancestry from the West Coast. I knew then that those of Japanese origin in California and elsewhere in the United States were loyal and patriotic citizens.

When I first came to Washington as a Member of this body, I was among the few—there were only three or four of us then—who were willing to stand up and be counted where the Americanism of the Japanese American was concerned. I was called a "Jap lover." It was politically harmful to be known as a friend of the Japanese American then, and often economically ruinous.

But I stood for principle and fair play. And, today I have been vindicated in my belief and faith in Americans of Japanese ancestry.

That was one reason why I joined with my good friend from Hawaii, Congressman MATSUNAGA, in cosponsoring legislation last year which repealed Title II of the Internal Security Act of 1950, the so-called Emergency Detention Act. The concentration camps authorized by the old law reminded me of the war relocation camps into which Japanese Americans were placed after World War II. Another reason was that I did not want any other American, either as an individual or in a group because of race, color, creed, or national origin to face the threat of concentration camps simply on the basis of suspicion that espionage or sabotage might be committed.

At this time, I would like to remind my colleagues of the history of the Japanese in the United States, and particularly in southern California and especially the Los Angeles area. Today, there are more Japanese Americans in and around the Los Angeles metropolitan area than in any other mainland America community. As a matter of fact, in this vicinity today there are more Americans of Japanese ancestry than were evacuated from the entire Pacific Coast 30 years ago.

But, this was not always so.

In a corner of a cemetery in the east side of Los Angeles in what is now a predominantly chicano area is a large cluster of stone monuments that mark the final resting place of many Issei—Japanese immigrants who in the flush of youth some 100 years ago looked eastward to a country where they heard that a man could make his fortune if only he were willing to work hard enough.

They came with a dream, as did all the immigrants to this "country of immigrants," as President Kennedy characterized this land. Symbolically, there was no Statue of Liberty standing in the port of Seattle or in San Francisco Harbor to welcome the "tired and the poor" from the Orient to these shores.

The Japanese immigrants came to a land where earlier arrivals spoke a different tongue, where notions of white supremacy often took the form of violent antipathy to the yellow man, where discrimination against him often had the sanction of government upon it.

And although they worked hard, they could not become citizens of the land if they so desired, nor could they own the land they tilled or even lease land to till and make a living. When war clouds broke out between Japan and the United States, all that they had worked a lifetime to build was overturned and all but destroyed as they found themselves and their children, who were citizens of the country by birth, summarily expelled from their homes and interned in concentration camps.

In spite of natural hardships and human barriers, many Issei did realize their dream in America and made outstanding contributions to the economic, cultural and social life of this country.

Many also did not see their dream come true, timing and circumstances not having been in their favor. Their success was in having fought the good fight and passing their dreams on to their children, the Nisei, for whom they were willing to make the greatest sacrifices in order that for their generation, perhaps, the dream could come true. In spite of a harsh and oftentimes unrewarding life, they never lost pride in their rich ethnic background, always conscious that whatever they did, good or bad, reflected not only them alone but on all other Japanese.

They came to make the land fertile in wasted areas where others were unwilling or unable to farm. They came to lay the railroads, mine the coal and minerals, harvest the lumber on the land and the fish in the sea. They came to grow flowers and plants to beautify the homes, they came to work as cooks and houseboys and gardeners and laundrymen.

Even in the harshest circumstances, they never felt that the world owed them a living without their working for it, and they kept their pride when pride was the only thing they had worth keeping.

Now they rest at Evergreen Cemetery. Their graves are never without fresh

flowers as they rest in the honored memory of those who are the heirs of their dreams.

It is generally supposed that the first Japanese arrived in Los Angeles in 1878, but recent research into the city's early history reveals that two Japanese lived in Los Angeles as early as 1870. Apparently they were sailors who landed and started restaurants.

The next ones of whom there are definite records are a Kohei Tanaka, who landed in San Diego and worked as a cook for a family there, and Masanari Kaneko, who arrived in 1888, worked for the Hearst family in San Francisco, returned to Japan in 1890 to marry and came back to the United States the same year to go to work for an executive of the Southern California Water Supply Co. Kaneko was given several shares of the company's stock which climbed in value like the proverbial Japanese eel. He was soon able to purchase some land in Redlands to go into the orange growing business. He was the first Japanese to own land in Southern California.

The two are typical of the early Japanese immigrants to California who went into schoolboy work to learn the language and customs of the land which would turn out to be their lifelong home. There in American homes they learned the skills of cooking, gardening, and laundry which would stand them in good stead when they struck out for economic independence.

By 1893, there were about 40 Japanese in southern California. A Gunji Morita had contracted to supply trees for the roadsides of San Bernardino, returned to Japan to get the trees but took sick and died there. His partners and workers scattered to Riverside and Los Angeles.

There is a record that on the emperor's birthday in the same year, 41 Japanese gathered at a Japanese restaurant on Spring Street in Los Angeles to celebrate the occasion.

It was also in 1893 that a man named Kimura opened the first restaurant serving Japanese food near Plaza Park, a modest precursor to the many successful establishments to follow in the area.

A Japanese book published in 1907 noted that two Japanese—Kichinosuke Nakamura, who operated a restaurant on East Fifth Street, and Sanhichi Akita, who ran a billiard parlor near Plaza Park—had resided in Los Angeles longer than 30 years then.

By 1897, there were between 10 to 20 Japanese-owned restaurants near Plaza Park, all quite prosperous in spite of the anti-Japanese feeling running high by then. By that time, there were about 400 Japanese residents in southern California.

In 1898, the Santa Fe and San Pedro Railroad Cos. began to hire Japanese for laying new lines in the area, and by the next year, 2,000 Japanese were calling Los Angeles home. They ran hotels, provided translation service for new arrivals, made shoes, cut hair, printed a mimeographed vernacular newspaper called "Shin Nippon," and opened a department store called Asia Shokai, organized on a membership basis, with one share worth $10,000.

A Japanese source in 1904 placed the Japanese population in Los Angeles at 2,795 persons, of whom 142 were women and 49 were children.

A 1906 survey by a Japanese newspaper showed a total of 13,040 Japanese in southern California, about half of them living in the Los Angeles area. Of the total, 12,012 were men, 806 were women and 222 were children. One reason for the sudden increase was the San Francisco earthquake, which left many Japanese homeless and jobless in 1906. They looked to the growing agricultural industry in southern California for a new start.

Japanese were engaged as farmworkers in southern California as early as 1900, mainly in the orange orchards and sugar beet fields. Of the 5,000 or so Japanese workers in 1905, 200 were fruit pickers, 1,000 were sugar beet workers, 800 in celery, 600 in strawberries, 600 in vegetables and 1,500 working on the railroad.

Most Japanese immigrants came from farming families in Japan and knew something about intensive land cultivation. They also did not mind the extra care necessary for truck farming, which was a Chinese monopoly in the area until about 1907. The Chinese Exclusion Act of 1883 decreased their number, and the Japanese eventually took over.

Japanese truck farming began on a small scale in the Los Angeles suburbs of Tropico, Newmark (now Montebello), Green Meadows and West Adams and grew with the rapid population growth in Los Angeles. It later extended to Whittier, Sherman, Hollywood, Garvanza and Eagle Rock.

Japanese farmers in the Gardena area began specializing in strawberries about 1900 and expanded to nearby Tropico and Moneta in 5 or 6 years. Crops of excellent quality increased the demand, and growth was rapid. Strawberry production doubled between 1904 and 1905 in Tropico and Moneta. About 600 acres were under cultivation at that time.

Celery was another crop in which Japanese farmers excelled. Those grown around the smelzer area in Orange County became famous throughout the United States as Smelzer celery. Also beginning about 1900, the industry had little competition from other areas. By 1905, the Japanese were producing 80 percent of the celery in southern California. Acreage invested in the crop by the Japanese more than doubled from 690 acres in 1904 to 1,550 acres in 1905.

Acreage distribution by crops for Japanese farmers in southern California in 1905 was as follows:

Sugar beets, 2,400 acres; celery, 1,849; vegetables, 1,280; strawberries, 687; melons, 345; livestock feed, 292; livestock farming, 134, for a total of 7,031 acres.

With anti-Japanese agitation gathering strength year by year, Japanese farmers saw the necessity to organize for mutual benefit. In 1913, the year which saw the passage of the Alien Land Law in California, the California Central Farm Association was organized in San Francisco. A branch was established in southern California, which became independent of the parent organization the next year. It provided moral support and gave service in the trying years that followed by advising on farm planning, pest control, provided cooperative purchasing and selling, and established a credit union.

Smaller associations were formed in 1913 in Covina (60 members), San Gabrieli (50-plus members), Imperial Valley (50 shareholders, $50,000 capitalization), Talbert (50-plus members), Garden Grove (40-plus members).

Others were formed the next year in Signal Hill, Puente, Burbank, Wilmington, El Monte, Hawthorne, Lowland, Moneta, Fruitland, and Anaheim. The Moneta association had 220 members.

The alien land law of 1913 prohibited Issei, the first generation immigrants from Japan who were barred from naturalization, from owning land. It also limited their land lease period to 3 years. A stronger alien land law passed in 1920 prohibited Issei from even owning stock in a landowning company, one of the means by which they tried to cling to one of the few ways open to them to make a living in a strange land.

The alien land law was a blow to Japanese tenant farmers, whose acreage dropped from 336,000 to 131,000 acres between 1918 and 1923. They were back to sharecropping and depending on the good will of white farm owners to pay them a decent wage to manage their farms.

That they continued to prosper and grow owed mainly to their patient perseverance, hard work, and innate farming skills. The period from 1910 to 1929 may be called the "period of progress," and the years from 1930 to 1941 may be called the "golden period" of Japanese farming in California.

A 1929 survey shows that in southern California, Japanese farmers owned 5,837 acres, were tenant farming 77,836 acres, managing 44,550 acres for a total of 128,223 acres under Japanese cultivation.

They were producing 97 percent of the vegetables—bunched goods—96 percent of the cauliflower, 95 percent of the lettuce, 93 percent of the strawberries, 92 percent of the celery, 83 percent of the tomatoes and 51 percent of the melons. Even in the depression years, the total volume was worth some $15 million.

As the depression worsened, however, it affected farmers and wholesale produce merchants, too. A need was felt for a strong central organization to control distribution and maintain the market price. The Southern California Central Agricultural Association was organized in 1931, with an annual budget of $20,000. With the addition in 1935 of the powerful San Pedro Agricultural Association organized in 1915, it became a federation of agricultural associations and not only sponsored a daily market report on radio but helped solve the strike by Mexican and Filipino farm workers in that same year.

Distribution of farm produce is handled in southern California by two major wholesale produce markets in Los Angeles.

The Ninth Street Market, also called the Los Angeles City Market, was organized in 1908 by a group of about 150 Japanese, Chinese and white farmers who were dissatisfied with the market then located at Third Street and Central Avenue. By 1930, the market handled produce whose annual worth was over $20 million. The major part of it was transacted by the 18 Japanese firms and 40 individual Japanese wholesalemen who were members. Japanese members organized the Southern California Agricultural Association there when the market was established in 1908.

The Seventh Street Market was financed by the Southern Pacific Railroad

Co., which invested $2.5 million to build a market on a grand scale reputed to be the largest in the world. The Japanese position at the market was not as strong as that at the Ninth Street mart, since none owned stock in the market, but up to 80 percent of the produce handled there was transacted by the six Japanese firms and about 30 individual Japanese wholesalemen. My 1940, the market was annually handling produce worth $8 million. The Japanese at the Nikka—Japan-California — Agricultural Association in 1908.
Seventh Street Market organized the

The advent of World War II completely upset the foundation for Japanese agriculture in southern California, a foundation it had taken a generation's blood and sweat to build.

Japanese tenant farmers and sharecroppers who could realize some cash from their crops before the war came were the fortunate ones; the majority had planted their crops, but were evacuated from the West Coast without realizing any income from them. Those who owned their own land were fortunate if they had a good manager on whom to depend while they were spending up to 3 years in the wartime concentration camps. Many sold their land at rock-bottom prices, while others had to let their mortgage payments lapse and lost their land eventually.

On January 2, 1945, while the war was still going in in Europe and in the Pacific, the U.S. Government allowed the return of Japanese on the West Coast. Two large farmers, Shosuke Nitta of Orange County, and Yorio Chikasawa of West Los Angeles, were allowed to return 1 year earlier with the help of the War Relocation Authority to help provide more food for the war effort and to demonstrate to other Japanese that they could return to their homes without harm.

However, post-war demand for housing in southern California severely limited the acreage available for leased agricultural land. With little capital, the small farmers and those who were tenant farming and sharecropping before the war turned to gardening or to the nursery business which needed little capital and guaranteed an assured income.

The Nisei, the second generation American-born Japanese, had come of age during the war, and many who grew up on the farm now preferred work in other fields after the war.

The Japanese farms which remain in southern California now are mainly big business operations, located in Talbert, Huntington Beach, parts of Santa Ana in Orange County, San Luis Rey, Vista, Fallbrook, and Oceanside in San Diego County, Oasis and Thermal in the Salton Sea area of the Coachella Valley, new Oxnard in Ventura County, and in Santa Maria, Guadalupe and San Luis Obispo.

Return of the Japanese to the wholesale produce markets took longer, but at present, there are altogether about 50 firms and individuals located there.

So, Mr. Speaker, this is a part of the story of the Japanese Americans in our country. A people who form a "minority group" but who have refused to remain in a minority status. These industrious and intelligent people have lived the American Dream. They have moved ever forward and upward with the stream of American society and, while doing so, they have enriched our society and institutions by their examples of family life, industry and loyalty.

HON. EDWARD R. ROYBAL
OF CALIFORNIA

Mr. ROYBAL. Mr. Speaker, although the Japanese are best known for their contributions to California farming, most think of these contributions in terms of fruit and vegetables, and of flowers. Truly, the Japanese brought a touch of beauty to the lives of most Americans through their introduction and sale of beautiful plants and flowers at prices most Americans could afford to pay.

But the Japanese also were outstanding in poultry and even pig raising, as my comments to the history of the Japanese in southern California will show. Introduction of the horticulture to southern California followed northern California's by 8 years.

The first flower growers in Southern California began in 1892. Established in and around Los Angeles, they numbered 160 firms by 1940, owning a wholesale flower market in which they had invested $100,000 and doing an annual business close to $3 million.

The first Japanese to succeed in the floriculture and plant nursery business was Sotaro Endo, who established his field at the corner of Jefferson Boulevard and Main Street in Los Angeles. The industry grew with the rapid growth in population and homes in Los Angeles, particularly from 1920 to 1925. The Southern California Japanese Nurserymen's Association was organized in 1927 to systematize the distribution of plants as well as to provide cooperative purchase of fertilizer and other business necessities.

The wholesale flower market was first established by Shintaro Shima in 1908 at Broadway and Seventh Street. While the number of growers continued to increase, the lack of organization caused problems in distribution. The Southern California Flower Growers' Association was organized in 1912, and in 1914 the Southern California Japanese Wholesale Flower Market was formally incorporated.

With a 50-year lease, a $50,000 building fund and an investment of $20,000, the Japanese flower industry was finally able to stand on its own. In 1928, members spent about $100,000 in cooperative purchases of fertilizers, seeds, chemicals, food and sundries.

A 1929 survey showed that within a 20-mile radius of Los Angeles, there were 147 firms or individuals owning or leasing 1,517 acres for growing flowers (500 acres owned outright by Japanese growers themselves), representing an investment of $1,750,000, employing a corps of 700 workers and realizing an annual production worth $1,500,000.

The industry distribution according to area in 1929 was as follows:

Los Angeles, 40; Montebello, 15; Roscoe, 10; Gardena, 10; Redondo Beach, 10; Compton, eight; Hermosa Beach, six; Tujunga, five; Hawthorne, four; San Fernando, three; San Gabriel, three; others, 23.

Another industry in which Japanese were active was poultry farming. It was established in 1900 in southern California when Hyakumatsu Ike purchased 5 acres of land on San Fernando Road in Los Angeles to go into business.

Japanese poultry farmers were later located in Gardena, San Pedro, Inglewood, Norwalk, Artesia, Orange County—Placentia, Riverside and Rialto in San Bernardino County. The majority were large businesses with from 30,000 to 40,000 chickens per farm, doing an annual business of $3 million.

A similar industry which had many Japanese entrepreneurs was pig farming, first begun in 1894 on Figueroa Street near Exposition Park on 9 acres of land leased by Fusataro Adachi, who later went into the floriculture business. Another Japanese, Yaichiro Kinoshita, established a pig farm on West Riverside on 30 acres of leased land.

The real pioneer group which established the foundation of the industry had their farms in Fruitland at about 1909. Four men, each owning about 300 pigs, made good use of garbage from the city of Los Angeles. Another group was established about the same time in a gravel pit near Baldwin Park.

In 1914 the city council decided to burn the city garbage for sanitary reasons, and the industry moved to Santa Barbara, Long Beach, and later on to San Diego. Others moved to San Bernardino, Santa Monica, and into the Imperial Valley around 1913.

When oil was discovered in Long Beach in 1921, the city grew by leaps and bounds, and the pig farming business prospered with the increased garbage. Unfortunately, widespread hoof and mouth disease caused most of the animals to be slaughtered by the Government in 1924.

Although the farmers were compensated, it was not until 1927 with the formation of the Pacific Pig Farming Co. that the industry was on its feet again to begin its second period of growth. Large farms were located in Artesia, Bellflower, and Buena Park. The year 1931 saw the formation of the Southern California Pig Farming Association. The Pacific Pig Farming Company, after many hardships, was incorporated in 1932 with $100,000 in capital. It moved in 1937 to Talbert, west of Santa Ana and purchased 60 acres of land. The farm had nearly 10,000 pigs, for which 70 to 80 tons of garbage and three tons of wheat were provided as daily feed. Aside from the Fontana Pig Farming Co. which had 60,000, Pacific was among the largest pig farms in the United States.

World War II brought an abrupt end to the industry for the Japanese and it has never revived after the war.

But, nowadays, the Japanese American is in almost every sphere of human activity, and doing as well. And Little Tokyo is more the center of Japanese American civic and business enterprise than even before the 1942 evacuation. With Federal, State, and city funds, there is a Little Tokyo redevelopment project going on which will soon result, hopefully, in a cultural center for the Japanese arts second to none in the United States.

So, there is a future for Japanese Americans that is more promising that it was before World War II, and California should be grateful to those of Japanese origin for having contributed so much to the wealth and beauty of the Golden State.

HON. GLENN M. ANDERSON
OF CALIFORNIA

Mr. ANDERSON of California. Mr. Speaker, in my district there are probably more resident Americans of Japanese ancestry than in any other in this country, with the exception of Hawaii; and all of my life I have been closely associated with Japanese Americans.

From my days in the California State Assembly and as the Lieutenant Governor of California, I have worked closely with JACL in their worthy efforts to improve the lot and life of the Japanese American in my home State, and thereby helping to promote the welfare of all citizens. The Japanese Americans know, as do I, that only when all citizens are secure and prosperous are they, the Japanese American, also secure and prosperous.

In the House of Representatives, I have continued my interest and concern for those of Japanese ancestry. This past session, I introduced with my good friend and colleague from Hawaii, Spark Matsunaga, a bill that would establish a meaningful and effective Cabinet-Level Committee on Asian American Affairs. The various proposals were suggested by JACL, and those of us who are sponsoring this legislation are grateful for their cooperation.

Though the history of the Japanese in America is an exemplary and outstanding one, consider what it might have been, or would be, if there were no racial prejudice against the Japanese Americans, and they were accorded every opportunity and afforded every grant given to other minorities which, though they may be more numerous, are not more deserving than are the Japanese and other Asian Americans. That is the reason for the proposed Cabinet committee.

Looking way back in California history, fishing, along with farming, was an industry with which the Japanese were familiar in the old country, and they eventually came to participate in it prominently in this country.

The earliest pioneer fisherman in Southern California was Hatsuji Sano, who began fishing from the Port of Los Angeles in 1900. Prior to that time, there was some abalone harvesting off White Point around 1887.

Since there were not many Japanese in the area in 1900, the demand for fresh fish was not that great. However, with the immigration of Japanese from Hawaii, the advent of the picture brides, and the emigration of Japanese from the San Francisco area following the 1906 earthquake, the fishing industry began to boom. The Port of Los Angeles eventually had 16 fishing companies employing 60 fishermen. They later split, with eight remaining at the Port of Los Angeles, four going to San Pedro, one to Playa del Rey, one to Oxnard, and two to San Diego. They built the foundation of the Japanese fishing industry off Southern California and Mexican shores.

San Pedro became the major port for Japanese fishermen, many of whom shined shoes and worked as domestics until they saved enough money to purchase boats.

In 1908, an abalone canning factory was established by the Toyamas, with the products sold principally in Hawaii and the shells exported to Germany. It closed in 1910, after a state law limited the size of abalone catches. Company officials then tried to set up a fish market, which met with violent opposition from two or three other established markets operated by local fishermen.

The anti-Japanese reaction was extended to the Japanese fishermen, and rock-throwing incidents were followed by demands of the ouster of all Japanese from San Pedro Harbor.

Before things could come to a head, the San Pedro Fish Canning Co. was established on the opposite shore on Terminal Island and began canning not only abalone but tuna, which was said to be limitless off the southern California and Mexican shores.

Japanese fishermen moved to Terminal Island by the score from San Pedro as more canning factories were started, and what was once a haven for rattlesnakes became a thriving Japanese fishing village. In 1940, there were more than 3,000 Japanese living on Terminal Island.

The Japanese fishing industry in southern California saw its greatest growth around 1915, as shown by the following statistics:

	Number of boats	Fishermen
San Pedro-Terminal Island	100	350
Port of Los Angeles	12	42
San Diego	28	85
Oxnard	2	7

Their annual catch around 1915, was estimated to be worth between $750,000 and $1 million for an average family income of from $7,000 to $10,000.

In order to combat unfair anti-Japanese fishing laws, the Southern California Japanese Fishermen's Association was formed in 1916, with 250 charter members and an annual budget of several thousand dollars. It became one of the strongest Japanese organizations in the area, with membership increasing to 821 in 1920.

During 1929–30, the tuna catch, began to dwindle, and Mexico applied an export tax to tuna caught off its shores. In addition, frozen tuna was being imported from Japan to the tune of 5,000 tons annually. At the same time, 100,000 boxes of canned tuna were being imported from the same source, bringing hot opposition from the U.S. fishing industry.

With the Japanese Exclusion Act of 1924 and the increasing age of the Issei, the Japanese fishing industry was beginning to see a downtrend even before World War II almost wiped it out completely. By 1935, the number of fishermen had decreased to 550.

However, with the advent of the Nisei in the industry, the boats were being converted to larger, deepsea fishing vessels costing from $100,000 to $250,000 each. At the time of Pearl Harbor, the fishermen's association had 600 members, who owned 90 boats.

With Terminal Island closed to private dwellings after the war, the returning fishermen scattered to Long Beach, Wilmington, and San Pedro. Few Nisei returned to fishing, preferring other jobs which would not keep them away from their families for long periods of time.

One of the occupations that the Japanese entered in large numbers in the post-war era was gardening, which required little capital and utilized their skill for growing. However, as early as 1905, Japanese were gardening in southern California when 179 persons listed it as their occupation in a Japanese survey. In 1910, it is recorded, a group of gardeners and house servants held a meeting to try to work for higher wages, the first instance of organization among the gardeners. By 1920, 500 persons were working as gardeners. By 1929, the number had doubled and perhaps even tripled. A gardeners' association was formed in Riverside and others followed in Hollywood and the Uptown area in 1929. A federation of these associations was formed in 1938.

The name of the City of Gardena, Calif., a community with a large number of Japanese Americans, was derived from an earlier reference to the area as a garden spot. Because of a fresh water slough that ran through the area, the Gardena Valley was often the only oasis of green in the grey and brown landscape from Los Angeles to the Harbor Area.

The Mayor of Gardena is Kiyoto "Ken" Nakaota, a good friend of mine who happens to be of Japanese American ancestry.

In the post-war boom, it is estimated that by 1946, 3,000 Japanese gardeners existed in southern California. Pasadena was the first area to reorganize a gardeners' association in 1947. By 1950, the number of gardeners was estimated to be over 6,000.

The Southern California Gardeners' Federation was formally incorporated in 1956 with 15 member associations encompassing some 3,000 members. The number of gardeners grew still more, and in 1960, the federation had 4,000 members, estimated to be half of actually 8,000 engaged in the occupation. The gardeners' combined income in 1960 was estimated to be in the neighborhood of $30 million. Their average monthly income was between $400 and $800, with some, who had contracted choice routes, earning as much as $1,000 a month.

The Southern California Gardeners' Federation currently has about 5,000 members. Last year, the federation completed its $300,000 headquarters building at 333 South San Pedro St. in Los Angeles. This organization promotes the social, educational, health, and legislative aims of the groups. It publishes a bilingual monthly magazine, holds annual conferences, and provides a credit union as well as group insurance.

An occupation in which not many participated but which made a unique contribution to U.S. industry is the Pacific Goldfish Farm, established by Kiyoma Akiyama in Lancaster, Los Angeles County. A farmer who began raising goldfish as a side business, Akiyama persevered after early reverses caused by marauding birds. The need for better equipped fishponds and his patient research gradually enabled him to expand until he was operating the largest goldfish farm west of Chicago. Recent encroachment by housing and business developments have caused him to move his business from Lancaster.

Mr. Speaker, when the Japanese first came to America, they clustered in "Little Tokyos" operating a wide variety of businesses which provided other Japanese with services they were either unable or reluctant to acquire elsewhere.

But today, the Japanese American is

successfully engaged in every endeavor; they are living in nearly every community; they are providing leadership in the cities, in the schools, in business and industry. Today, the Japanese American is found throughout the mainstream of life.

While positive steps must be taken to break down all of the barriers of discrimination, the accomplishments of the Americans of Japanese ancestry have made this country a better place for all of us.

Mr. Speaker, it gives me great pleasure to recognize the achievements and contributions of our citizens of Japanse ancestry, especially on the occasion of the 22d biennial convention of the Japanese Americans Citizens League here in Washington.

HON. AL ULLMAN

OREGON

Mr. ULLMAN. Mr. Speaker, I wish to join my colleagues in recounting and honoring the contributions made by Japanese and Japanese Americans in taming our frontier and developing our nation, particularly in the Pacific Northwest.

Though fewer than in many other areas, the Japanese played a significant role in the growth of the northwest, entering the region primarily through the port of Seattle or working their way up north from San Francisco. I would like to comment particularly on the role of the early Japanese immigrants and their sons and daughters in Oregon.

The contribution of the Japanese in the three northwestern States of Oregon, Washington, and Idaho was first in the sweat of their brows as they came in large numbers at the turn of the century to work as laborers in the lumber mills and on the railroads. Through diligence and frugality, they saved their money and went on to reclaim land that earlier settlers had overlooked or given up as nonarable. First as tenant farmers and gradually as farmers owning their own land, they made their distinct mark in the developing history of the Northwest.

In spite of many Americans who appreciated their ethic of hard work, frugality and enterprise, the Japanese immigrants in the Northwest, however, shared with their brothers who settled elsewhere in the western sections of the United States the hard facts of racial prejudice, based on ignorance and economic jealousy.

The earliest record of Japanese in Oregon is found in 1834 before the area became a state. A Japanese fishing boat had drifted on the black current and ended up near Marshfield. Of three survivors, one Kinzo Suzuki arrived in Vancouver, Oregon Territory. Suzuki stayed for 6 years, learned English and is said to have boarded an English ship for China.

History also records that in 1868, a Kyusaku Ishikawa came from the south and lived in Portland.

In 1880, an American named Andrew McKennon, who was an agricultural adviser in the Japanese prefectures of Iwate and Aomori, returned to the United States with his wife Miyo—Iwakoshi, her brother Rikizo and his daughter Tama. McKennon established a sawmill 2 miles outside of Gresham and named the area Orient, which still exists. The family is a respected pioneer in the area. In 1885, a Shintaro Takagi came with some merchandise to sell from San Francisco and married Tama Iwakoshi in 1891. The couple celebrated their golden wedding anniversary in 1940 under the auspices of the Oregon United Japanese Association.

It was in 1891 that the first Japanese immigrant group arrived. There were seven in the first group and 17 in the next. Unable to speak the language and unused to strange customs, they had no protectors and encountered unspeakable hardships after landing in Portland.

At one time, Takagi, who had opened a dry goods store in Portland, rushed to their rescue when he heard that a group of Japanese were found weeping under a bridge. Such irresponsible immigration policy caused the Japanese consulate representative in San Francisco to speed to Portland and after investigation, prohibit Japanese to land in Portland for a while.

The Japanese immigrants mainly worked as woodcutters and hops pickers. They gradually took the place of the Chinese laborers on the railroads as well. Their diligence and steadiness became recognized in the labor market.

When an understanding was reached anew between the immigration companies and the authorities, Shinsaburo Ban became employed by the former to provide large number of Japanese laborers for the Union Pacific, Southern Pacific, and the Spokane, Portland, and Seattle auxiliary lines. The Japanese worker's industry and productivity further came to be recognized. Until then, the most powerful railroad workers were Italians, but Japanese came to outnumber them eventually.

The farms and businesses now owned by Japanese Americans in Oregon are the result of the sweat of the brows of these early laborers. Following the railroads, they came to be employed by the lumber mills until 1935 and built a good reputation here, too. Since lumber mill wages amounted to 40 percent of all wages in the Northwest, the rapid progress of the Japanese immigrant in the lumber industry, together with the railroad industry, provided the twin bases for his development later in other areas. The golden age of railroad labor was the 10 years following 1897. At one time, 3,000 Japanese were working on the railroads and helped support stores, restaurants, and hotels in Portland.

The 1906 Lewis and Clark Expedition Centennial Fair in Portland, coupled with the influence of the Japanese victory in the Russo-Japanese War, encouraged the growth of hotels, restaurants, barbershops, and grocery stores in Portland. The World War I boom particularly helped the hotels in which Japanese Americans at one time had $5 million invested. They suffered a large setback in the post-war depression, but those who remained sustained their industry with patient endurance and diligent hard work. In 1940, there were 120 hotels operated by Oregon Japanese and more than 80 grocery stores, including the first-rate Modern Store.

The fruits of their labor on the railroads and in the sawmills also became capital to invest in farms, which grew south from Portland down the Willamette Valley to Salem and east along the Columbia River to Hood River and The Dalles.

The number and acreage of Japanese-American farms in Oregon in 1940 were as follows:

Columbia Slough, 27, 540 acres; Montavila, 9, 270; Milwaukee-Oregon City, 25, 375; Gresham-Troutdale, 82, 2,460; Westport, 1, 40; Canby, 2, 70; Sherwood, 13, 555; Banks-Corvallis, 76, 1,040; Gueston, 12, 400; Salem, 36, 720; Independence, 2, 85; Medford, 3, 90; Hood River, 50, 1,500; Parkdale, 21, 462; Dee, 17, 260; Pendleton, 1, 30; Ontario, 12, 1,560; others, 5, 150. Japanese-Americans also owned 2,670 acres and lease-farmed 8,577 acres.

Under the growing anti-Japanese agitation, particularly with the passage of the Alien Land Law, it was understandable that Japanese hesitated to invest in the land; but patient endurance was characteristic of the Japanese pioneers who did put the fruits of their laboring days courageously into farms and other businesses.

Since banks, reflecting the prevailing prejudices, would not loan them money, the farms had to expand gradually. Farmers' associations and shipping coops also found a variety of hardships in their way.

Business associations for the hotel, barbering and laundry industries in Portland strived to maintain cordial relations with their white counterparts. Hotel and grocery owners especially kept close contact with labor unions to keep their operational policies and workers status up to par.

The Japanese American agricultural associations in Oregon emphasized markets outside the State, particularly in the eastern United States. Associations were formed for the growers of radishes, celery, peas, strawberries, cauliflower, and so forth. Quality control and improvement were strictly enforced by them. The associations also encouraged the Nisei to study business administration and agriculture at colleges and universities.

In agricultural areas, the Japanese in Oregon made a special effort to exist and prosper together with peoples of other ethnic extraction. They joined unions, cooperatives and civic groups wherever they could to try to strengthen social, cultural, and economic ties with the general community.

Just for being of Japanese extraction, and for being more industrious than others, however, they were also subjected to discrimination. As early as 1910, in the Hood River area where Japanese immigrant farmers had made the most progress, fear of Japanese economic growth caused the formation of the Oriental Exclusion League. The contribution to American industry by these immigrants was looked on with suspicion and fear.

Propaganda against the Japanese seemed to peak around 1918. In 1921, Kinya Ushijima, the San Francisco area potato king, proposed to buy 2,000 acres to grow seed potatoes, and anti-Japanese activities received renewed fuel. Ushijima was forced to give up his idea.

In 1922, Congress held immigration hearings in Seattle and Tacoma, which encouraged anti-Japanese forces. They became better organized. Attempts were made in 1917, 1919, and 1921 to pass an Alien Land Law, which was finally passed in 1923 and incorporated the worst features of both the California and Washington versions. Japanese Americans lost farms they had made produc-

tive. With their livelihood gone, families scattered to the four winds.

In 1925, only a week after the Fourth of July, a mob of 200 persons attacked a Japanese workers' camp at the Pacific Spruce Lumber Mills in Toledo. Five guards were injured, and the mob demanded that the Japanese leave immediately. Twenty-five men, two women, and four Filipinos were kidnaped and taken away. The mill had polled its white workers who expressed little objection to the company hiring 60 to 70 Japanese workers, but the local chamber of commerce and businessmen expressed vocal opposition.

The Oregon Japanese Association immediately investigated and wrote the authorities and the newspapers, correcting the mob's propaganda and asking for fair judgment from Toledo citizens. The Japanese foreign minister and the ambassador in Washington were also notified.

The company pressed for the arrest of mob leaders, but the district attorney refused to prosecute, giving lack of evidence as his excuse.

The Japanese association refused to give up. By patiently collecting evidence, it sued nine members of the attacking mob for $130,000 damages in September. Church leaders and the Oregon Lumber Dealers Alliance passed resolutions condemning the mob's violence.

The defendants asked for a settlement but would not agree to drop their objection to the Japanese returning to work. They resorted to demonstrations, propaganda, and sought the aid of politicians. On July 12, 1926, in the U.S. District Court in Portland, the Japanese won the case, receiving $2,500 damages and $5,500 court costs judgments.

Gradually, Japanese workers in the sawmills and cannery workers were able to join the AFL or CIO. Japanese American railroad workers had their own local, 1703, in 1921.

Japanese American fishing boats, based in Monterey and San Francisco, Calif., fished off the coast of Oregon, developing the so-called Astoria fishing industry. At first Oregon put a limit on catches and prohibited Japanese from fishing there. But the adverse effect of this limit on the industrial growth of the State was recognized in 1935, and fishing was reopened to these Japanese Americans in the Coos Bay-Astoria region. Fishing was done only during the summer daylight hours with a technique only well-understood by these fishermen of Japanese descent.

All in all, Mr. Speaker, it can easily be said that the Japanese immigrants who first came to Oregon contributed to the State's growth and development in a far greater proportion than their numbers would indicate. Overcoming a deep cultural barrier and stiff prejudice, these Japanese went on to become outstanding American citizens with a strong sense of accomplishment and true pride in this country. Their sons and daughters and grandchildren carry on this tradition today, and I am pleased to salute them.

Thank you.

HON. BROCK ADAMS
OF WASHINGTON

Mr. ADAMS. Mr. Speaker, we all know that the Japanese American Citizens League is holding its 22d biennial national convention in Washington, D.C. this week. What few may know is that the JACL was founded 42 years ago in Seattle, Wash., the area which I represent.

Japanese Americans have made invaluable contributions to our country. Today I would like to enumerate some of these which have particularly effected Washington State as well as the rest of the Pacific Northwest.

In 1885, when Japan lifted her emigration ban, many young male Japanese to the Pacific Northwest. Some were students, merchants, professionals, skilled workmen, and farmers. At first however, most were laborers. The demand for Japanese labor increased as the supply of Chinese laborers declined. Primarily they worked in railroading and lumbering. In 1892, a thousand Japanese were working on the Oregon Short Line. Lumbering firms were employing 30 percent of the adult male Japanese labor force. These men were paid lower wages than the other workers. Also in the early 1900's, salmon fishing and canning became a booming business. Japanese were providing 20 percent of the canning force in 1912.

Japanese people have made significant contributions to the agriculture of Washington State. The first Japanese farm of record was at Wapato in 1892. Most of the land which the Japanese cultivated had to be brought from its natural state which meant much back breaking toil. Yet, by 1920 the Japanese were supplying 75 percent of the region's vegetables in addition to exporting some. In 1927 these farmers shipped 83 percent of the region's total of lettuce and green peas to eastern cities.

Members of the Japanese community introduced the Japanese oyster to the waters of Puget Sound. In 1919 Emy Tsukimoto and Joe Miyagi formed a group to import 400 cases of Miyagi seed oysters which they scattered over 600 acres of Samish tidelands. The oysters thrived and in 2 years had grown to an unbelievable six inches in length. This was the start of an industry which is valued in excess of $100 million annually.

Some Japanese immigrants applied their talents to a new trade, that of dairying. By 1920, their dairies were providing half of Seattle's milk supply.

All of these accomplishments were made by people who faced strong discrimination and many immigration problems. There was the 1907 act later called the "Gentlemen's Agreement," the Washington Allen Land Acts of 1921 and 1923, and the Immigration Act of 1924. Then with the coming of World War II came the deplorable act of evacuation and detention in concentration camps of all Japanese, aliens and citizens alike. This shameful episode has been called by Supreme Court Justice Jackson, in his dissent on the Korematsu case, as "a great and evil blotch upon our national history." But finally in 1952, the Walter-McCarren Act gave the Japanese a chance, so long denied them, to become citizens and they did so in great numbers.

This country can well be proud of its Japanese members and their ancestors who have contributed so much. In the State of Washington they helped develop the economy in railroading, lumbering, salmon fishing, oyster growing, farming and dairying.

Mr. Speaker, I appreciate having the opportunity today to publicly recognize and applaud the contributions made by Japanese Americans.

HON. ORVAL HANSEN
OF IDAHO

Mr. HANSEN of Idaho. Mr. Speaker, probably few areas remain in the United States where traces of the old west and modern America are intertwined so closely as in Idaho. The spirit of pioneers who came in the early 1800's was rekindled in the early 1900's when the first Japanese came to Idaho. These Issei were true pioneers, having come with little or no knowledge of the customs of the land. The cultural shock of a new land was doubly intensified because most of these immigrants did not speak English. Yet, they stayed in Idaho, married, and raised their families, who today are an integral and highly respected part of Idaho society.

I am privileged to call as my personal friends and neighbors many Japanese Americans who live in my home State whose parents and grandparents we honor today in Congress.

The history of the Japanese in Idaho begins around 1891 when Tadahichi Tanaka contracted to supply workers for the Oregon Short Line between Huntington and Granger for the Union Pacific Railroad.

Tanaka moved his headquarters from Nampa to Pocatello and lived the life of baronial splendor in the style of Japanese construction bosses who also had a hand in gambling and prostitution. In the openhanded way of such bosses, he even built a Japanese hospital in Pocatello, but his excesses caught up with him and he later failed.

His work was taken up by others and developed the first era of prosperity for railroad workers in the early 1900's.

The move into agriculture followed later. A Japanese railroad boss named Moto Nishiyama with headquarters in Rock Springs, Wyo., talked the Idaho Sugar Refining Co., into employing Japanese. In 1903, the Nichibei Enterprise of San Francisco sent 150 or so workers from southern California for thinning work at Idaho Falls and Garland.

The first group could not get used to the severe cold weather, but a subsequent group of 16 to Idaho Falls and 20 to Garland fared better and built a reputation for good work that opened the way for other Japanese workers to follow.

In 1903, Nishiyama also got immigrants from Hawaii to work in the coal mines of Wyoming or on the railroads. These workers switched to sugar beet work during its busy seasons and built a foundation for Japanese in Idaho agriculture.

In east Idaho, Japanese started as railroad workers and sugar beet laborers and gradually transferred to growing sugar beets. The first farmers began about 1904. They first succeeded in growing the famous Idaho potatoes around 1911–12. By 1940, Japanese in the Idaho Falls area owned 1,396 acres of land and leased 3,462 more. Some 43 families numbering about 265 persons lived in the area at the time.

In 1912, the Japanese Association in the area moved to establish the right of Japanese aliens to own land, but the right was taken away less than 10 years later by Idaho's Alien Land Law. A 1922 move to take away their leasing rights, however, failed.

Pocatello has the oldest history of Jap-

anese in Idaho, but farming in the area did not begin until about 1912. By 1919, many Japanese were settling around Fort Hall and toward Tyhee, mainly engaged in growing potatoes. They did very well, and by 1926, there were many nouveau riche who owed their fortunes to the lowly spud. They were producing 70 percent of all the potatoes in Bonneville County.

In the Rexburg area, the Japanese came as contract workers for the sugar refineries in 1904, and at one time during the season, as many as 300 Japanese resided in the area. About one-third stayed permanently and went into agriculture.

In southern Idaho, Japanese came as early as 1890 as railroad workers. They did not go into agriculture until 1904 when the area's pioneer, Masazo Jyo helped develop Twin Falls. In 1909, he moved to Castleford and helped develop that area. A sugar refinery was built in Burley in 1910 which began to employ many Japanese. By 1940, about 150 Japanese lived in the area, cultivating about 2,000 acres of beans and potatoes, 700 of them their own. A faction in 1936 attempted to limit the size of Japanese farms to 80 acres, but the pioneer efforts of the Japanese in developing agriculture was well known, and the effort failed.

As the first headquarters of Japanese railroad workers in the western area of Idaho, Nampa was a swinging town in the 1890's. When the company moved to Pocatello, some workers stayed and opened restaurants and laundries while others turned to farming in nearby small towns.

With the establishment of the sugar refineries and the 1906 San Francisco earthquake, the town saw an influx of Japanese that year. Some 300 Japanese celebrated the emperor's birthday that year with a sumo tournament and other entertainment that had curious Americans come out to watch with picnic lunches.

Farming was begun around 1902, and World War I prosperity helped it grow. Onions, potatoes and celery were the main crops, and the Japanese were the first in the area to ship their produce to the east.

HON. SHERMAN P. LLOYD

OF UTAH

Mr. LLOYD. Mr. Speaker, I am honored to join my colleagues today in paying tribute to the contributions that Japanese Americans have made to this Nation. We who live in the Rocky Mountain area have been fortunate to have as our friends and neighbors many Japanese Americans who have contributed significantly to our localities as fine and responsible citizens.

It is also significant that Salt Lake City, Utah is the hometown of many of the top leaders of the Japanese American Citizens League.

As a Congressman who comes from a State that takes pride in the pioneer ancestors that settled and tamed a desert region to make it blossom ino a fertile haven for is inhabitants, I take special pride today in paying tribute to the pioneer generation of my friends of Japanese ancestry in the Rocky Mountain States who contributed so much to our intermountain States.

In 1900, there were only 395 Japanese in Wyoming. By 1910, the number had increased to 1,503—half of them railroad workers and half coal miners.

The earliest workers went into Rock Springs through a labor contractor named Gen Nishimoto.

In the northeast area in Sheridan, Kinya Okajima came in 1901 as a railroad labor supervisor. By 1910, Japanese laborers were working in seven mines stretching over 20 miles. They were able to join the miners' union in 1907 and earn from $2 to $4 for an 8-hour day, making from 25 to 63 cents a ton, which was good wages for those days.

Railroad workers in Wyoming came a few years after those in Montana, Idaho, and Utah. In 1903, Japanese labor contractors provided 250 workers for the Union Pacific Railroad in the Evanston area near the Utah border. In 1904, the labor contractors moved their headquarters to Cheyenne and sent workers as far out as North Platte, Nebr. They produced such good results that in 1905, Union Pacific sent Japanese to Colorado and eastern Nebraska.

Many Japanese immigrants were reemigrating from Hawaii and Mexico in those days, and at one time the labor contractors had as many as 3,000 workers on their rolls, but with reemigration from Hawaii prohibited in 1907 and railroad workers being attracted to farm and cannery work, the number gradually declined.

However, the excellent reputation established by Japanese on the railroad received recognition as after 1910, many were promoted to foremen.

As for farming, the number is small but the farms are mostly operated on a large scale in Worland and Powell to the north and Sheridan in the northeast. They started out as cattle ranches until in 1915, the Ujifusa Brothers in Worland began cultivating farm produce.

Shuichi Sam Ujifusa came to Worland in 1907 from Denver, intending to cattle ranch in the Big Horn Basin at a time when there were no roads there. He built up his herd to 570 heads. In 1915, he succeeded in growing beans and potatoes and in 1920 he went into sugar beets.

During the war when 10,000 Japanese from the west coast were interned at Heart Mountain near Cody, Ujifusa was called in as an agricultural consultant to help the center residents grow vegetables for their own use which were suited to the Wyoming soil. The vegetable farm begun by the camp internees is being carried on by the Ando Brothers.

The mining town of Kemmerer near Rock Springs has a large Japanese-operated laundry firm, whose large boiler provides the town with steam heat and a time whistle. In its heyday, Kemmerer had some 2,000 Japanese going in and out of town. In 1910, there was a Japanese-operated hotel, barber shop, pool hall, laundry, restaurants as well as a gambling hall and house of ill fame.

How they were recruited and brought over we have no way of knowing, but the earliest Japanese in Montana were prostitutes in Butte of whom there are records from 1884 to 1890. While we may not entirely approve of their mode of making a living, we have to give a nod to their sheer courage in coming to a strange land where very few of their ancestry and sex existed.

Japanese began coming in greater numbers in 1898 when a Japanese labor contracting firm, Toyo Trading Co., agreed to provide workers for the Great Northern Railroad Co. They also contracted with eight other railroads to provide workers and at one time were sending from 3,000 to 6,000 Japanese into Montana, Idaho, and North Dakota.

In Montana, the company had a branch office in Missoula and had from 1,000 to 2,000 Japanese working in the State. As sugar refineries became established all over the State, the Japanese were also welcomed as farmworkers, and some stayed on to work their own farms eventually. However, due to the severe cold, agriculture in Montana did not see the growth it did in other States.

In 1907, there were 1,920 Japanese in Montana, of whom 1,894 were men and 22 were women. The majority were railroad workers living in camps along the Great Northern and Northern Pacific Railroads, mainly in Missoula, Billings and Havre. The number decreased to 1,483 in 1915.

In 1915, Japenese were cultivating a total of 2,080 acres in Montana, all of it on a cash lease basis. The main product was sugar beets, with some pig farming and vegetables grown.

Japanese began growing sugar beets in 1906 when the Great Western Sugar Refinery was established in Billings. Several labor contractors went in together to provide some 200 workers for a 3,000-acre beet farm. About the same time, the Toyo Trading Co. sent a part of the workers it was supplying to railroads to Laurel. Both groups of workers established excellent work records and created a mood in the State to welcome Japanese workers. In 1907, another 50 to 60 workers came to Garbon County from Idaho.

It was in 1907 that Japanese who had confidence in their ability to grow sugar beets borrowed from banks and sugar refiners to begin farming for themselves. Joliet in Carbon County was the place. From about 1910, farmer Yataro Tankak grew beans as well as sugar beets with success, and other Japanese followed suit, growing about 70 percent sugar beets to 30 percent beans.

World War I brought sudden riches to many, but the depression following it plunged as many down. Some farmers changed to growing potatoes, melons, onion and cabbage with some success.

At about this time, Mokutaro Hori and others in Whitefish succeeded in growing celery and lettuce which until then were considered ungrowable in Montana.

In 1940, there were 21 Japanese families farming in the State, of whom 15 were tenant farmers. Altogether they cultivated about 3,360 acres, of which they owned 1,140 acres. Value of their annual yield was about $250,000.

The Missoula area at that time was a hotbed of yellow fever, and the 230 or so graves in the cemetery with Japanese names attest to the fact. The local medical association invited Dr. Hideyo Noguchi from the Rockefeller Research Institute in New York. Dr. Noguchi stayed 2 weeks and developed a vaccine to combat the fever. Kokichi Nakagawa, a pioneer farmer in the area, volunteered to be the first to test the vaccine. His courage convinced others to take the shots, too, and yellow fever deaths declined dramatically. Both Dr. Noguchi and Nakagawa are remembered gratefully by Missoula.

Great Falls, located east of the Rocky Mountains, was long notorious for its

persecution of Orientals. At about 1890, three Chinese came to town and opened a laundry. Two were pushed to their deaths in the falls, and one managed to escape the mob.

Japanese came to the area about 1901 when the Toyo Trading Co. sent workers to the Great Northern Railroad. White workers who resented their coming sent a lynch mob of cowboys one night and took the workers to Wolf Creek where they tied them up from the trees, and when the color in their faces changed, pulled them down and tortured them. Toyo Trading's president appealed to the governor at Helena, who had several of the cowboys arrested, but none were prosecuted.

A little before this time, a similar incident happened in the Cascade area. One Japanese brave named Hinotama-no-Bunkichi—Fireball Bunkichi—rode into Cascade by himself to challenge the cowboys, but was chased back to Havre.

By about 1930, however, the situation changed, and newcomers were welcomed; however, in the early 1900's, violence was frequent. There is a record of a large-scale shootout between Japanese railroad hands and cowboys in the town in Chester in the best—or worst—Hollywood western tradition in 1903.

Utah's Japanese history begins about the same way with Wyoming and Montana—that is, there are records of Japanese prostitutes being chased out by more moral Japanese about 1890.

However, Japanese did not arrive in appreciable numbers until 1903, much later than the three west coast States. In 1903, the Nichibei Employment Co. in San Francisco sent a group of workers to Garland as sugar beet laborers, about the same time similar workers were sent in to eastern Idaho. Japanese also began working in the mines at that time.

The first railroad workers also appeared in the early 1900's, working on the Oregon Shore Line, and others soon followed, working for Union Pacific, Southern Pacific, and others. At its peak, there were some 400 to 2,000 working on the railroad until immigration from Hawaii was prohibited in 1909.

Japanese first contracted to work at the Castlegate Mines in 1903–04, and their good record encouraged others to be hired at Sunnyside Mines in 1905, Kenilworth Mines in 1906, Clear Creek Mines in 1908, Moreland in 1909 as well as Winter Quarters, Black Fork Mines in 1911, Pierce Mines in 1917—all coal mines.

They began working at the famous open copper mine at Bingham in 1909. Hayao Oka, who contracted for the workers recalled that when he opened a restaurant in Salt Lake City in 1907, there were only a few Japanese there—two houses of ill fame and a handful of laborers.

Japanese first began agriculture outside Ogden in the Wilson Scene and Birch Creek area in 1902, growing onions, potatoes, and tomatoes. They gradually expanded to Tremonton, Honeyville, Brigham, Layton, Clearfield, and Roy near Ogden and from Salt Lake City to West Jordan, Murray, and Riverton.

By 1910, Japanese farmers were cultivating 5,550 acres of sugar beets, 464 acres of vegetables, 50 acres of hay, 53 acres of wheat, 5 acres of fruits, 10 acres raising chickens plus 207½ acres in miscellaneous products. They owned a total of 779 acres in 1910.

In urban centers, Ogden developed earlier than Salt Lake City, and by 1910, each had its share of businesses catering to the needs of other Japanese.

The years between 1910 and 1920 may be described as the "settling down" years, when Japanese changed from simple laborers to farmers and businessmen and those remaining in the mines and railroads being promoted to gang bosses and foremen. However, a 1930 survey indicates that the largest number of Japanese males were employed by the mines, followed by the railroads, with farming third and those employed in private homes fourth.

A unique pioneer in farming was Yasujiro Kasuga, who arrived in Utah in 1901 and eventually went into farming, specializing in strawberries around 1920. In those days, the berries grown were mainly of the "Marshal" variety, which had a tendency to soften quickly. Middlemen would take advantage of this weak point to dump the crops at low prices. His fighting spirit aroused, Kasuga decided to devote his life to improving Utah strawberries. This was in the depressed year of 1927.

It took him 10 years of experimentation before he developed the superior "20th Century" strain. Although he had a large family to support during the depression years, Kasuga never stinted on a chance to improve his strawberries. When a new plant cost $1 each, he would buy 12 when his family was existing for a whole week on nothing but biscuits.

His perseverance, patience, and determination to grow the best resulted in such notable varieties as "Miss Utah" and "Kasuga." Kasuga provided seed plants to other farmers, not only in Utah alone but in the west coast States, particularly in California. They were also shipped all over the United States and even to Europe. Kasuga also gave discounts to Japanese farmers and encouraged them to set up strawberry cooperatives.

In the Ogden area, a farmer named Oka first demonstrated his ability to contract with the Utah Canning Co. to grow tomatoes. By 1920, 75 percent of the tomatoes canned by the company were grown by Japanese farmers.

A 1909 survey showed that in north Utah, mainly around Ogden, Garland, Logan, and Lewiston, Japanese farmers were cultivating around 6,000 acres.

A 1923 survey showed that in Weber, Davis, Box Elder, and Cache counties, Japanese owned 1,453 acres and lease-farmed 7,379 acres more. They grew more than 20 varieties of crops.

The first Japanese came to Nevada early in 1900 as railroad workers. In Reno, a few Japanese were already working as servants in private homes in 1905. In 1907, Japanese were beginning to be hired at the McGill Copper Mine in East Nevada near the Utah border. They did not begin to show up at Las Vegas until about 1914–15.

Three miles out of Reno in a town called Sparks, which became a center for railroad workers, the Nichibei Employment Co. in San Francisco first sent out several hundred Japanese laborers in 1904.

With the decline in immigration, the Japanese population in the Reno area was reduced to about 30 to 40 families by 1940.

In Eastern Nevada, Japanese were mainly concentrated in White Pine County in the McGill, Ely, and Ruth areas. The Nichibei Co. also provided some 200 workers for the Nevada Northern Railroad to build a new line 140 miles south from Cobre in 1905. By the time the work was completed, there were about 20 Japanese in Ely working as house servants, making high wages for that time of $7 to $10 a day. With the development of the copper mines, there were about 150 Japanese working there. By 1940, however, there were only 15 or so Japanese left.

In 1912, the Japanese first began working at Guggenheim's famous Nevada copper mines, which were opened in 1907. Some 250 workers were sent into McGill and Ruth.

The Japanese population in White Pine County in 1941 just prior to the war was about 40 in McGill, 35 at the Nevada Northern Railroad camp and 35 in the Ely area.

In southern Nevada, the Union Pacific Railroad brought in several hundred Japanese workers from Salt Lake City in 1904, but by 1910, the number had declined to about 40 to 50.

In 1913, a San Bernardino, Calif., farmer named Yonema Tomiyasu, discouraged by the passage of the California Alien Land Law, looked for new areas to conquer in Las Vegas. Finding a welcome, he purchased 40 acres in the desert where no one had even thought of farming. Winding up his affairs in San Bernardino, he returned to Las Vegas in 1915 and began years of painstaking, bitter labor.

In a desert domain like Las Vegas, no one thought there would be a water hole, but Tomiyasu, after years of trial and error, discovered one in the outskirts of town and bought 160 acres to go into farming. He raised vegetables before the war, switched to chicken and turkey farming during the war to supply meat for a nearby Army base and after the war began a nursery. The town named a Tomiyasu Lane in his honor.

On a more personal note, Mr. Speaker, may I conclude by saying that Utah has been blessed by the rich contributions made to our State by our people of Japanese ancestry. They have contributed order, industry, cleanliness, active citizenship, and self-control as individuals in such measure that they have put into our society more than they have taken out and we are the better because of their contributions to the welfare of all of us.

HON. K. GUNN McKAY
OF UTAH

Mr. McKAY. Mr. Speaker, on a bright summer day a slender young man with straight black hair and dressed as a working farmer gazed across the sun-drenched land. By his side stood a wisp of a girl, straight-backed and vibrant. Her eyes eagerly followed his outstretched arm and she heard him say, with hope in his voice and a dream in his eyes, "This will be our home." It was the summer of 1912 in the State of Utah. This young couple belonged to the latest group of immigrants to come to America from far-off Japan.

He was one of several thousand immigrants from Japan who did not settle in the fertile, productive valleys on the

west coast but sought the challenges of the more vigorous climate of the Rocky Mountains. Many of his associates went off to work in the coal mines of Price and Helper, while others sought employment in the copper mines in Bingham Canyon. Some of his friends became railroad men maintaining the vast network of Union Pacific tracks that the Chinese and Irish immigrants had built in the previous century. Some of the more enterprising immigrants became small shopkeepers, rooming house operators, and diverse small businessmen in Salt Lake City and Ogden. A goodly number of the Japanese settlers turned to the land and wrested a meager living by growing crops on the reluctant alkaline soil of Utah and in the process they were instrumental in making the desert bloom.

They all came with high hopes of attaining success in a new land. Some had fled from political or religious oppression, others came strictly as adventurers, but most came to America to improve their economic lot. The women in the group never numbering more than a thousand or so in Utah, came later after the men where established. Many came as picture brides to strange and unknown men in a strange and alien land. Wherever and to whomever they came, these gentle women from the Far East brought warmth and stability and a semblance of family life. Though handicapped by language differences, and confronted with racial and ethnic antagonism, and hampered by the fact that being the latest of the immigrant groups to appear in America, they had to compete with earlier arrivals who had already established themselves, these sturdy, hard working Japanese immigrants contributed significantly to the early development of western America.

In the State of Utah the development of the mines, the establishment of the sugar factories and the tomato canneries, the marketing of vegetable crops and the maintenance of the railroads; all basic industries in the early growth of Utah, were aided and enhanced by the labor and the ingenuity of the first generation Japanese immigrants.

Perhaps more important than the material progress was the transmission of the cultural identity, the spirit and the essence of the East to enrich the great Western civilization. For to these hardworking Japanese men and gentle Japanese women were born sons and daughters in whose veins flowed the cultural heritage and traditions of old Japan, and yet as full fledged citizens of America, who were ready and anxious to participate in the great experiment to forge a new nation dedicated to the principle of individual freedom and dignity and equal opportunity for all. The Nisei—second generation—children learned early in life from their Issei parents the necessity of work, the meaning of honor and integrity, the value of education, the importance of excellence. Though oftentimes unaware of it, there existed in their selves an innate sensitivity to beauty and artistry and gentle spirituality that characterized much of their ancestors' civilization.

In the State of Utah, for nearly a half century, the Japanese immigrants from Japan and their American born family lived in peace and cordiality amongst their Mormon neighbors who also had experienced in their early history extreme persecution and hardship and almost insurmountable odds. So when disaster struck on December 7, 1941, and war was declared between their own country and the country of their forefathers, the Japanese Americans in Utah, with the exception of a few isolated incidents, were given very sympathetic treatment. Unlike the west coast where unreasoned hysteria and economic opportunism forced the government to mass evacuation and detention of all persons of Japanese descent, Japanese-Americans in Utah and Idaho were allowed to maintain their family life and their business enterprises with no restriction except those imposed by wartime necessity on all people.

Most young Japanese Americans served in the armed services with valor and honor. The older parent groups, except for the few who were incarcerated as potentially dangerous enemy aliens, worked hard producing the food and fiber for the war effort or in the many service-oriented businesses in which they were engaged. Ogden and Salt Lake City became the mecca for voluntary evacuees from the west coast and for those who came out of the relocation centers, headed for the Midwest and East. National Japanese American organizations such as the Buddhist Church of America and most notably the Japanese American Citizens League established in Salt Lake City their headquarters for the duration of the war. Salt Lake City was the birthplace of the Pacific Citizen, the weekly publication of the JACL. The late Larry Tajiri, with poignant realism, documented and published the plights and the pleas of war tormented Japanese Americans, thereby pricking the conscience of America and also rallying the morale of his people. Here also was organized under the astute and compassionate leadership of Hito Okada, the National JACL Credit Union to alleviate the financial problems besetting the Japanese American population.

Throughout this trying wartime period, the Japanese Americans living in Utah and nearby Idaho as a district council of the JACL contributed immeasurably in terms of finances, manpower, leadership and plain good public relations work to further the cause of the Japanese Americans in America. Today, in 1972, the sons and daughters of the original Japanese immigrants in Utah are involved in every facet of community life. In most vocational and professional fields, in many types of organizations, civic, religious, business, political or service oriented, there are Japanese Americans participating usually with responsibility and often with distinction. As the grandchildren of the original Japanese immigrants, still in school and just now coming of age begin to fulfill their individual destinies, no doubt the contributions of the Japanese Americans in Utah to the total community life will become greater and greater and hopefully more and more significant.

This week, the members of the Japanese American Citizens League are met in a biennial convention in the Nation's Capitol. Though representing a relatively small segment of the total American population, the JACL through the years has been instrumental in influencing many significant legislations, court decisions, and national policies, especially those pertaining to Japanese Americans and other minority groups. Significantly for Utah and for the original band of Japanese immigrants in Utah, a goodly number of the leaders of JACL both past, present and hopefully the future hail from Utah. In Mike Masaoka, one-time executive director of JACL, war correspondent for the famed 442 all Nisei regimental combat teams, and later Washington representative for JACL, the JACL has had a leader and spokesman of unparalleled skill and devotion. A man of vision, a man with courage for his convictions and a man with unequaled eloquence with which to implement his visionary convictions, Mike Masaoka exemplifies the spirit, the goal, and the success of JACL in the past third of a century.

Presently, Raymond Uno, a Salt Lake City attorney, community leader, and an untiring advocate of a strong and viable JACL, is serving as national president of this organization.

For the future, young David Ushio, a Sansei, whose grandfather tilled the virgin Utah soil, represents, as the new Washington Representative, the potential hope for an organized effort in the Japanese American cause.

Three men of differing age and era, yet devoted to the same common cause and all springing from the loins of the original Japanese immigrants to Utah, honor the memory of those intrepid pioneers, and strengthen the belief that the hopes and dreams and the aspirations of any man or group of men can someday be fulfilled.

HON. FRANK E. EVANS
OF COLORADO

Mr. EVANS of Colorado. Mr. Speaker, I welcome the opportunity to speak in praise of our native born and naturalized Japanese American citizens.

We are all aware of the sacrifices under arms in defense of our country these people have made and we are all aware of the sacrifices in rights, dignity and possessions many have made in the past, and I do not refer solely to the period of World War II.

Their industriousness, patience, forbearance, and yet determination in seeking redress of wrongs, does credit to us all as Americans. I speak with specific knowledge of some Japanese Americans residing in my Third Congressional District as well as Colorado in general.

While the history of the Japanese on the Pacific Coast is relatively well known, most Americans are unaware that the Japanese also made many and great contributions to the development of the intermountain region. Like the Chinese, the Japanese helped build the transcontinental railroads that crossed the Rocky Mountains. And, they also worked the mines in this area, as they did the farmlands.

Today, there are almost 8,000 Americans of Japanese ancestry in the State of Colorado alone, compared to a few more than 2,000 in the pre-World War II era. The reason for this recent increase is largely attributable to the fact that many evacuees left the War Relocation Authority camp at Ameche and moved to Denver and other communities in my State. Because they were welcomed in most places and because they found opportunities which callenged them, many stayed on long after the west coast exclusion ban was lifted.

The first Japanese in Colorado was an educated man. Tadaatsu Matsudaira, younger brother of Baron Matsudaira,

head of the Uyeda Clan in Central Japan, completed his education in Virginia in 1872 and worked as an engineering specialist with the Union Pacific Railroad and with the State Department of Mines. In 1886, he became an assistant to State Inspector of Mines John McNeil. He married Virginia Sampson, daughter of the superintendent of the State men's reformatory. He died 2 years later at 33 years of age. His son, Kinnosuke Matsudaira, later became mayor of Edmondston, Md. The Oriental Cultural Society of Denver built a monument to the elder Matsudaira in 1952.

Several Japanese were noted in Denver as early as 1893, which was often a stopping off place for those who were bound for the east coast to earn their further fare by staying and working for a year or so.

The number increased gradually by 1897–98. Most of the Japanese were working as house servants. A bamboo ware store was opened in 1897 and a restaurant in 1898. In 1900, the number of Japanese in Denver was 48. By 1910, the number jumped up to 2,300, due to the influx of railroad and farmworkers. The number increased slightly to 2,464 in 1920 and to 3,213 in 1930 and dipping to 2,724 in 1940.

A remarkable pioneer for any State was Naoichi Tozono, who came to Denver in 1819 and started a bamboo ware store as well as a restaurant. He had his eye on the vast possibilities of agriculture and went on a tour of North Colorado. He reported his glowing findings in a San Francisco vernacular, which stimulated three Japanese to lease 200 acres in Rockyford to try their hand at sugar beets and cantaloupes.

Although the effort ended in failure, it did not discourage Tozono from contracting for farm laborers in the Greely area. He also began contract farming sugarbeets on 1,200 acres which soon grew to 2,000 acres. His Tozono Construction Co. continued to grow, and he provided a large number of laborers for the Moffett Railroad as well as the Majestic Mining Co.

At that time, a 360-mile U.S. highway was being built atop the Rocky Mountain National Park. The section between 10,759-foot Sylnar Pass at the Continental Divide to Grand Lake was contracted by Tozono, who used two teams of Japanese workers to complete the difficult job. One point on the highest area in the United States thus has a memorial pyramid to mark the blood and sweat contributed by Japanese labor. During this difficult construction work, 30 or more workers lost their lives in handling dynamite.

Tozono also contracted to build the water works for the town of Trinidad and his contruction teams worked on the construction of the Roosevelt Dam in Wyoming.

In addition, he connected the powerplant at Boulder with Denver by constructing 80 miles of high tension wire towers to provide 350,000 Denver residents with light and power.

At one time at the Union Station in Denver, there was a special warehouse for the Tozono Construction Co. where sometimes as many as 400 horses were tied up. When Tozono would return to town in his special railroad car at the head of 500 or so workers, the town looked as though a festival was in progress.

The period between 1900 and 1905 saw the largest increase in the Japanese population. A 1909 survey showed that 3,555 Japanese resided in Colorado, 55 of them women and children.

By occupation, they were distributed as follows:

Railroads, 400; coal mines, 300; factories, 150; private homes, 500; general labor market, 1,500; independent businesses, 150; farms, 500.

Agricultural acreage cultivated by the Japanese increased by leaps and bounds in the 3 years between 1907 and 1909—from 1,909 acres in 1907 to 18,500 acres in 1909.

In 1909, the crops were divided as follows:

Sugar beets, 8,726 acres; vegetables, 4,181 acres; cantaloupe, 597 acres; grains, 2,247 acres; hay and feed, 2,612 acres; corn, 100 acres; miscellaneous, 65 acres.

Japanese owned 510 acres, which was unusual for that time, leased-farmed 10,000 acres, and sharecropped 8,000 acres.

Discrimination against the Japanese began to pick up some momentum around 1907, and the Oriental Expulsion Society was formed in 1908. With no intention to take it lying down, the Colorado Japanese Association, with the help of fair-minded white friends as Dr. Albert L. Bennett, conferred with newspapers and labor unions which expressed unfriendly opinions, talked to the police and asked protection, hired five special detectives to make a watchful round of Japanese areas and in addition, circulated the following list of suggestions for the Japanese themselves:

* Don't frequent houses of ill fame, gambling houses and other unsavory places; * When walking in public, keep a good posture and don't talk or laugh in loud tones; * Don't go in a large group anywhere without a definite purpose and don't loiter around dangerous areas or in crowds; * Don't stagger around drunk in public; * Hotels and restaurants should close by 11 p.m. Do not allow loud singing or playing of samisen, bothering the neighborhood and preventing sleep; * Don't show a rebellious attitude toward whites without cause; * Don't attract the white's attention by wearing dirty clothes or carrying dirty things; * Do not look for jobs where you may replace a white; * Do not carry pistols or knives; * Always carry a whistle and be prepared at all times.

Although the heyday of the Japanese in Colorado was from 1900 to 1910, they were still making their mark in agriculture. A 1933 survey showed that one-third of all of Colorado's vegetables were produced by Japanese farmers; seven-tenths of the cantaloupes and one-fourth of the sugar beets. It was also notable that Colorado Japanese farmers mostly owned the land they worked.

Outside of Denver, Japanese appeared in the Brighton, Ft. Lupton area in 1903 with sugarbeet workers supplied by Tozono. Many more arrived in 1905 and began cultivating tomatoes, cauliflower, peas, and cucumber. By 1909, celery was introduced.

Tozono also supplied workers to the Greeley area in 1903. The Japanese worker, quick and clever with his hands, soon found a welcome. By 1909, they were beginning to try their own hand in farming potatoes and sugarbeets.

In the Eaton-Ault area, there were at first more Japanese workers than the Greeley area. In 1906, the area was known as the Yamato Colony.

West of the Rocky Mountains, most Japanese gathered in the Delta-Grand Junction area. The first settlers were farm workers in the apple and peach orchards in the Montrose area. At one time there were as many as 250 Japanese workers in the area.

In addition to farming, some Japanese contracted to dig irrigation ditches atop Grand Mesa and in the Uncompahgre Valley. Later they began farming sugar beets and potatoes in the Montrose area and stayed until 1920.

They were mainly small farmers in the Delta area, most numerous and prosperous from 1912 to 1913 when 70 to 80 families developed the Uncompahgre Valley.

In Grand Junction, many of the original railroad workers transferred to farming about 1909. The years 1922 and 1923 were the best years, with 50 to 60 families farming in the area.

In south Colorado, 35 laborers first came to work on the sugarbeet farms around Rockyford in 1903. Several stayed on and went into farming for themselves, producing cantaloupes as well as sugarbeets. The area became notable for its Japanese-produced cantaloupes in later years.

Farmworkers arrived in Crowley, Ordway, Olney Springs area in 1906 and were sharecropping sugarbeets and cantaloupes by 1909. Later they grew hay and feed crops, wheat, and apples as well.

Japanese arrived first as farmworkers in Swink in 1905 from Hawley. In 1907, a sugar refinery was built there, and 80 Japanese workers were hired. They made $65 a month, working a 10-hour day at $1.75 a day. Thinning sugarbeets started at $6.50 an acre; topping, $7.

Japanese came to La Junta as railroad workers in 1900. About 20 workers were employed at the roundhouse there in 1906. With the establishment of a sugar refinery, Japanese went into farming sugarbeets, later adding cantaloupes and Spanish onions, the latter started around 1927.

They were also found in Las Animas, Lamar, Wiley, Granada, Hawley, and as steelworkers in Pueblo. Ft. Morgan, Merino, Atwood, Julesburg, and Sedgwick were other areas where Japanese were farming.

In the San Luis Valley, Japanese were workers on the Rio Grande Railroad in 1910. In 1925, a colony of Japanese arrived from Stockton, Calif., and began farming vegetables such as lettuce, cauliflower, carrots, and spinach as well as the more traditional sugarbeets and potatoes. In 1960, the Mizokami Brothers alone in Blanca were shipping 400,000 bushels of spinach annually.

HON. MORRIS K. UDALL
OF ARIZONA

Mr. UDALL. Mr. Speaker, Japanese American citizens have long been noted and admired for their willingness to work hard and conquer adversity. Nowhere has this characteristic been more significant than in the development of the Southwest, a land that makes extreme demands on those who would win it.

On this, the occasion of the 1972 National Japanese American Citizens League Convention, I would like to point out a few of the contributions that the Japanese have made to the States of Arizona, New Mexico, and Texas.

Noted as gardeners, the Japanese have made various areas of Arizona, including the Salt River Valley bloom with flowers and vegetables since 1905. By 1930 about

4,000 acres were being cultivated by Japanese farmers.

One, Hachiro Ohnuki prospected for water rather than gold in 19th century Arizona. He dug wells and provided water so successfully that in 1886 he and two associates were granted a franchise to provide lights for the city of Phoenix. He also operated a transportation company that provided the city with streetcars.

In New Mexico the first Japanese families came to work as miners, railroad hands and house servants. From there they branched out into agriculture, in areas suited to sugar beets and fruit growing. Some started their own businesses. One Japanese American, Geneta Kimura, worked for 46 years for the Santa Fe Railroad before retiring with honor in 1946.

Kimura like all members of the Japanese American community had to overcome prejudice and suspicion to succeed in their adopted land, particularly during the war years of the 1940's.

But their tenacity and unwillingness to give up in the face of overwhelming problems, stood them in good stead, for they identified with this demanding land.

A stone monument which stands near a grove of trees near the Alamo shrine in San Antonio, Tex., serves as a good example.

On the monument is carved a poem by a Japanese scholar named Shigetaka Shiga, who traveled through Texas in 1899. In the saga of the defenders of the Alamo, Shiga recognized the bravery exemplified by the Japanese word "bushido," the way of the Samurai. His tribute to that brave handful of men should be matched by our admiration today for his countrymen, who with their unquenchable spirit have made this Nation a better place.

HON. SIDNEY R. YATES
OF ILLINOIS

Mr. YATES. Mr. Speaker, as my colleagues who have preceded me in outlining the history of the Japanese in this country have indicated, most of the early immigrants located themselves on the west coast and in the intermountain States. Those involved in developing trade relations between Japan and the United States understandably located themselves not only on the Pacific Coast but also in New York and New England, as well as Philadelphia.

Not many chose to live in the midwest.

After the 1942 wartime military evacuation of Japanese Americans from the west coast States and after the War Relocation Authority developed a procedure under which many of these evacuees could leave the centers on work leave, however, thousands of Americans of Japanese origin relocated to the many cities in this area.

Chicago was a amost attractive haven to these evacuees who, with the help of resettlement committees, were able to find jobs and housing in the metropolitan regions. Prior to the outbreak of World War II, there were less than a hundred Japanese in Chicago. By the time the war ended, there were more than 30,000 evacuees in Chicago alone, which was more by far than any other city in the nation.

Other midwest cities which welcomed the evacuees included Cleveland, Detroit, St. Louis, Minneapolis–St. Paul, Milwaukee, and Cincinnati.

While most of the evacuees left the midwest and returned to their former homes and associations on the Pacific Coast after the war, many remained in the communities which had befriended them in the time of their tragedy. So Chicago, for instance, still is the home for more than 15,000 Japanese Americans and thereby qualifies in the top five American cities in the size of its Japanese population.

In many other cities too where they relocated evacuees have remained to add their contributions to the progress of these communities. So, in the past quarter of a century, the midwest has come to know and respect those of Japanese ancestry as fellow citizens of the United States.

And, with the increased trade with Japan, and with the opening of the St. Lawrence Seaway, Chicago has become the hub of Japanese business for the mid-continent region. With the exception of perhaps four ports, Chicago now does more business with Japan than any others in the entire country.

But, back to the early history of the Japanese pioneers to the midwestern States.

Most Japanese who lived on the west coast States after immigrating to the United States never knew the length and breadth of the land they adopted until they were transported willy-nilly to the inland states during World War II. However, some adventurous Japanese had left some footprints in the midwest before the turn of the century.

When the World's Fair was held in Chicago in 1892, there were oriental goods stores operated by Japanese in St. Paul. It is also speculated that a few came to Minnesota as chefs for railroad executives. The longest-lasting of these art goods store was the one operated by Tometaro Kitagawa, who was a 1911 civil engineering graduate of the University of Wisconsin. He opened his art goods store in Minneapolis in 1917 and continued until 1939.

Dr. Kano Ikeda, a longtime resident of St. Paul, came to the United States in 1904. He earned his M.D. at the University of Michigan and taught at Macallester College and the University of Minnesota. Most of his medical research, however, was dohe at Miller Hospital in St. Paul. He was a noted pathologist who published more than 40 papers in his lifetime. He died in 1960 at 74 years of age.

Another oldtime resident of Minneapolis was Yoshinosuke Yamasaki who wanted to be a musician and headed toward New York after the San Francisco earthquake. He volunteered for the Navy and was a steward on the U.S.S. *Maine*. He came to Minneapolis in 1914 and in 1919 opened a tea store.

Jiro Akamatsu, operator of the only Japanese art goods store in St. Paul, came to the city in 1935 and took over the store that had been operated by Chugo Yasui for more than 25 years. While Kitagawa's shop in Minneapolis was boycotted and forced to close in 1939, Akamatsu's store was open throughout the war.

The only farming activity by a Japanese in the area was done by Yukihiko Butsuen from Model, Iowa, who used to plant and harvest 2,300 acres of onions from about 1920 to 1930.

When the Nicolet Hotel was built in 1904 in Minneapolis, 12 Japanese workers were brought from Portland, Ore., several years later to work there, but the severe winters made them go back.

During World War II, Minnesota was the home of Camp Savage and Fort Snelling where from 1942 to 1946, about 6,000 Japanese, Korean and Chinese soldiers in the U.S. Army studied the oriental languages there before serving in the Pacific as interpreters and translators.

During the war, Minneapolis received many evacuees who relocated there from the concentration camps. Some 44 percent found work in private homes.

As has been mentioned in the history of the Japanese in Central California, the International Chick Sexing Association which began in Fresno, Calif., was moved to Mankato, Minn., during the war and the continues to supply chick sexors to South and North Dakota, Wisconsin, Illinois and Iowa as well as Minnesota.

In 1900, there was exactly one Japanese recorded as living in South Dakota in contrast to 148 the same year in North Dakota. The Japanese population consisted primarily of railroad workers who came from Washington through Montana and thence to North Dakota.

The cold and harsh climate was not suitable for farming, which was the main reason so few Japanese settled in the two States. A 1914 survey showed that in North Dakota, there were three Japanese engaged in farming, one operating a hotel and one a restaurant. There were 10 in household work, 51 working on the railroad and 15 others in miscellaneous work, including farm labor and cannery work.

In South Dakota in 1914, there were nine Japanese in household work, 35 working for the railroads, six on farms and a few more in miscellaneous fields.

Some Japanese also came to the Dakotas as miners.

During World War II, several hundred Japanese internees were quartered at Bismarck, N. Dak.

Although one of the richest agricultural areas in the country, Iowa had few Japanese residents. There were seven Japanese recorded as living in the State in 1900, and the number had only increased to 29 by 1940.

About the only notable exception was the aforementioned Butsuen, who leased about 4,200 acres from the Wisconsin governor and grew potatoes and corn from 1920 to about 1931. Other Japanese in the State were mainly chick sexors.

During World War II, the city of Des Moines was one of the most hospitable to evacuees who were resettling out of the concentration camps. By 1944, 45, there were as many as 60 to 70 Japanese families residing there, but the number has dwindled in recent years.

Not many Japanese have left their marks in Kansas, either, although in the early 1900s, there were some farmers in the Garden City area near the Colorado border.

Kansas City has long been noted as a center for bridge-building technology. The presence there of Dr. Wardell, who had taught at the Imperial University in Tokyo as the first foreign professor

there stimulated many Japanese engineers to come to Kansas City to continue their studies there from about 1897 to 1910.

A Japanese art goods store was established in 1900, and a large group of Japanese were imported as strike breakers at the Armour Cannery during the 1904 strike. Several more Japanese—about 80 to be exact—were brought in in 1907 to the Armour plant, but the cold winters and hot summers did not encourage them to stay.

By 1910, there were three art goods stores, three restaurants, a boarding house and a tea house in Kansas City. An unusual success story was that of 27-year-old Kiichi Harada, who became manager of the transportation department for the Kemper Grain Co. Also unusual was Dr. Kenkichi Furiuchi, who opened his dental office in 1925 and contributed greatly to Japanese and American societies until his death in 1960.

Farming in the Garden City area began about 1907 when some railroad labor contractors leased land from the United Sugar Refinery and a landowning company to begin growing sugar beets. Some 60 Japanese were engaged in farming, but they almost starved because the inexperience and bad weather conditions, particularly in the windy Lake area. Aided by the famous Tozono of Denver, they managed to hang on, and harvested a good crop in 1909. By 1910, they were working 1,800 acres in the area.

Japanese began to arrive in Missouri about 1904, stimulated by the World's Fair in St. Louis when for the first time the Japanese Government allotted a budget of $30,000 to participate, built a Japanese pavilion and sent some 400 to introduce Japanese arts, crafts and other skills. Some 40 to 50 of them stayed on after the fair and opened game parlors, bamboo ware stores and Japanese art goods shops in the Forest Park Highland area, but the majority who stayed went into household employment. Takuma Kajihara, who had a reputation as one of the seven best photographers in the United States, came from Seattle to open his studio in 1904.

During the war, there were as many as 400 Japanese families who settled temporarily in Missouri, but the number dwindled to about 180 families in 1960.

In recent years, a branch of Ikebana International has been established in St. Louis by Mmes. Toki Ema and Sachiko Eto. Paul Mauryama, who opened an art goods store in 1954, also conducted naturalization classes for Issei and war brides and had an abacus course added to the elementary school curriculum.

During the war, several Japanese families relocated in a group to two plantations in the southeast area of the state where they were treated well. They grew cantaloupes successfully, but did not do so well with the onions and celery.

Japanese in Oklahoma are located mainly in Oklahoma City, Tulsa and Bartlesville. Most of them arrived from 1930 to 1941. There were 57 Japanese residing in the state in 1940—nine families engaged in vegetable farming, about 10 persons in household work, three operating businesses, two working in factories and one a professional.

Arkansas is a State which had one of the fewest number of Japanese living there before World War II. During the war, it was the locale for two concentration camps, Jerome and Rohwer.

Early settlers in Illinois of Japanese ancestry were mainly stimulated by the 1893 Chicago World's Fair and the 1904 St. Louis World's Fair to come to the area. They stayed on to open art goods stores, restaurants and similar enterprises. One, Kinji Shigeta, became a noted photographer and was one of only five photographers from throughout the world who were selected honorary members of the U.S. Photographers Association.

In 1940, there were 390 Japanese living in Chicago. Among their enterprises, there were 12 gift shops and 21 restaurants.

With World War II, Chicago became a hospitable center for west coast evacuees who were looking for a place to settle, since it had the most jobs to offer.

In 1944, the population took a jump to 2,300, which by 1945 increased still further to 23,000. The 1960 figures are 29,000.

By 1948, there were 300 Japanese-operated businesses, headed by hotels and apartments. They represented an investment of $2,600,000.

The 600 to 1500 blocks on North Clark Street came to be known as the Japanese area in Chicago. Japanese out of concentration camps provided needed wartime labor for many small and medium sized manufacturing enterprises.

Among the larger wartime employers were the Stevens; Edgewater Beach and Sherman Hotels; International Harvester Corp.; Curtiss Candy Co.; the stockyards; Marshall Fields; Sears, Roebuck and Montgomery Wards; all of whom had from 100 to 300 Japanese workers.

An outstanding success story was that of Harry Torao Hidaka, who came out of Granada Relocation Center to Chicago in 1945 with five children and $400 in his pocket. He opened a modest cleaning store, and with the help of a bank president who had his eye on Hidaka's increasing business, his Sun Cleaners grew to 25 branches in 1960.

A tea boom in 1910 brought several Japanese to Cleveland, Ohio, but the area did not have too many Japanese residents until World War II when it accepted many relocatees.

At its peak, there were about 3,000 Japanese, but the number declined to about 1,000 by 1948. An amazing statistic for these wartime resettlers is the fact that 80 percent or more own their own homes now. An outstanding success story of one of them is Tom Sashihara, formerly of Los Angeles, who now operates his own Great Lakes Pharmaceutical Company in Cleveland.

An unusual early Japanese settler in Cincinnati was Etsuko Sugimoto, who came in 1899 when she was 26 years old to marry an antique shop owner to whom her family had betrothed her earlier. She was married at the home of Olympid J. Wilson, brother of President Woodrow Wilson, and later wrote a best seller, "Daughter of a Samurai," which was published by the Wilson-Hinke Publishing Co. It was translated into seven languages. After her husband died in 1909, Mrs. Sugimoto lectured in Japanese cultural history at Columbia University.

Another early settler of note was Tani Shiroyama, who worked at the Lookwood Pottery Co., producers of quality ceramic ware. He worked there for 50 years and died in 1950 at age 90.

Other notable Japanese in Cincinnati include Shiro Tashiro, who became assistant professor of physiology at the University of Cincinnati in 1918; Ruby Hirose, who earned her doctorate there in 1930, one of the earliest Japanese women to do so. She later worked for a chemical company, and when another Japanese stole a prized formula from the firm, Miss Hirose felt the "haji" so keenly that she worked 1 year without pay; and Associate Professor Takeo Tamura, who earned his doctorate in 1935 in bacteriology, and in spite of his alien status, was asked to do secret research for the army.

The war years increased the number of Japanese in Cincinnati to about 300 to 400 in 1947. By 1960, however, there were only about 70 families left, of whom 90 percent owned their own homes. Most of them are employed in professional capacities.

In the Dayton area, there are about 25 families, mainly professional people with the veterans' hospital or the Air Force. A notable Nisei success is Mas Yamazaki, sales manager for the Borden Milk Co.

In Columbus, Bill Ishida runs a successful vegetable packing firm, and Kazuo Kawai is on the faculty at the University of Ohio.

In Vermillion, Bob Okagi operated the Okagi Restaurant since 1909. He attained the position of 32d degree mason in the masonic lodge and even ran for mayor at one time. He retired before the war and returned to Japan after the war.

The earliest Japanese in Detroit was probably Dr. Jokichi Takamine, who gave his digestive medicine discovery to the Parke-Davis Pharmaceutical Co. and was associated with the firm's founding. He was followed at the company by Tatsuzo Ohno, who died in 1942.

A locomotive builder named Hatashita, who came to the United States for the St. Louis Exposition in 1904, went to work for the American Car Foundry Co. He returned to Japan in 1921.

A pioneer who stayed was Tadae Shimoura, who arrived in 1912 with vast dreams of becoming an automotive engineer. He was recommended to Henry Ford, for whose company Shimoura worked 21 years. Mainly interested in research, he was even sent to the Amazon to do research on rubber and was one of two scientists kept by Ford during the depression. He later left the automobile industry and went into business for himself, providing chop suey material to restaurants in the area.

In 1940, there were from 75 to 100 Japanese in Detroit, but the number increased to about 4,000 between 1943 and 1946. The number has declined to about 1,200 currently.

Notable Japanese in the Detroit area include Roy Sugimoto, who earned his doctorate from Purdue University and heads the research department at a Standard Oil Co. subsidiary; outstanding architect Min Yamasaki; auto company executive Frank Watanabe and engineer Min Togasaki, engineer with Wayne County Bridge Department.

Only a few Japanese lived in Milwaukee before the war, mainly as house-

hold help. A notable pioneer is Dr. Rin Murakami, who came to the United States in 1908 and to Minneapolis in 1910 to study mechanical drafting. In 1916, he became a chiropractor. In 1923, he was graduated from the Missouri Medical School and worked for many years as a physiotherapy specialist at Milwaukee Hospital.

An old pioneer family in the Madison, Wis., area is the Henry Toki family. Toki began farming vegetables in the Madison suburbs in 1921.

The University of Wisconsin was one of the most hospitable of State universities to Japanese students during World War II. Several Japanese are on the faculty now, notably Dr. Otto Uyehara in mechanical engineering.

Mr. Speaker, this is not a complete list. The Japanese Americans have the admiration and respect of the communities in which they live as constructive, hardworking and friendly citizens.

HON. CLAUDE PEPPER
OF FLORIDA

Mr. PEPPER. Mr. Speaker, there never have been many Japanese in the South, but it can be said that they contributed far more than their numbers would suggest to the economic and cultural development of the southeastern States. Moreover, the increase in their numbers since World War II suggests that many of them found a welcome in this region from their wartime camps that caused them to remain here long after the Army lifted the exclusion orders and they could have returned to their former homes and associations on the west coast.

In 1940, there were only 150 Japanese Americans in Florida, according to the census, and today there are more than 4,000. Georgia had only 31 some 30 years ago, with almost 2,000 now. Alabama is another example, with 21 in 1940 and 1,079 today. In Louisiana, there were only nine in the whole State; now, there are 1,130. In Mississippi, there used to be only one, today, there are almost 500. In South Carolina, there were 33, while today there are almost a thousand.

Though small in number and little known, the Southern States can boast some of the most outstandingly successful Japanese immigrants.

A notable example is Sachihiko Butsuen, whose unusual accomplishments are not limited to the State of Georgia where his Mayfield Plantation in White Oak has long had a reputation as a model farm. In his long and productive life, Butsuen has ranged almost the length and breadth of the land.

Born on New Year's Day in 1887, he came to the United States in 1906, landing in San Francisco soon after the earthquake. After 3 years as a schoolboy in Portland, Oreg., he tried to start a Japanese development company on 2,900 acres of land near the Dalles with some 30 Japanese members, but lack of good water supply caused the Columbia Production Co. to fail in 1909.

He was called to Kammerer, Wyo., to manage the affairs of some 240 Japanese coalminers there. He worked there for a year and went on to Colorado where, after working for a sugar refinery for a year, he led a work gang of Japanese to western Colorado to work in sugar beets and fruit picking. During that time, he also contracted to build an aqueduct over Grand Mesa in the delta as well as a canal in the Uncompahgre Valley. He later went into farming in Montrose, growing several hundred acres each of sugar beets, potatoes, and onions as well as an apple orchard which was said to be the largest in Colorado at the time.

Until he moved away in 1920, he lived in west Colorado and was a pillar of the community.

From 1920 to 1931, he leased 4,200 acres from a former governor of Wisconsin near Model, Iowa, and grew potatoes and corn as well as wheat. At the same time, he grew 200 to 300 acres of onion at Hollandale, Minn., and vegetables in South Bend, Ind.

In 1931, he moved to Brunswick, Ga., and in 1937 purchased the Mayfield Plantation in White Oak where he grew lettuce.

The passage of the Walter-McCarran Act in 1952 which gave naturalization rights to Japanese for the first time owes much to the singlehanded lobbying by Butsuen to convince Senators Russell, George, Smathers, and Holland.

The history of Japanese in Georgia, however, goes back quite a ways to 1880 or so when a Frank Aiken of Savannah contracted to bring over about 20 Japanese workers from Japan to try growing rice near Brunswick.

In the capital of Atlanta, Japanese first arrived about 1920 to open a chop suey restaurant. One operated by Sadajiro Yoshinuma since 1922 is one of the largest restaurants in the city. Yoshinuma worked his way through night school to graduate from Oglethorpe College.

After the war, the Kobukuro family opened a successful greenhouse and nursery in suburban Winston. In 1946, the Frank Koto family arrived from Denver to operate a poultry farm as well as provide chick sexing service for the area. In 1960, there were about 20 Japanese families in and around Atlanta.

As the 1900 census would indicate when not one Japanese was found to be living in either North Carolina or South Carolina, there have not been many Japanese in the two Southern States. In 1884, Dr. Jokichi Takamine, sent to observe the World's Fair in New Orleans, came to South Carolina to see if the phosphate produced there could be used as chemical fertilizer for Japanese farms. Dr. Takamine's advice opened the way for a new export from South Carolina and a revolution in farming in Japan.

A Japanese named Kodama was said to be farming in the outskirts of Charleston before the war. When the Navy purchased his farm after the war, he opened a gasoline service station and a restaurant, but has since moved away.

An outstanding exception in South Carolina is Mitoo Tokunaga, who came to Columbia, S.C. in 1909 and found work in a greenhouse where he worked 7 years for $5 a week. In 1919, his long years of hard work were rewarded when a bank agreed to lend him $1,200 to buy his own greenhouse without a collateral to his name.

The business has prospered through the years, and Shandon Green House now has 29 greenhouses in three locations as well as three retail outlets.

In Louisiana, the Port of New Orleans has been a port of call for Japanese ships trading in soy beans and cotton. When the first of the few settlers arrived is not too clear, but they operated rooming houses and restaurants catering to sailors, fished for shrimps and made bamboo furniture and decor. One of the earliest and longest-lasting businesses, an art goods store, was begun by Tomematsu Hinata in 1904. Later, there were 20 or so shrimp fishermen who operated until World War II. About 1912 or 13, a group of about five Japanese families arrived from California to try their hand at farming beans and tomatoes, but were forced to quit because of lack of capital, the heat and mosquitoes.

The earliest Japanese settler in Alabama is also the most successful. Kosaku Sawada arrived in 1910 in Mobile to explain the method of planting and care for several thousand Satsuma orange seedlings he had sold to a firm there. He established a small nursery in Grand Bay. It was not until 1914 that the seedlings he brought to start his own business grew to marketable size. He later moved from Grand Bay to Overlook Hill where he opened "Overlook Nursery" which continues to this day.

In 1916, he married Nobuko Yoshioka, who brought about 200 unusual camellia seeds with her. Most of the seeds resulted in failure, except for a few whom he carefully nurtured until they bloomed 20 years later. However, wife. the bearer of the seeds, had died in 1929, and in her memory, he named the new camellia "Mrs. Sawada."

He later expanded his nursery by purchasing 80 acres in the suburbs of Mobile, but has spent his retirement years continuing to improve the plants in his care.

He is credited with developing 27 new varieties of camellia, 13 varieties of "sazanka" azaleas, a thornless pyracantha and cherry trees which were thought impossible to transplant to Alabama.

Tsukasa Kiyono, known in his day as the Camellia King, currently resides in Japan and continues his lifelong interest in the improvement of plants. He came to the United States in 1906 and after studying the cultivation of Satsuma oranges in Texas for 5 years, moved his plant nursery to Mobile. He was then only 23, with a long road of adversities ahead of him. One night of severe frost destroyed all his orange seedlings, and with the start of World War I, the demand for orange seedlings hit rock bottom. In addition, a typhoon in 1914 blew his house away and destroyed all his plants again. When he had managed to rebuild the orange seedlings, a canker caused all of the tens of thousands of plants to have to be destroyed.

Unbowed by what would have discouraged a lesser man, Kiyono transferred his interest to improving camellias and azaleas, which were considered difficult plants to grow. Aided by the World War I prosperity, Kioyono continued to expand and improve.

By 1930, his nursery encompassed 200 acres, with several hundred varieties of plants and an annual sale throughout the U.S. going up into 3,000,000 plants.

When the city of New Orelans decided to beautify several miles of park roads with azaleas and other flowering shrubs, Kiyono aided the nurserymen in the city by refusing the city's offer to deal directly with him and wholesaled his plants to the New Orelans firms.

When World War II began, Kiyono and his family were in Japan, and all his assets in the United States were taken

over by the Government as alien property. His investments in Peking also gone, Kiyono was left without his former wealth. He returned to Mobile in 1946 and went to work for a friend while negotiating for the settlement of the pre-war assets. After recovering only $250,000 of his former wealth, he returned to Japan in 1952, but continued his interest in flowers, being elected president of the Japan Pansy Club in 1960 and vice president of the Japanese Garden Culture Association earlier.

That the city of Mobile is known as Azalea City today owes much to this great pioneer who refused to let adversities beat him.

The business has prospered through the years, and Shandon Green House now has 29 greenhouses in three locations as well as three retail outlets.

Japanese first arrived in Florida in 1904 when the Florida East Coast Railroad planted 1,260 acres between Boca Raton and Delray Beach with pineapples. They could not compete economically with the Cuban pineapples, and the company decided to switch to winter vegetables. The land was offered to Japanese who were considered the best vegetable farmers.

Masakuni Okudaira and Jyo Sakai, who were studying in New York, headed south and bought 80 and 40 acres respectively, naming the area Yamato Colony. For many years afterwards, the railroad station there was named "Yamato."

In 1907 when Sakai was in Japan, he talked financier Matsukata into buying 40 acres of lowlands near Yamato and 40 more in Highland. The Highland lots, bought for $25 an acre, later fetched $2,000 an acre in the Florida land boom.

In its early days, the Yamato Colony did not do too well, with markets for the produce too far away. Although by 1910 there were more than 100 Japanese in Florida, they began to drop out little by little. However, in 1916, other areas had large-spread frost damage, while Florida alone was spared, and many were the Japanese farmers who went back to Japan rich, making $10,000 and more from one acre of peppers, for instance. Tomatoes and eggplants were other crops.

In 1925, Miami Beach was developed, and with it came a land boom that made most of the Japanese farmers so well off that they sold the land, quit farming and moved away.

Florida had one more Japanese colony. In 1913, Gov. William Jenning, who owned 60,000 acres in Middleburg in Clay County, contracted with Seigo Shigeki to sell it to Japanese farmers for $80 an acre, payable in 10 years. Some 30 Japanese arrived from California to buy 20 to 30 acres each. They selected sandy ground and planted potatoes, but heavy rains washed away the fertilizers, and the farms failed.

Early Japanese residents in Miami were two who operated Japanese art goods stores from about 1905–06.

Two Japanese landscapers who were to contribute mightily to the greening of Miami Beach—Kotaro Suto and Shigezo Tashiro—arrived together as employees for Karl Fischer, developer of Miami Beach. Both later went into the nursery business, and the Sutos, particularly, won nationwide recognition for contributing plants along all the streets in Miami during the 1932 depression year.

In St. Cloud, Dr. Kaku Suto, first Japanese woman doctor in the U.S., lived to be over 100 years of age. She had lived in Florida continuously since 1907.

I am pleased to join my colleagues on this occasion in commending the outstanding and varied contributions made to our economy, society and culture by Japanese Americans not only in Florida but through the South and the length and breadth of this great Nation.

HON. R. LAWRENCE COUGHLIN
OF PENNSYLVANIA

Mr. COUGHLIN. Mr. Speaker, I am pleased to note the historical contributions to the Philadelphia area by people of Japanese ancestry on this occasion of the 22d Biennial National Convention of the Japanese American Citizens League in Washington.

From peacetime contributions to wartime exploits of the 442d Regimental Combat Team, Americans of Japanese descent through the years have demonstrated their commitment to the United States. The Japanese American Citizens League, with some 26,000 members in 32 States, has been in the forefront in portraying this commitment and upholding the rights of Japanese Americans as citizens.

This is a glimpse of the history of Japanese Americans in the Philadelphia area.

What brought the Japanese to Philadelphia, when did they come, and what have been their contributions? We have not determined when someone of Japanese ancestry first settled in Philadelphia, nor do we know who he was. The major factors that brought Japanese to Philadelphia seem associated with the city's Quaker heritage; its historical significance as the birthplace of American independence; its importance as an educational, research, and cultural center; its influential position in commerce and industry. Some of the individual contributions will be noted below. A more general, perhaps more important, contribution of all the people of Japanese descent who have stayed even briefly in Philadelphia would be found, we believe, in the rolės they played in introducing the culture and history of Japan to the area, and in helping to create American receptivity and understanding of Japan and the Japanese. On the other hand, of the Japanese who came to Philadelphia to observe and study, some returned to Japan to make their contributions and helped to develop that country's appreciation of the United States and the West.

The first Japanese to see, or be seen in, Philadelphia may have been the castaway, Joseph Heco—Hikozo Hamada—who arrived in San Francisco in 1851 and became probably the first American citizen of Japanese ancestry when he was naturalized in Baltimore in 1858. We know that he traveled between New York and Washington and that he lived and studied for several years in Baltimore. Further, his autobiography "The Narrative of a Japanese," edited by James Murdoch, states that in June 1858, prior to his departure for Japan, he visited a friend in Reading and "set out for Perrymensville via Philadelphia."

The earliest significant Japanese contact came in 1860, when the First Japanese Embassy to the United States visited the city. No American city displayed greater mass curiosity to see this group. In 1872, Philadelphia welcomed members of the Iwakura mission, that stayed in the city from March 15 to April 8 to visit industries, business houses, schools, as well as officials and community leaders.

The diplomatic mission of 1860 and the trade mission of 1872 caught the attention of Philadelphia and undoubtedly assisted in nurturing the interest of the city in Japan and things Japanese.

However, the greatest, long-lasting impact came in 1876 at the Centennial International Exhibition, celebrating the 100th anniversary of American independence. The Japanese exhibit, which included not only art objects and trade items, but also a Japanese dwelling and a Japanese bazaar and garden, was the first noteworthy presentation of its kind in America, and it played a major role in introducing Japanese art, architecture, interior decoration, and landscape design to the United States.

In the years since the centennial, Japanese craftsmen, some local, some specifically imported from Japan, have helped to erect and maintain Japanese gardens and structures, both privately owned and in public parks and museums of the Philadelphia area. The garden associated with the Japanese bazaar at the centennial was probably the first Japanese garden in America. The landscaping in or near the site of the garden has remained Japanese almost continuously since 1876. At the location, in 1905, Japanese workmen reassembled the Japanese Buddhist temple gateway that had been at the St. Louis Fair. The gateway was destroyed by fire in 1955, but by 1958, the Japanese Exhibition House, originally shown at the Museum of Modern Art in New York, was established in the region where the gate had stood. Master craftsmen from Japan supervised the reconstruction of the house and the making of the adjoining Japanese garden.

In a related vein, it is interesting to note that Japan and Philadelphia residents of Japanese ancestry have donated, since 1926, more than 2,000 flowering cherry trees to the East River Drive section of Fairmount Park and to other public areas.

Of those who studied in the Philadelphia region prior to 1900 and who returned to hold important posts in Japan, we shall briefly mention three. Umeko Tsuda—1864–1929—was the youngest of the five girls who left Japan in 1871 with the Iwakura mission. Brought to the United States for her education, she went through the entire American school system and graduated from Bryn Mawr College. She made many goodwill trips to the United States, founded the Tsuda Girls' English School—1900—the precursor of Tsuda College, and was instrumental in promoting women's education in Japan.

Shiro Shiba—1858–1922—who studied at the University of Pennsylvania in the 1880's, became a prominent political figure in Japan. He served as agriculture and commerce vice minister and foreign office counselor; started the Osaka Mainichi—newspaper—wrote a political novel, which included scenes from Philadelphia. It is said that during his Philadelphia stay, Shiba threw an ink bottle at a newspaper editor who refused to retract a "racist" editorial that he had printed; further, when a newsboy teased

him with a racial epithet, Shiba used his cane to whack the boy.

Dr. Inazo Nitobe—1862–1933—studied at Johns Hopkins University, but he is linked with Philadelphia, for he married Mary P. Elkinton, a member of a distinguished Philadelphia Quaker family from colonial days, at the Arch Street Friends' Meeting, in 1891. This marriage further stimulated the already existing interest of Quakers in Japan and the Japanese. Dr. Nitobe is remembered as an educator, an English scholar, an agricultural scientist, a strong advocate of international peace. He taught at various schools and universities in Japan and served at the League of Nations. His Bushido was translated into many languages.

One who came to study in Philadelphia and then stayed in the United States to make his major contributions was Dr. Hideyo Noguchi—1876–1928. He came to the University of Pennsylvania in 1900 and worked with Dr. S. Weir Mitchell and Dr. Simon Flexner on snake venoms. In 1904, he joined the staff of the Rockefeller Institute, New York, with which he was associated until his death. Many of his later conclusions, including those relating to the causative agent of yellow fever, have since been proved wrong, but in his lifetime, he was regarded as one of the world's greatest bacteriologists and he was nominated for a Nobel Prize. His outstanding achievements include the discovery of syphilis spirochetes in the central nervous system of patients dying of paresis and tabes dorsalis and the development of an artificial culture method for certain mircoorganisms.

Philadelphia was the exile home of Tatsui Baba—1850–1888—who studied in England from 1870–1878, returned to Japan, and was a well-known political activist of the Meiji era. In Philadelphia, he was one of 19 people who met on April 30, 1888 to found the Oriental Club of Philadelphia, a learned organization devoted to oriental studies. At the club's 80th anniversary celebration in 1968, it was noted that there has recently been a revival of scholarly interest in Baba and his contributions. Baba died in November 1888 and he is buried in Philadelphia.

After 1900, Philadelphia continued to attract students of Japanese ancestry. Like their predecessors, many of these later arrivals returned to Japan, where they, too, had distinguished careers. We shall mention three Issei who stayed to practice their professions here. Yosuke W. Nakano—1887–1961—was born in Yamaguchi Prefecture and came as a student to the United States in 1906. He graduated from the University of California in 1915 and received a master of architecture degree from the University of Pennsylvania in 1916. He was named chief engineer of Wark and Company in 1918, and he remained with that firm until his death. An authority on concrete and concrete and steel structures, Nakano had a part in the construction of such Philadelphia buildings as the Architects Building, Sun Oil office building, Jefferson Hospital, and Lankenau Hospital. The discriminatory law barring Orientals from citizenship prevented his company from making Nakano an officer in the firm, for it would then have lost many contracts. There were many demands, especially after Pearl Harbor, that Nakano be removed from jobs his firm had undertaken or had bid on. Fortunately, Wark & Co. had an outstanding reputation and it was a period of extensive construction, so the Wark executives backed Nakano and countered that the company would withdraw if Nakano's services could not be used. In December 1953, Nakano was honored by the Philadelphia Chamber of Commerce and 50 construction leaders for his outstanding contributions to his adopted city. He was praised as one of the outstanding construction engineers of the United States and one of the leading Japanese-born Americans. In 1953, Nakano and his wife were among the first Issei in the area to become U.S. citizens, after the McCarren-Walter Immigration Act of 1952 made such naturalization possible. Well-respected and well-liked, Nakano was active in community and civic affairs and a leader in Japanese and Japanese American associations.

Mitsuo Saburo Rirata was born in Mio Prefecture in 1886. He arrived in Seattle in 1908, where he graduated from high school in 1913. He came to Philadelphia in 1917 to attend the University of Pennsylvania Medical School, but for financial reasons, he changed to Temple University, where he earned his M.D., in 1924. With the help of prominent medical leaders, he was able to obtain appropriate appointments and professional employment, even though his Japanese birth prevented his becoming a naturalized citizen until late in his career. He continued medical practice through World War II and retired in 1964.

Tadafumi Mikuriya was born in Kumamoto Prefecture in 1899 and graduated .from Kumamoto Engineering College before arriving in the United States in 1923. He enrolled at the University of Pennsylvania Engineering School and received his B.S. in 1926, M.S. in 1927, and his civil engineering degree in 1935. He worked for Baldwin Locomotive Works, American Bridge Co., and Keystone Structural Steel Co., before starting his own firm, Tada Engineering Co., in 1948. His firm, located in Trenton, specializes in structural engineering.

Prior to World War II, Philadelphia had at least one other Issei physician: Dr. Y. Yoshida—in practice, ca. 1929–66—and two Issei dentists: Dr. Jyuji Kitajima—in practice, ca. 1924–64—and Dr. Tomoji Abe—in practice, ca. 1922–38. Itaro Okada was a well-known photographer in Ardmore until his recent retirement.

The records of the earliest Issei merchants and businessmen in Philadelphia seem to be lost, but it is probable that Shingo Shimamura and Tamekichi Takagi had stores selling Japanese goods by 1890 and 1897, respectively. One of the early, better-known shopowners was Morizo Seno, who arrived in New York in 1897, went to Atlantic City with the Shimamura firm. In 1902, while he was in Atlantic City, he became one of the few Issei able to obtain American citizenship before passage of the McCarran-Walter Act. He moved to Philadelphia in 1912 and until his retirement in 1963, he operated various stores both in Philadelphia and Wildwood, N.J. Other early shopowners were Yosaburo Okamoto, in business from about 1912, both in Willow Grove and Philadelphia; a Mr. Totani, in west Philadelphia, from 1914 to 1938; and Hisaki Higuchi, in west Philadelphia and Wildwood from 1920 until his retirement in 1966.

Since World War II, there has been a marked increase in the number of people of Japanese ancestry residing in the Philadelphia area. The war relocation program brought to Philadelphia a number of Issei and Nisei who had lived on the west coast prior to the war. In 1944., for example, Mr. and Mrs. Saburo Inouye came to Philadelphia to operate a hostel for people arriving from the War Relocation Center. Philadelphia Quakers played major roles in the relocation program and in establishing and sponsoring the hostel, which cared for more than 1,000 people during the relocation years. Later, the Inouyes continued their hostel for international students. Mr. Inouye, who came to the United States in 1907 and had a furniture store in Sacramento, Calif., before the war., died last year at the age of 80. Mrs. Inouye has been honored both by local groups and the Japanese Government for promoting interracial understanding and United States-Japan friendship.

In the postwar years, students and specialists have again begun to arrive in Philadelphia from Japan. Some of these people are, indeed, the younger Issei of this area. Today in Philadelphia, Issei and Nisei are to be found in almost every type of job and profession. Now there are many more medical doctors and engineers. Mathematicians, natural and physical scientists are associated with universities, industrial firms, private and public medical and research institutions. Some of these people have permanent, professional appointments; others hold responsible administrative positions in large industrial companies. We also find Issei and Nisei in the social sciences, the humanities, and Oriental studies. There are shopowners, printers, nurserymen, landscape gardeners, and farmers, as well as accountants, musicians, dentists, dental technicians, teachers, curatorial assistants, architects, cabinetmakers, and social workers. One leading farmer has branched into business and banking.

It is difficult to select and name the outstanding Japanese Americans of the present and recent past in Philadelphia, since there are so many in such a variety of fields. However, to indicate their range, we shall cite a few. The first is S. John Nitta, who founded the American Chick Sexing School, located in Lansdale, Pa. It is the oldest commercial chick sexing school in America and the only one to be successfully operated every year since its start in 1937.

Next, to exemplify the several Nisei who have held important administrative posts in religious organizations, we shall mention Henry N. Tani—1914–1965—who, unlike other Nisei in similar situations, held no degrees in theology, though he was a graduate of Stanford University. Born in San Francisco, he lived for 15 years in the Philadelphia area, where he served as national youth director for the Evangelical and Reformed Church—later, the United Church of Christ. He was recognized as an authority in the church's work with youth, and he held numerous leadership positions in youth work on the local, State, national, and international levels. Tani was an outstanding, well-respected, and well-liked leader not only in his profession, but in his community and in Japanese American organizations, including the Japanese

American Citizens League.

The internationally known architect, furniture designer and craftsman, George Nakashima, lives and works in nearby Bucks County. Of professional artists, perhaps the best known are the sculptor Yoshimatsu Onaga—1890–1955—and the painter Ben Kamihira.

Finally, we shall cite attorney William M. Marutani, a partner in the law firm of MacCoy, Evans, and Lewis. In addition to his professional contributions in Philadelphia, he is well-known for his civic and community activities and for his work as a volunteer with the Lawyers' Constitutional Defense Committee in Bogolusa, La., a few years ago. He has held official positions in the Japanese American Citizens League from the local chapter through the district and national levels, and he has been the JACL's national legal counsel since 1962. In 1967, when he argued, as friend of the court on behalf of JACL, against the antimiscegenation laws before the Supreme Court, he became the first American of Japanese ancestry to plead a civil rights case before the Nation's highest tribunal.

HON. SAMUEL S. STRATTON
NEW YORK

Mr. STRATTON. Mr. Speaker. would the gentleman from Hawaii yield to me?

Mr. MATSUNAGA. I am happy to yield to the gentleman from New York (Mr. STRATTON).

(Mr. STRATTON asked and was given permission to revise and extend his remarks.)

Mr. STRATTON. Mr. Speaker, I am honored to join with my colleague from Hawaii today in paying tribute to Americans of Japanese ancestry, particularly on the occasion of the meeting here in Washington of the 22d biennial convention of the Japanese-American Citizens League. I do not believe that I have very many Americans of Japanese ancestry in the 29th Congressional District of New York, but my association with Americans of Japanese descent occurred during the war. I had the opportunity as a naval officer first to learn Japanese in the Naval Japanese Language School in Boulder, Colo., and that experience conducted in Colorado was largely at the hands of the teachers who were Americans of Japanese ancestry, many of whom, as a matter of fact, had come to the Naval Japanese Language School from the various relocation centers either in Colorado, Utah, or in other parts of the Far Western section of our country.

I do not think that many of us at that time appreciated exactly what our Japanese-American friends had had to endure, but in spite of those hardships, I must say that they did a magnificent job in trying to train many Americans for meeting the complicated language problems that we faced as a result of World War II.

Subsequently after graduating from that school, I went to the Southwest Pacific where important intelligence activities had to be conducted by people familiar with the Japanese language. The Navy, for reasons best known to itself, did not employ Americans of Japanese descent, Nisei, to conduct these intelligence activities. They tried to train Americans in using the Japanese language. The Army, on the other hand did employ Nisei, so General MacArthur, recognizing that in spite of all the educational opportunities that Americans might be exposed to, could never really become as fluent and as efficient in the Japanese language as those of Japanese descent, combined the Army and Navy teams in the Southwest Pacific Theater.

I had occasion through 2 years, extending all the way from Australia through to Japan, to serve with an organization where we served alongside many Americans of Japanese descent. I must say had it not been for their ability and skill and expertise and courage too, I do not think we could have solved many of the problems we faced.

Of course, our activities were not nearly as heroic or glamorous as those of the distinguished battalion from Hawaii of which the gentleman from Hawaii was a member, and also the distinguished Senator from Hawaii was a member, but it bore, nevertheless, the same kind of indication of patriotism and courage of these great Americans of Japanese ancestry.

I am delighted to be able to take this opportunity at long last to pay my tribute to them.

Mr. Speaker, under leave to extend my remarks, I insert a paper prepared by the staff which discusses these contributions in somewhat greater detail and particularly the contributions of the Americans of Japanese descent in the New York and New England area:

CONTRIBUTIONS OF THE AMERICANS OF JAPANESE DESCENT

There is little doubt that the economic miracle of the past quarter century has been the industrialization of Japan. From the defeat and devastation of World War II, Japan has emerged as the third major industrial complex in the world. And, the bilateral trade between the United States and Japan has become the greatest overseas commercial operation in history, with the combined trade total between these two countries amounting to more than ten billion dollars.

When we think of the history of the Japanese in America, we think in terms of California and the West Coast. We think of the Japanese for their contributions to agriculture and to horticulture, to railroading and mining, etc.

Too often we ignore those Japanese pioneers who first came to New York in the decade after the War Between the States and laid the foundations for this tremendous trade between our two countries.

Ryoichiro Arai, Toyo Morimura, and Momotaro Sato arrived in New York in March, 1876. They were the first known Japanese in New York, who may be regarded as Issei (literally, the first generation, a term often applied to migrants who became permanent or long term residents in America), although from the 1850s a number of Japanese had visited or temporarily stayed in the city. Then as now, New York was America's greatest commercial and financial center, and significantly, Arai, Morimura, and Sato had come to begin direct trade between the United States and Japan and to build the foundations of what has now become the largest overseas trade for both countries.

From the opening of Japan to the outside world, following the 1854 negotiations, Western traders residing in Japan had monopolized Japan's foreign trade. As late as 1877, they controlled 94 per cent of the exports and 95 per cent of the imports. The Japanese in Japan had almost no direct part in international trade, although they realized that they had to trade to survive.

His contemporaries regarded Momotaro Sato as the founding father of the direct trade between the United States and Japan. Soon after his arrival in New York, he established the Japanese and American Agency to import such Japanese products as tea, silk cloth, and other consumer goods and to export American products to Japan. With Morimura, Sato helped to organize the Hinode Company which initiated trade in a wide variety of products. Arai and Sato formed the Sato Arai Company, which engaged in the silk trade. Sato's long-term influence is better seen in these two firms, and their successor companies, than in his Japanese and American Agency. This company was soon in financial difficulties, because his creditors in Japan who knew nothing about American business or trade imposed impractical conditions on its business.

In time, raw silk became Japan's largest export to the United States and cotton became a major American export to Japan. Ryoichiro Arai pioneered in the trade in both commodities. As F. W. Taussig, a leading authority on capitalistic economy, observed, the development of a reliable source of silk in Japan was a major factor in the rapid growth of the American silk manufacturing industry. Both countries, Dr. Taussig further noted, benefited greatly from this trade. Yet, before Arai came to New York, no direct trade existed. The United States used almost no Japanese silk, aside from insignificant purchases from dealers in Europe. The resident Westerners in Japan who controlled the exports inspected, packed, and shipped the silk to Europe. The Japanese growers had no way of knowing what happened to their silk once it was delivered to the Yokohama warehouses of the Westerners.

Arai's initial experiences in New York would have crushed anyone less resolute than he was. He frequently encountered serious discrimination, even while searching for a room, partly because the West Coast anti-Chinese organizations were then conducting a national anti-Chinese campaign which influenced some New Yorkers. Even visits to silk manufacturers and importers could at times be unpleasant. The Americans had extremely poor opinion of the Japanese silk and of the Japanese producers and they expressed their views to Arai in no uncertain terms, although they had never once dealt with any Japanese and had no real basis for judgment. The wide prevalence of these derogatory stereotypes among the business circles which the early Issei encountered personally was a major obstacle to normal trade. The Issei had to change these views little by little through exemplary integrity and patience. Japanese officials and even businessmen in Japan were, of course, unaware of the serious situation and hence still less able to appreciate what the New York Issei did to overcome it.

Although Arai realized that most Japanese had little or nothing to do with the origin of these stereotypes, he also saw that the Japanese silk industry had an enormous task to do to improve the outlook of the New York importers and to establish a solid reputation for reliability. Whether the New Yorkers impressions were right or wrong was, unfortunately for the Japanese, secondary to their detrimental consequences for the Japanese.

An immediate problem was the differences in the type of silk required by the handicraft weavers in Japan for whom the Japanese growers had traditionally produced and by the American manufacturers. Arai regarded as a major responsibility the task of trying to educate the Japanese producers on the silks American factories could use. From New York and during his visits to Japan, he kept hammering away that the American high-speed machinery had to have standardized silk of high uniformity. In the meantime, the Japanese leaders in the silk industry and in the government began to realize the magnitude of the problem and to carry out what became a successful national program for modernizing the silk production. As a result, Japan became the largest source of silk used in America.

American silk manufacturers began to change their opinion about the Japanese silk and producers, because they became impressed by the integrity of men like Arai who was the first Japanese with whom they had ever dealt with directly. He was followed by

other Japanese who were also concerned. As permanent residents, they were able to maintain continuing discussion on problems of mutual interest and assume personal responsibility for the quality of the silk shipped directly by the Japanese producers. The manufacturers in turn kept Arai and others abreast of new developments and thus enabled them to inform the Japanese producers about the future requirements.

Arai suspended the operations of the Sato Arai Company in 1880 and became the New York representative of the newly formed Doshin Company. It had much greater resources than his own firm and more extensive contacts with the producers. Subsequently in 1893, Arai and Ichizaemon Morimura, Toyo's older brother in Japan, organized the Morimura Arai Company to conduct trade on a larger scale in silk and other commodities. It pioneered in exporting American cotton to Japan which became a major market. In 1901, the American silk leaders elected Arai to the Board of Governors of the Silk Association of America, an expression of their esteem for his personal qualities and his dedication to the well-being of the industry.

Toyo Morimura, the third member of our original trio, soon had the Hinode Company, which was renamed Morimura Brothers and Company, in a flourishing condition. Nevertheless, Morimura faced similar obstacles to those that Arai had confronted. He also, together with his brother Ichizaemon in Japan, had to struggle to persuade the individualistic Japanese craftsmen to standardize their products to the specifications of the American importers and to maintain uniform quality. Works of art, of course, remained individual.

Morimura and Ichizaemon in Japan had to encourage the craftsmen to change their manufacturing processes radically to assure greater standardization. In some cases, they had to set up new companies or plants to make the desired porducts, although such factories usually required a long period of prior experimentation before they could produce goods of specified quality. The Morimura firm in New York exported American machinery and industrial products, both for their own account and for others. Toyo Morimura's experiences, as in the case of Arai's, again illustrate why only permanent residents could successfully build American confidence. One had to be at hand to assume personal responsibility for the imports, to maintain continuing contacts with the American importers and manufacturers to meet the changing needs, and to keep the Japanese producers informed of the American trends.

New York was not only the largest American commercial center, but also a leading cultural center. Dr. Jokichi Takamine, the distinguished chemist, was significantly a scientist of international renown, an industrialist in the American tradition, and an outstanding exponent of personal friendships and closer cultural relations between the Americans and the Japanese. As a chemist, he was an authority on fermentation and distillation and contributed substantially to the improvement of these processes in American industry. He was even better known for the development of Takadiastase, a basic ingredient in the medication to improve digestion, and was especially famous for isolating pure adrenalin, the hormone so vital in many medical cases. The Parke Davis Company manufactured some of his products. On the basis of his discoveries, Dr. Takamine established several manufacturing companies in the United States.

Not only did Dr. Takamine have a wide circle of friends, American and Japanese, but he also urged other Japanese and Americans to become personally acquainted with each other. To promote better cultural relations, he gave generously of his time and funds for artistic, scholarly, and scientific exchanges. He also arranged for licensing and exchange of patent rights between American and Japanese firms. All these activities were encouraged and shared by Mrs. Takamine, the former Caroline Hitch, daughter of Colonel and Mrs. Eban Hitch who were well known in New Orleans.

Takamine was an organizer of the Nippon Club. It should be emphasized that he thought of the club primarily as a place where Japanese could entertain Americans rather than as a Japanese social center. Many Japanese in New York, he had observed, were only temporarily in the city and without their families or had only limited means. They needed a club to entertain Americans. Another organization with which Takamine was associated in founding was the Japan Society. Today, it is even more active than in his days and recently completed a handsome building to house its programs. Takamine tried to persuade Japanese industrialists to contribute funds to establish and maintain a permanent news and information agency in New York, but it lasted only several years. Not enough Japanese leaders at that time understood its importance as he did.

Prominent Japanese artists decorated the Takamine apartment in New York which the Takamines used to introduce many visitors to Japanese art. Their famous Merriewold (New York) home, the Sho-fu-den, was designed by Japanese architects and built by skilled craftsmen. For many guests, the home and its gardens were revelations of the beauty and grace of the Japanese artistic heritage. They served as models for many other gardens and buildings.

Limitations of space prevent the discussion of many other scientists, but we should at least mention in passing, as examples, such well known names as Dr. Hideyo Noguchi, the internationally honored bacteriologist of the Rockefeller Institute who contributed so greatly to the research on and the control of such diseases as the Rocky Mountain spotted fever, spirochetes, and yellow fever; Dr. Kanematsu Sugiura of the Sloan Kettering Institute, a prominent biochemist who is particularly noted for his research on the chemistry of cancer; and the famous pathologist at the Mount Sinai Hospital and professor of pathology at the Mount Sinai School of Medicine, Dr. Sadao Otani, equally known for his research and as a teacher of prominent pathologists.

A number of the Issei were prominent in the construction industry. Like others, Yasuo Matsui faced extraordinary difficulties because before 1953 an Oriental could not become a citizen by naturalization. Yet the law and the professional societies required citizenship for license and membership. An authority on steel skyscrapers, Matsui was associated in the design and construction of many major New York buildings, either as an individual consultant or through his firm of F. H. Dewey and Company, of which he was president.

We should not completely neglect to mention however briefly several representative names of the Issei who contributed greatly to the enrichment of American cultural and intellectual life as artists and humanistic scholars. Yasuo Kuniyoshi was a colorful artist who was the recipient of many awards. His paintings are permanently hung in the leading museums throughout the United States, among them the Metropolitan Museum of New York, the Library of Congress, the Art Institute of Chicago, Cleveland Museum, Detroit Museum, Cranbrook Academy, Carnegie Institution, Albright Gallery, Addison Phillips, and Whitney Museum. In showing his collected works in 1948, the Whitney Museum signally honored him when for the first time in its history it staged an one-man exhibition of a living artist.

Perhaps the best known scholarly interpreter of Zen and Buddhism among the serious Western students is Dr. Daisetsu Suzuki. His was a profound philosophical and religious approach, best stated in his scholarly publications and lectures. No discussion of the New York area residents is complete without referring to Ryusaku Tsunoda, the *Sensei* (respected teacher) to generations of Columbia University students in Asian studies. He sought to develop the Asian programs at Columbia and left many prominent scholars who were his students. No one did more to show the Western culture-bound American scholars that a true university must grapple with the vigorous, though ancient, cultures of Asia.

NEW ENGLAND

Since the days of Commodore Perry, many Japanese have regarded New England in general and the Boston area in particular as a major center of American culture and education. Some of the earliest students sent abroad by the feudal domains and by the government attended New England colleges. The first Japanese to obtain all his substantial higher education in the Western world was, however, Joseph Hardy Niishima. He came alone in 1864 when it was still illegal to leave Japan. Thanks to the friendship of the Hardy family, he was able to attend Phillips Andover Academy and then Amherst College and Andover Theological Seminary (now Andover Newton Theological School). Niishima became an outstanding Meiji era educator and maintained his ties with New England.

It is difficult to do justice to the contribution of the Issei and Japanese scholars and scientists to New England. Much of their work was known and appreciated only by their generation of colleageus. One exception was Kakuzo Okakura, a leading interpreter of Japanese culture to the West of his days, involved in the Boston area cultural and intellectual life, and a member of the Boston Museum of Fine Arts staff. A number of his books and articles are still read widely. A later Issei with somewhat more systematic approach to the Asian arts is Kojiro Tomita, now Curator Emeritus of the Oriental arts at the Museum.

Dartmouth was probably the first American college to have an Issei as a full-time faculty member, when in 1902, Kwanichi Asakawa was appointed an instructor. It was at Yale, however, where he was professor for many years that Dr. Asakawa became an internationally recognized authority on feudalism and early Japanese history.

One of the better known early Boston Issei was Bunkyo Matsuki, a former Nichiren priest. He owned an art shop to earn his livelihood, but he was primarily interested in art, religions, and Japanese cultural history. When he became a lecturer at Columbia, he gave up his store. No doubt, he found teaching more congenial than trying to be a businessman. Perhaps symbolic of the Japanese feeling that Boston was more a cultural than a commercial center is that the leading surviving Issei businessman, Harumichi Yatsuhashi, is a professional art assessor and critic. Yatsuhashi joined the Yamanaka and Company organization and in 1908 was sent to Boston. He became the national manager of the Yamanaka Company which had art stores in a number of cities.

Boston, like Brooklyn, had a rather unique group of Issei United States Navy employees. They had originally come to the United States as crew members on American warships and after arrival in Boston were employed at the Charleston Navy Yard. After 1907, the Navy regulations limited employment to citizens. Since the Issei were then ineligible for naturalization, they had to find work elsewhere.

In the post-war years, the Nisei and post-war Issei have been prominent in scientific and scholarly fields. Among them is Hideo Sasaki, for some years past Director of the Harvard School of Landscape Design, a Kennedy appointee to the President's National Arts Council, and now head of his own firm. He has designed and directed numerous landscaping projects throughout the United States. Professor Jin Kinoshita of the Harvard Medical School is a leading authority on the biochemistry of the nerves and eye. A recipient of the Jonas Friedenwald Award of the Association for Research in Opthamology for his distinguished research, he has been further honored by his election as the president of the national eye research society. F. Robert Naka, now Assistant Sec-

retary of the Air Force, is a prominent electronics engineer who was for several years the chief scientist at the MITRE Corporation before accepting his present position. These three Nisei mentioned at random illustrate some of the ways the Nisei and the post-war Issei are contributing to New England and to America. We might have referred to a number of others had space permitted.

HON. HENRY B. GONZALEZ
OF TEXAS

Mr. GONZALEZ. Mr. Speaker, will the gentleman yield?

Mr. MATSUNAGA. I am happy to yield to the gentleman from Texas.

Mr. GONZALEZ. Mr. Speaker, I take advantage of this opportunity of joining my distinguished colleague, the gentleman from Hawaii, in commemorating the great contribution and achievement of this great body of American known as Americans of Japanese descent.

In fact, I cannot think of a better symbol or personification in extolling the virtues of this great race than by alluding to the performance of our distinguished colleague, the gentleman from Hawaii (Mr. Matsunaga), who has sought this special order today.

Mr. MATSUNAGA, all the attributes of loyalty and of patriotism and of service and of dedication to discharging the obligations of citizenship are well exemplified here in the person of our colleague.

On a larger score this is also represented most dramatically by the tremendous contribution that the Americans of Japanese descent have made to America's wealth, to its progress, and to its stability.

I think the experience of this great body of Americans is unmatched in our history, even taking into account such other groups as the indigenous or original inhabitants of this continent known as the American Indians, because despite a systematic assault and deprivation of the basic rights not only of an American, but also of any human, the Americans of Japanese descent have not muttered, have not rioted, and have not cursed their country, but rather have completely bridged this tremendous chasm which existed for a brief period during the excitation and passion of war.

I think throughout the world the merits of this great group are widely recognized.

At this time it is a real privileged and an honor to join my colleague, even though briefly, in commemorating and extolling the virtues of this great body of our countrymen, the Americans of Japanese descent.

Mr. MATSUNAGA. Mr. Speaker, I thank the gentleman for his kind remarks.

HON. WM. JENNINGS BRYAN DORN
OF SOUTH CAROLINA

Mr. DORN. Mr. Speaker, will the gentleman yield?

Mr. MATSUNAGA. I am happy to yield to the gentleman from South Carolina.

Mr. DORN. I wish to join my colleagues this evening, and particularly my distinguished and beloved colleague in the well, in paying tributes to Americans of Japanese descent.

I want especially to point out that the greatest example of this outstanding group of Americans is the gentleman with whom it has been my great honor to serve, as well as to serve with the others who have represented the great State of Hawaii as delegates from the territory of Hawaii.

I thank the gentleman and I commend him, and I join him in this just tribute to a great American group.

Mr. MATSUNAGA. I thank the gentleman for his kind words.

HON. ROBERT L. LEGGETT
OF CALIFORNIA

Mr. LEGGETT. Mr. Speaker, our Japanese American citizens have confronted many obstacles in their quest for acceptance into the mainstream of American life. They have not, however, been fixated by the mistakes of the past but have continually progressed forward and, consequently, have contributed much to the development of our Nation. The first Japanese who arrived in 1868 brought with them an age-old set of ideals and values; among these were the feelings of loyalty to family and country and of the great worth of education. Such conceptions were easily integrated with the allready established cultural patterns of the United States.

The influence of family pride and loyalty has been a positive force in many directions. As a result of the moral code which demanded that no one bring disgrace or humiliation to the family, the Japanese American community has not had the juvenile delinquency problems suffered by so many other ethnic groups within this country. In a time of rising rates of crime, this should not be passed over lightly.

Stemming from the Buddhist and other religious influence arose the high regard for the importance of education. Japanese Americans have always had extremely high levels of education which have perpetuated their employment in diversified fields of occupation. Having outlived most of the problems relating to prejudice and discrimination, the Japanese Americans have emerged as scientists, farmers, college professors, engineers, dentists, and lawyers. The contributions of Noguchi in the discovery of the causes of paresis and locomotor ataxia, as well as his work on trachona and Rocky Mountain spotted fever, added immensely to the ever-growing knowledge of the medical world. In California, the Japanese Americans contributed to the growth of the great food-producing Sacramento and Imperial Valleys with their work in the irrigation of sandy areas.

All too often the contributions of many of our citizens are overlooked and quickly passed over. Mr. Matsunaga is to be thanked for enabling myself and the other gentlemen here today to recognize the great number of contributions made to the United States by our Japanese American citizens.

HON. HAROLD T. JOHNSON
OF CALIFORNIA

Mr. JOHNSON of California. Mr. Speaker, 30 years ago this month the U.S. Government, under the authority of Executive Order 9066, was winding up one of the most tragic exhibitions in the history of this Nation. This was the "relocation" of 110,240 Americans of Japanese ancestry; 16,000 of these people were housed at Tulelake, located in the northeastern corner of California, in an area which I represent today. These people were rounded up, given a week to dispose of their real property, their homes and businesses and to move to the relocation centers, taking with them only what they could carry.

Those of us looking at our history and our society today find it difficult to believe that our American Government did, in a moment of panic, deprive individuals, including many who were citizens of this country, of their freedoms and basic rights in direct violation to the Constitution of the United States and the Declaration of Independence, which was signed 196 years ago next Tuesday.

The Japanese people, bewildered and confused in those critical hours responded magnificently. They accepted the will of the Government of the United States which they had come to love and respect. They went to the detention centers, giving at the same time a firm pledge that God willing they would disprove and discredit those who questioned their loyalty to the country of the United States.

History subsequently showed that during World War II there was no single act of sabotage, or espionage or disloyalty uncovered by the Federal Bureau of Investigation, Military Intelligence, or any other law enforcement agency of this Nation. Japanese youths volunteered for the military and served with great distinction in the European theater.

This same spirit of confidence in our great Nation, with determination to prove themselves as good citizens and with devotion to hard work and patience have made the Nisei among the most respected and welcomed neighbors and friends in the Golden State. By their lives, they have lived up to the motto of the Japanese American Citizens League adopted in 1945 as World War II was coming to an end "Better Americans in a Greater America." These people have taught us by their lives the true meaning of loyalty to one's country, good will toward their fellowman, and democracy at its best.

The creed of the JACL opens with words which I think each of us in our own way could follow to great advantage:

> I am proud that I am an American citizen of Japanese ancestry for my very background makes me appreciate more fully the wonderful advantages of this nation.

This Nation today has many problems. As we face these problems, there is no better example of quiet courage than that offered by these fine people 30 years ago. If the Nation and its people follow this example, can there be any question but what these United States will continue to fulfill the dream of our forefathers who lit the fire of freedom and human rights throughout the world.

HON. ABNER J. MIKVA
OF ILLINOIS

Mr. MIKVA. Mr. Speaker, it is a privilege for me to join my distinguished colleague from Hawaii (Mr. MATSUNAGA) in paying tribute to our Japanese American friends. The Japanese American Citizens League is meeting in Washington, D.C., this week, and the group's 22d biennial convention presents a unique opportunity to recognize the JACL for its contribution to the preservation of civil

rights and liberties for all the people of this country.

I had the good fortune to work with JACL toward the repeal of title II of the Emergency Detention Act. It was a long fight and a difficult one. When the President signed the repeal bill into law last year it removed the spectre of concentration camps in America. Many of the members of the JACL know firsthand how terrifying and demoralizing that threat could be—many of them spent several years in an American concentration camp, even though they were patriotic Americans, at the beginning of World War II.

Now, the JACL is working toward two more goals, goals that every person in this country should share. The group's membership would like to abolish the House Internal Security Committee, and repeal the rest of the Emergency Detention Act, eliminating the Subversive Activities Control Board. Each of these "institutions" is inimical to civil liberty and the spirit of this country. By abolishing them, we would remove the last vestiges of the McCarthy era, an era that has been a long time dying.

The JACL took the lead in the fight against title II of the Emergency Detention Act, and it is taking the lead now in the fight against HISC, and the SACB. The Senate already has voted to cut off funds for the SACB and, hopefully, the House will follow its example. The Japanese Americans are making civil liberties their first priority. They are working for all of us, and we all are in their debt for their commitment.

HON. GEORGE E. DANIELSON
OF CALIFORNIA

Mr. DANIELSON. Mr. Speaker, it is a pleasure today to join in recognition of the significant contributions made to our country by Japanese Americans.

The list of achievements extends far beyond the time available to recite them, of course, but I would like to underscore our country's benefit from and appreciation for some of the more noted Japanese Americans. One of the world's great scientists was Noguchi. He discovered the causes of paresis and locomotor ataxia, developed the pure culture of the germ of syphilis, identified Arya fever with another obscure and hitherto unrelated disease, and worked on trachoma and Rocky Mountain spotted fever. His death was caused in Africa by the dreaded yellow fever which he was investigating. The life of Noguchi is an heroic story of scientific accomplishment and dedication.

In artistic endeavors, Yasuo Kuniyoshi is widely known and his work is contained in all the major museums and art collections of America. He was a Guggenheim Fellow in 1935 and has won many awards. Sono Osato, 24-year-old Japanese American ballerina in 1944, was a most popular star of "One Touch of Venus."

Ben Kuroki was praised in Time magazine in 1944 for his bravery and patriotism as a great hero of World War II. He was a technical sergeant in the U.S. Army Air Corps, a veteran of 30 heavy bombing missions against the enemy, a survivor of the costly raid on the Ploesti oilfields of Rumania, winner of two Distinguished Flying Crosses, and wearer of the coveted Air Medal with four oakleaf clusters.

Unfortunately, however, the vast majority of Japanese American citizens were in a very different situation during World War II. Unlike Kuroki, many Americans of Japanese ancestry had no opportunity to serve their country in the military forces, and the majority lost their jobs, their businesses, and their homes because they were of the Japanese race, and regardless of their loyalty to and citizenship in the United States.

Although two-thirds of the Japanese Americans in the United States were native born and therefore citizens, as showed by the alien registration program of 1940, approximately 83 percent of this group of citizens was later evacuated and relocated under the executive order that transported persons of Japanese ancestry into emergency detention camps in 1942, because of the war.

Of all the persons of Japanese ancestry living in the United States during the relocation, 87 percent were detained in this manner. The percentage of Japanese aliens not holding citizenship, who were sent to the camps, was slightly larger, around 95 percent.

The injustice that was done to Japanese Americans and their rights during the Second World War is a regrettable blot on our Nation's history. Fortunately, Congress has recently taken action to repeal title II of the Internal Security Act of 1950 and to abolish emergency detention camps. I am most proud to have cosponsored this bill and to have joined in the successful effort led by our colleague from Hawaii, SPARK MATSUNAGA, to win passage of this measure so important to our most basic constitutional rights. Now this is in the law. I am also most proud to have been the author in earlier years, of a resolution, which was passed by the California Legislature while I was a member of the California Senate, urging the Congress to repeal that lamented detention law.

In January of this year, an NBC documentary on Belfast referred to the internment policies in Northern Ireland. The narrator commented:

> What happened to us was made possible by a law that would be unthinkable in the United States. It was designed 50 years ago to take terror off the streets. Since it was invoked again last August, about a thousand people have been taken to this place, interned without trial, hearing, or confrontation with charges.

That statement, referring to the United States was correct only by a few months, and by virtue of the fact that Congress had passed House Joint Resolution 234 to outlaw the use of these forms of concentration camps.

The memory of this relocation and detention cannot easily be erased. It is a tribute to Japanese Americans, as reported by the War Relocation Authority in 1944, that there was no sabotage and no espionage among the Japanese American in the relocation areas, and that there was a smaller number of minor crimes and misdeameanors than would be found in other groups of persons of the same size.

It is a further tribute that Japanese Americans have resisted bitterness and have continued to make outstanding contributions to our society: in civic life, in business, the professions, and in many other fields of endeavor in which they have added so much to the enrichment of American life.

HON. FRANK ANNUNZIO
OF ILLINOIS

Mr. ANNUNZIO. Mr. Speaker, it is a great pleasure for me to participate today in this tribute to Japanese Americans across our Nation, and particularly, to the Japanese American Citizens League which is holding its 22d Biennial National Convention here in our Nation's Capitol from June 27 through July 1, 1972. The Japanese American Citizens League is an outstanding civic organization dedicated to serving the community.

Last night I attended the congressional dinner hosted by the league and I was delighted to have the opportunity to meet with many of my friends including Mr. Ross Harono, Governor of the Midwest District Council—covering Illinois, Missouri, Wisconsin, Michigan, Ohio, and Minnesota—of the Japanese American Citizens League. More than 26,000 persons are members of the league nationwide, and in Chicago alone, over 1000 persons belong to the Japanese American Citizens League.

The Chicago Chapter JACL Chairman is Hiroshi Kanno, and the first national president of the JACL, Dr. Thomas Yatabe, I am proud to say, comes from our city of Chicago. He is fondly known as the "grandfather" of the Japanese American Citizens League, and it is largely due to the dedicated efforts of such able men as Dr. Yatabe, Mr. Harano, and Mr. Kanno, and their fellow officers and members of the league, that long overdue recognition is being extended to the great contributions of Japanese Americans to the growth and advancement of our country.

I was one of the early sponsors and strong supporters of the 1965 Immigration and Nationality Act Amendments which eliminated the Asia Pacific Triangle and the National Origins formula in determining immigration quotas. As a result of these amendments, for the first time, Japan was given, along with other Asian nations, fair and equitable consideration for immigration to the United States.

I also was one of the sponsors and strong supporters of legislation enacted in 1971 to repeal the discriminatory title II of the Internal Security Act of 1950 which could have provided for concentration camps. I am glad to say this title has been stricken from our laws.

By the enactment of this and other legislation of benefit to Japanese Americans, I know the Congress and our country has restored to a large degree their faith in the democratic processes of justice which our Founding Fathers established.

And although their number is relatively small, Americans of Japanese ancestry have enriched our national heritage immeasurably. Their loyalty, courage, and patriotism in time of war; their industry, thrift and labor in time of peace; their reverence for the harmony and beauty in the natural world, reflected in their unique contributions to the arts, particularly in architecture, landscape gardening, and flower arranging; their examples of outstanding citizenship in the face of vicious racial prejudice; their educational attainments—these are only a few of the qualities which have won Japanese Americans the respect and admiration of all Americans.

Japanese Americans have made notable contributions in every area of industry, the arts, and science. In large areas of the Pacific Coast States, they made desert land bloom where nothing had grown before. By a combination of highly disciplined labor and knowledge of methods of intensive cultivation, the Japanese were able to enter areas of California which had previously been regarded as uncultivable, and from the inhospitable soil they wrested new green fields and orchards or vineyards. Today, a good deal of California's remarkable fertility is due to these methods of cultivation, which in some cases increased fruit and vegetable yields threefold and fourfold.

Many individual Japanese Americans have earned the gratitude, pride, and honor of our Nation. Such a man was Noguchi, the poor Japanese peasant who became one of the world's greatest scientists in America. The story of Noguchi's pure culture of the germ of syphilis, his discovery of the causes of paresis and locomotor ataxia, his identification of Arya fever with another obscure and hitherto unrelated disease, his work on trachoma and Rocky Mountain spotted fever, and finally his heroic death in Africa caused by the dreaded yellow fever he was investigating, remains one of the greatest stories in the history of modern science.

In the arts, the names of Yasuo Kuniyoshi, the painter; Sono Osato, ballerina; Sessue Hayakawa, actor; and Isamu Noguchi, sculptor, are very prominent. The city of San Francisco will not soon forget Dr. S. I. Hayakawa, who held San Francisco State College together through the most difficult and turbulent period in its history.

Finally, we cannot end without remembering the patriotism and bravery of Japanese American soldiers, and most especially the famous 442d Battalion, which holds the somber honor of sustaining the highest casualty rate of any American fighting unit during World War II. Not only did the Nisei servicemen make an outstanding contribution in the European Theater of Operations, but, toward the war's end, in the Pacific areas as well. Nisei intelligence work in the Pacific saved thousands of American lives. At the same time as their families were suffering the humiliation and economic disaster of internment, these courageous soldiers fought to prove their love for America and their loyalty.

We are indeed proud today to honor all Japanese Americans as well as the Japanese American Citizens League. They have enriched our land and our culture, have set the highest standards of citizenship and cooperation, and have taught us an invaluable lesson in promoting brotherhood and rooting out the destructive evil of racial prejudice.

I extend my greetings to them and best wishes for the years ahead as they continue their outstanding record of citizenship and their substantial contributions to our Nation.

HON. WILLIAM F. RYAN

OF NEW YORK

Mr. RYAN. Mr. Speaker, I am pleased to join our distinguished colleague from Hawaii (Mr. MATSUNAGA) in this special order paying tribute to the Japanese American community which has contributed so much to our society. It is most fitting that we pause today to honor these Americans as the 22d Biennial Convention of the Japanese American Citizens League is taking place in Washington this week. More than 100 JACL Chapters in 32 States are being represented by over 500 delegates.

The first groups of immigrant laborers from Japan arrived in the United States in the 1860's. Unlike other groups of immigrants to America, however, they were denied fundamental rights such as the right to become naturalized citizens and to own land. Discriminatory laws directed specifically at them, were passed at both the Federal and State levels.

Yet, their darkest hour came after Pearl Harbor. While Americans of Japanese ancestry were fighting and dying under the flag of the United States, 110,000 Japanese Americans were uprooted from their homes in the Western part of our country and incarcerated in American detention camps. Their crime was simply their ancestry, and the manner in which these Americans were relocated surely constitutes one of the most shameful episodes in the history of our country.

We had occasion to review the appalling facts of that period last year when the House passed H.R. 234, a bill which repealed the invidious Emergency Detention Act—title II of the Internal Security Act of 1950. I was a cosponsor of that legislation and strongly spoke out on the floor of the House in favor of its repeal.

The Emergency Detention Act provided minimal protection for the individual against unwarranted detention. The act proceeded on the assumption that, in times of "internal security emergency," it is justified to detain "persons who there is reasonable ground to believe probably will commit or conspire with others to commit espionage or sabotage." Its provisions were never implemented by they represented a threat to our system of due process which is a basic component of a free society.

In vetoing the 1950 act, President Truman made a statement which I believe bears repeating today:

It is not enough to say that this (enforcement) probably would not be done. The mere fact that it could be done shows clearly how the bill would open a Pandora's box of opportunities for official condemnation of organizations and individuals for perfectly honest opinions. The basic error of these sections is that they move in the direction of suppressing opinion and belief.

As we honor a group of Americans today who were the victims of blatant repression, let us make a commitment to guard against the passage any measure which might result in the denial of basic rights to even one American.

HON. AUGUSTUS F. HAWKINS

OF CALIFORNIA

Mr. HAWKINS. Mr. Speaker, during this week of the Biennial National Japanese American Citizens League Convention in Washington, I am pleased and honored to share with my colleagues the speech of our distinguished Member of Japanese ancestry, Representative PATSY T. MINK.

Mrs. MINK combines the intellectual brilliance of our American Nisei with the cultural heritage of the Japanese people and the great charm of her native Hawaii.

The speech follows:

SPEECH BY REPRESENTATIVE PATSY T. MINK

This exhibit we have the privilege of dedicating tonight portrays a moment in our nation's history which we all hope will never again be repeated. For those who were the victims of oppression, those years will, of course, remain unforgetable. For those who watched and let it happen to their fellow Americans without so much as even a whimper of protest, it must still provide many numbing pangs of guilt. For those who participated in ordering this mass evacuation, there must be great and agonizing remorse. We are here today to rededicate our national conscience that such an event shall never again befall any group within our society.

Fear and suspicion must never again be allowed to substitute for national will. No matter what the imminent external threats upon us as a nation, we must never even in the darkest hour of national emergency allow ourselves to be dictated by fear against a whole group of our fellow citizens.

Our precious liberties are meaningless if at any moment they can be denied to any group merely because of color, national origin, or political beliefs. Any Freedom which is uncertain or which can be arbitrarily taken away without due process is liberty lost.

The Repeal of Title II of the Internal Security Act of 1950 was a great victory for freedom. Its enactment 5 years after the end of World War II is inexplicable, except to put the Congressional seal of approval on what was done to over 100,000 Americans of Japanese ancestry in the early months of 1942. Its repeal must therefore be regarded not only as a clear vindication of the countless wrongs inflicted upon these hapless victims of the war, but also as a declaration against such mass deprivations ever again in the future.

While I believe such an event could not ever happen again, this belief stems not so much from confidence in government, but rather from a faith that the people will simply not allow it to happen.

Some who will see this exhibit will be moved only to recall the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor or their personal experiences and tragedies of that war.

Hopefully for most they will be able to distill a message which enlightens the soul and fortifies the goodness which is in the spirit of America.

This exhibit is not meant to degrade or shame our nation, but rather to point out that once when our vigil was left unguarded, it created a nightmare of human despair and that to the extent freedom was tarnished, all of us were the losers.

Why did it happen? It happened because white people held people of color in less esteem; because people of color are regarded as collectively guilty of group stereotypes whether it be laziness, dirtiness, or being inscrutable; and because anyway you can't tell them apart! And so why not punish them all. . . . Four hours, forty-eight hours, or forty-eight months, what difference does it make if by "preventive detention," you can prevent some terrible event from happening. Of course, even if nothing happens, you can always say it was because the detention prevented it!

Sometimes I think that this psychic operates today . . . we do not like young people with long hair . . . or black with Afros . . . or Chicanos on a picket line. . . .

So long as we do not discipline ourselves into demanding only individual accountability and if we harbor instead group suspicion, we are functioning as though we were ourselves captives of Executive Order 9066.

As I stand here tonight in the shadow of these remnants of our history, I am reminded that we have an enormous personal responsibility.

When new crises arise, will I have '9066' as my guide, or will I live by a rule of openness, tolerance and love for my fellow citizens? Will I fight to protect the freedoms of the least worthy in our society because freedom, which is not available to all, is no freedom upon which I can depend, should I ever have to call upon justice to be my guardian.

Executive Order 9066 tells us that the weak, the docile, the quiet ones even can be swept up by the forces of international conflagration to become the most hated, despised and distrusted . . . And this only because of their physical differences in appearance.

Think what the implications could be for those who are different while being activist and radical spokesmen for unpopular beliefs.

A bitter experience of history like Executive Order 9066 can serve as an impetus to our search for honesty and tolerance.

This exhibit does not teach us to conform, to assimilate, to hide our thoughts. It tells us to dare to live, to be ourselves, and to fully participate in all of the myriad opportunities of this land.

If we fail to heed this message of freedom, we will fall victim to the dark forces of fear which beckon to our national doubts and frustrations. This, we must not allow. We must strive to overcome our prejudices, so that enlightenment may rule across our land.

HON. ALPHONZO BELL
OF CALIFORNIA

Mr. BELL. Mr. Speaker, it is both a privilege and a pleasure to join my colleagues in the recognition of the 22d Bienniel Convention of the Japanese American Citizens League.

The Japanese Americans represent a rather small but certainly significant segment of the population of the United States. Their contributions to the American way of life have been numerous, and they rank highly among ethnic groups in creativity, inventiveness, and productivity.

As a result of redistricting, I have recently gained a considerable number of Japanese Americans as constituents and am pleased to welcome them into the 28th District of California.

The transgressions of Japan and the United States against each other understandably linger in the consciousness of both nationalities. But the maintenance of amicable international and domestic relations is not based upon revenge or retribution.

The repeal of title II of the Emergency Detention Act of 1950 which passed the House with my strong support last year and was subsequently signed into law by the President, manifested the degree of maturity that Japanese American relations have attained.

Hopefully, we have learned from the past and can continue to live in peaceful and productive accord.

HON. PETER W. RODINO, JR.
OF NEW JERSEY

Mr. RODINO Mr. Speaker, often feelings of ancestral pride and of American identity work together hand in hand to reinforce and to unify the foundations on which our country stands. Each American citizen has the distinctive opportunity to inherit and to pass on the beauty of his ethnic traditions—to learn, to understand, to take part in and to enjoy its teachings, customs, folklore, and its special celebrations. Recognition of the 22d Biennial Convention of the Japanese American Citizens League, at this time, is extremely important.

The values and principles of our democratic society have indeed been enhanced by the contributions of our Japanese Americans. Most Japanese immigrants who entered our land were young men between the ages of 20 and 40. Their strength, their spirit, their knowledge and their ideas have become an inseparable and an invaluable part of our culture and our history. The remarkable creativity, to cite just one example, of the Japanese American architect Minora Yamasaki, an art which combines our modern functional style with the classical style of Greece and with the influence of the Orient, has brought a deep feeling of pride to all Americans.

I join with my colleagues in welcoming the many distinguished delegates of the Japanese American Citizens League to Washington and in wishing them many fond memories and many rewarding experiences from their visit to our Nation's Capitol.

HON. CHARLES A. VANIK
OF OHIO

Mr. VANIK. Mr. Speaker, it is with a great deal of pleasure that I have learned that Henry Tanaka, of my congressional district, has just become the president-elect of the Japanese-American Citizens League. Mr. Tanaka is executive director of the Hill House for Mental Health Rehabilitation. He received his master's degree from Case-Western Reserve University's School of Applied Social Science. He has served as the past president of the Cleveland JACL Chapter and as council governor of the midwest district; which includes eight States.

All of our community is proud of Henry Tanaka's achievements, not only with the JACL, but in our Greater Cleveland community. Having had the opportunity of working with Hank in his work at Hill House, I have seen him demonstrate his professional skill and commitment in a very difficult area of endeavor.

We extend to Hank and to his wife, Sachie, and four sons, David, Steven, Rob, and John, our congratulations and wish him great success in the course of his tenure as president of the distinguished and exciting Japanese-American Citizens League. The challenges which lie ahead under Hank's stewardship for the Japanese-American community can only be enhanced by his leadership and outstanding ability to work for and with all people.

Congratulations should also be extended to the Japanese-American Citizens League for their good judgment in electing Henry Tanaka as their president.

The following is a summary of the history of the Japanese-American Citizens League:

HISTORY OF THE JAPANESE AMERICAN CITIZENS LEAGUE

Forty-two years ago, a handful of Niseis (Japanese Americans) from California, Oregon and Washington met in Seattle to form the Japanese American Citizens League (JACL). The formation of the organization was a direct result of the discrimination practiced and in some cases made legitimate through legislation, particularly by state laws. Most of the states in which these Americans of Japanese ancestry resided had laws which prevented their parents from buying land, which prevented adults from marrying persons of their choices for racial reasons, and which denied citizenship to oriental immigrants regardless of length of stay or service in World War I as members of the United States armed services.

On December 7, 1941, prejudice and discrimination flared into mass hysteria on the West Coast. The result was the evacuation of 120,000 men, women and children, most of whom were American citizens. No charges were filed against them. No hearings were held. Their names, their parental origin and their oriental features were sufficient cause in those dark days to confine them behind barbed wired fences. The barely finished barracks were euphemistically called "relocation centers".

It was during this turmoil that the JACL realized its full maturity. With a basic belief in the Nation's institutions, the JACL launched a vigorous program of public education, legal action, and government petition. A test case challenging the legality of Evacuation was taken to the Supreme Court. In California, when the Native Sons of the Golden West sought to strike the names of Nisei evacuees from the rolls of registered voters, the JACL took successful legal action to block this attempt.

Simultaneously, after having to petition the government to reinstate Selective Service for the Nisei, the celebrated 442 Regimental Combat Team was formed. The 442 became the most decorated unit of its size and length of service in American military history.

The post War saw the JACL step up its legislative front. Most significant was the goal of citizenship privileges for the immigrant parents who were in fact the real first generation Americans of Japanese ancestry. The elimination of the Immigration and Nationality Act eliminated race as a qualification for naturalization.

Today the JACL has chapters in over 30 states and the District of Columbia; they are 25,000 members strong. From many of these chapters communities and cities are finding leadership active on school boards, city councils, state legislatures and in elective offices.

Recently, in keeping with its motto, "Better Americans in a greater America," the JACL spearheaded an effort to assure that no other group of Americans would be subject to the mass mistreatment they underwent. On September 14, 1971, history came full cycle with the repeal of the Emergency Detention Act. 356 Congressmen voted for the repeal as the JACL won one of its most heart felt battles. The bill of repeal was sponsored by an American of Japanese ancestry.

I am of course delighted to have cast my vote for the repeal of the Emergency Detention Act.

HON. EDITH GREEN
OF OREGON

Mrs. GREEN of Oregon. Mr. Speaker, I am pleased to join Congressman MATSUNAGA in paying tribute to Japanese Americans. Whatever thanks may be given for the repeal of title II of the Internal Security Act is, in my humble view, insignificant compared to the vote of thanks owed to all Americans of Japanese ancestry by their fellow Americans for their matchless example of endurance and faith in the ultimate triumph of justice during one particularly dark chapter of American history.

Many recall that sad chapter in the life of our people during World War II and those of us especially who live on the west coast remember with humiliation what happened to our neighbors, our friends—purely because of their ancestry. They were summarily imprisoned; their property was confiscated; their rights were suspended, and a whole segment of our citizenry was detained in concentration camps without trial, convicted in a most demeaning fashion, and en masse, on mere suspicion.

Lesser affronts have sent people spilling into the streets demanding instant justice, demanding instant compensation, and summary punishment for the

evil-doers. Japanese Americans chose to take the long view of history, realizing even as the blind poet Homer did some 2,000 years before Christ that war brings out both the best and the worst in a nation. It has taken more than a quarter of a century to see this "long view" vindicated, but the triumph of that special strength of character that we have come to associate with the Japanese-American community is utter and complete. They have not merely endured; they have prevailed. And in the process they have exhibited to Americans who stem from a different cultural tradition, and whose faith in its moral teachings are sometimes today seen to be faltering, an unparalleled lesson in meeting injustice with forgiveness, intolerance with tolerance, suspicion with trust, and most importantly, hatred with love.

A people unwilling to persevere in the hope and faith of the ultimate triumph of justice may not hope to endure as a nation, let alone prevail. And so I say again, your fellow Americans are in your very special debt for the example you have set.

HON. ROBERT N. GIAIMO

OF CONNECTICUT

Mr. GIAIMO. Mr. Speaker, it is, indeed, a pleasure to welcome to Washington the delegates of the Japanese American Citizens League during their 22d biennial convention. This occasion offers a rare opportunity to celebrate the contributions made by citizens of Japanese descent to the everyday life and diversified culture we enjoy in the United States. For it has taken this country far too long to appreciate the industry and loyalty demonstrated by Japanese Americans. Many of us live with the haunting memory of the disgraceful treatment afforded Japanese-Americans during World War II when they were interned and branded as aliens to our cause. This prejudiced attitude lingered long after the hostilities were settled. In fact, only this year was legislation introduced to compensate Japanese Americans who were interned during the Second World War. This legislation is designed to provide civil service and social security retirement benefits based on time including the period of internment.

It is a hopeful sign that the delegates to this convention are representing more than 100 chapters in 32 States, perhaps an indication of a long overdue recognition and acceptance of Japanese-Americans as people who have demonstrated a great pride in their country while retaining the spirit of their own ancient heritage. We owe them our gratitude. They have contributed to this Nation their toil, inteligence, and artistic accomplishments. And, more important, they lend a respectful tone for tradition and loyalty from which we all can benefit from time to time.

HON. JOHN S. MONAGAN

OF CONNECTICUT

Mr. MONAGAN. Mr. Speaker, it is with pleasure that I join my colleagues in praise of our citizens of Japanese descent. I welcome this opportunity because I realize the contributions that this group has made to American life.

Most of these citizens live in Hawaii or California, and yet their contributions are not limited geographically. They have made truly national contributions in all areas of American life: Japanese American participation in the arts has not only produced fine music, sculpture, and architecture, but it has inspired other American artists to draw on the artistic and cultural motifs of their work; individual members of this group have labored long and well in the name of science and medicine; the Imperial Valley is a monument to their efforts in irrigation and land development; and Japanese Americans have served valiantly and loyally with other American servicemen, in World War II, the Korean war, and Vietnam.

I welcome the Japanese American Citizens League to Washington. The Japanese experience in the United States provides a lesson in perseverance and dedication from which all Americans can benefit. They have overcome the racial, religious, and language differences that have confronted them. But their presence in Washington also indicated a continuing concern with representing the interests of their members—interests that remain vital today. Drawing upon the cultural strengths of a proud past, they have set an example for all Americans. I know that the contributions to American life will continue.

HON. HIRAM L. FONG

OF HAWAII

Mr. FONG. Mr. President, our Nation's Capital is the meeting place this week of the 22d Biennial National Convention of the Japanese American Citizens League. Approximately 500 delegates representing more than 25,000 members from chapters throughout the Nation are assembled in this city for a weeklong convention.

As a longtime friend and admirer of the JACL, I wish to extend to all the delegates a very warm personal welcome to Washington, especially since this is the first time the organization is holding its national convention here.

The JACL, founded in 1930, is the only national organization of the Japanese Americans in this country. As such, it has given constructive leadership not only to its own members, but also has assisted other minorities as well. The JACL has been in the forefront of the fight for reform of our immigration and naturalization laws, for civil rights, and most recently, for the repeal of title II of the Internal Security Act of 1950, under which arbitrary detention was possible.

JACL not only was an effective advocate of these and other legislative measures, but did much before and during congresional consideration of such legislation to stimulate legislative interest and affirmative action.

As one who has worked with the JACL on many projects and proposals over the years, I am proud to be associated with the successful achievement of various JACL objectives.

During this biennial convention, when so many of the JACL leaders and members and their families are gathered in Washington, it seems most appropriate to pay a well-deserved tribute to their organization. I know Senators and Members of the other House who have had contacts with the JACL, will be happy to join me in expressing our hearty welcome and compliments to the convention delegates.

The high esteem and respect in which the JACL is held nationally has been voiced by President Nixon in a message addressed to the convention:

The members of the Japanese American Citizens League are to be commended for continuing their strong tradition of adherence to the legacy of their forebears while at the same time enriching our own American heritage. Your Twenty-Second Biennial National Convention gives me a good opportunity to tell you again how much your individual and collective contributions to the life of our society are appreciated by me personally and by the nation as a whole.

The high ideals of dignity and human brotherhood which you have always espoused, constructively expressed in your many fine programs, have earned you the respect and admiration of all who are familiar with your work. The spirit of patriotism and the idea of unity in diversity have never been more basic to the achievement of our national aspirations. Your dedication to this effort places you in the forefront of those civic organizations on whom so much of the future greatness of our society respects.

May you have a most enjoyable and productive session.

Similar praise for the JACL has been extended by the four previous Presidents. I ask unanimous consent that these Presidential messages be printed in the RECORD.

There being no objection, the messages were ordered to be printed in the RECORD, as follows:

PRESIDENTIAL MESSAGES TO THE JAPANESE AMERICAN CITIZENS LEAGUE

"This nation has been built by the labor and dedication of Americans whose forebears came from many lands. None have worked harder, fought more bravely, or contributed finer sons and daughters to their adopted home than our citizens of Japanese ancestry.

"I am pleased to salute the enduring contributions you have made to our way of life and happy to commend your efforts to perpetuate a culture and a heritage which have so enriched our society."

President LYNDON B. JOHNSON, 1966.

"Your organization has earned an enviable reputation for the high standards of citizenship which you have set for all of your members. You have contributed generously to your communities and to our national life."

President JOHN F. KENNEDY, 1962.

"I congratulate the Japanese American Citizens League on its support of good citizenship, liberty, and patriotism. As you who are League members strive to uphold your organization's motto, 'For Better Americans In A Greater America,' I am confident you will continue to bring credit to your organization and benefit to the United States."

President DWIGHT D. EISENHOWER, 1956.

"The significant and effective work of your organization . . . on behalf of all persons of Japanese ancestry in the United States and Hawaii is a tribute to the democracy within whose framework you plead your case and achieve your goals.

"The members of the Japanese American Citizens League have proved anew that decency and justice cannot long be frustrated if we stand together to create new and better bonds of understanding between free citizens in a free nation."

President HARRY S. TRUMAN, 1950.

Mr. FONG. Mr. President, the JACL has indeed had a notable history which richly deserves to be widely disseminated. It is the heartwarming story of a group of Americans, relatively small in number but deeply dedicated to making their motto a living force: "Better Americans in a Greater America." Their story has been told by William K. Hosokawa, associate editor of the Denver Post and an outstanding JACL member, in an official

JACL publication entitled "Better Americans in a Greater America." I ask unanimous consent that the article be printed in the RECORD.

There being no objection, the article was ordered to be printed in the RECORD, as follows:

BETTER AMERICANS IN A GREATER AMERICA

Through the pages of this booklet, we would like you to meet the Nisei (rhymes with Knee-Say)—Americans of Japanese ancestry.

The *Nisei* are a comparatively new and infinitesimal minority in American life. On the mainland of the United States there are about 200,000 of them. Despite distinctive features, they are Americans not only by birth, but by upbringing, education and choice.

Like other Americans, the *Nisei* come in various sizes, shapes and vocational callings.

There are *Nisei* butlers and gardeners. There are also *Nisei* space scientists, judges, college professors, engineers, surgeons and editors. They grow food on farms and flowers in greenhouses. They seek the solution to the mysteries of cancer and other diseases in medical laboratories. Three *Nisei* represent the State of Hawaii in Congress. There are *Nisei* jockeys and ministers of the Gospel, cab drivers and Air Force pilots, financiers and social workers, house painters and architects. There are *Nisei* serving the United States abroad in both the armed and diplomatic services. There are even a few *Nisei*—a very few—in jail.

The only thing they have in common, aside from their pride in American citizenship, is their ancestry. Their parents, *Issei* (meaning "first generation"), came as immigrants to the United States about the turn of the century. Just as immigrants from Europe first tended to settle on the East Coast, these newcomers from Japan remained largely in the Pacific coastal states.

Today, *Nisei* live in every one of the 50 states, moving wherever opportunities beckon them. Perhaps it is only natural that the largest number on the continental mainland live in the most populous state, California.

The immigrants from Japan came to the United States in search of freedom and opportunity. Like any immigrant group the *Issei* faced many adjustments. Their problems were accentuated by differences in appearance, customs and language. They found that rather than being praised for their industry, they were accused of lowering standards of living. Instead of being hailed as pioneers of the still undeveloped West, they were regarded as intruders. Politicians found in them a convenient scapegoat, harassing them with cries of the "yellow peril."

But these new immigrants persevered. They helped build the railroads and develop raw land into productive farms. They cleared timber and mined coal. Their crime rate was low. Hardly any became public charges. Their children rarely became delinquents. They were peaceful, hard-working, self-reliant Americans in every way except the most important—our laws prohibited them from becoming naturalized citizens because of their race. And so legally, they remained aliens.

But their children, the *Nisei* were citizens by birth, and the *Issei* looked to them to bridge the gap of misunderstanding and prejudice. The *Nisei*, however, soon learned they had inherited the problems as well as the pioneering courage of their parents. Many persons refused to look beneath the Oriental features of these young men and women and recognize them as fellow Americans entitled to the privileges and responsibilities of citizenship. The *Nisei* found doors closed to jobs for which they were qualified, housing denied them outside the Oriental ghettoes.

As the older *Nisei* reached voting age, they realized their struggle for acceptance might be strengthened through unity. A handful of *Nisei* from California, Oregon and Washington met in Seattle in 1930 and formed the Japanese American Citizens League (JACL).

Today the Jacl is the National Organization Representing Japanese Americans. Its objective is defined by its slogan: "Better Americans in a greater America." The story of this organization is an inspiring account of a group of young American's treasuring their birthright, defending it, and seeking to be worthy of it.

Of course all its purposes were not so earnestly serious. The JACL also had its social and fraternal aims. But in their effort to become exemplary citizens, the *Nisei* quickly became aware that in a democracy laws are the people's safeguard, and good citizens take an interest in government. It is perhaps significant that delegates to the first JACL convention took two actions demonstrating the importance they placed on the privilege of American citizenship. They adopted resolutions calling on Congress to:

Permit *Nisei* girls who had married alien Japanese to regain their citizenship, through an amendment to the Cable Act.

Grant citizenship to Oriental-born men who had served in the United States armed forces in World War I.

Both measures subsequently were enacted into law.

During the 1930's, as more and more *Nisei* attained their majority and became aware of civic responsibilities, additional chapters of the JACL came into being. This was a period of growth and development for the *Nisei* who, individualy, were largely preoccupied with the problems of economic and social adjustment. These problems, already complicated by the inherited prejudices, were intensified during the closing years of the decade by a situation over which they had neither control nor connection. Their fellow Americans, outraged by Japan's aggression in the Far East, misdirected their wrath against Japanese Americans.

The Japanese Attack on Pearl Harbor on Dec. 7, 1941, shocked and angered the *Nisei* as it did all Americans. The *Issei*, most of whom had lived virtually all their adult lives in the United States, were stunned. Thousands of *Nisei* already were in U.S. Army uniform. Many others, with the blessing of their parents, rushed to enlist.

But the old prejudices were fanned into hysteria against all Japanese Americans. The *Issei*, through no fault of their own, were quickly classified as enemy aliens. For the *Nisei*, it was another matter. In historical perspective, it is possible to document the fact that racism, political opportunism and economic greed created pressures which fed on fear and led to what has been described as the "blackest chapter" in the history of American democracy. . . .

On March 2, 1942, the United States government ordered all persons of Japanese extraction, citizen and alien alike, removed from the West Coast solely on the basis of race, and locked in inland relocation camps.

Thus began the mass Evacuation of 120,000 men, women and children, two-thirds of them American citizens, months after danger of invasion had passed. No charges were filed against them. No hearing was held as to their loyalty. They were simply ordered out of their homes and escorted behind barbed wire by armed troops in an action unprecedented in American history.

During the period of mounting hysteria that preceded the Evacuation order, JACL leaders worked valiantly for a restoration of reason. They tried to calm the fears of *Issei* and *Nisei*, cooperated fully with the authorities, sought to remove possible misunderstanding by the American public at large regarding the loyalty of Japanese Americans, protested their case to government policy-makers.

But the pressures were too great. Once the Evacuation decision was made—and explained by the government on the basis of "military necessity"—the JACL had no alternative but to urge the *Issei* and *Nisei* to cooperate in the Evacuation as a patriotic contribution to the war effort.

There were other considerations. To resist as a matter of principle—while a tempting course of action, could well have led to bloodshed. Cooperation was essential to demonstrate *Nisei* loyalty to their country in a time of crisis. Furthermore, the JACL recognized that while a case might be made for the rights of the American citizen *Nisei*, there was no recourse for their now enemy alien *Issei* parents and separation of families posed serious complications.

In retrospect, observers have marveled that the Evacuation was completed almost without incident, for the loss of freedom was a bitter experience to the Nisei. The cruelest blow was the feeling of being repudiated by their own government, of knowing that a basic American principle was being violated when they were imprisoned for having the wrong kind of ancestors. It was a particularly grim time for the *Nisei* already in the U.S. Army who saw their families placed in desert camps ringed by barbed wire and guarded by military police. At the time, the loss of 400 millions of dollars in assets—businesses closed, farms abandoned, homes boarded up and furnishings sold for pennies on the dollar—seemed unimportant in relation to the affront to human values and democratic ideals.

Almost overnight in this trying period the JACL became a mature, fighting organization. With a courage based on faith in America, JACL leaders were making plans for the fight ahead even as the Evacuation was under way. They launched a vigorous program of public education, cooperating with civilian government agencies set up belatedly to safeguard the welfare of the evacuees, seeking relief through the courts from organized persecution. A test case challenging the legality of the Evacuation was taken to the United States Supreme Court. In California, when the Native Sons of the Golden West sought to strike the names of *Nisei* evacuees from the rolls of registered voters, the JACL took successful legal action to block this raid on their birthright.

In 1942 JACL representatives petitioned the government to reinstate Selective Service which had been suspended with the Evacuation for the *Nisei*. Early in 1943 the War Department decided to create an Army regiment made up of *Nisei* volunteers. While the idea of a segregated unit was repugnant, the *Nisei* recognizied the public relations value of such an organization, working together, going into action as a team. Hundreds of volunteers from the relocation centers and from Hawaii joined *Nisei* already in service to form the celebrated Japanese American 442nd Regimental Combat Team. Their motto was "Go For Broke"—Hawaiian slang for "shoot the works," or "all or nothing."

In a series of actions in Italy and France, the 442nd became the most decorated unit of its size and length of service in American military history. These G.I.'s with Oriental faces fought not only for the nation, but also for acceptance for themselves and their families. How valiantly they battled to prove themselves is indicated in these figures—18,143 individual decorations, 9,486 (309%) casualties and seven Presidential Distinguished Unit Citations collected in seven major campaigns.

Nor was the *Nisei* military record confined to the European theater. Though little publicized because of the nature of their duties, some 10,000 Americans of Japanese ancestry served in military intelligence as the "eyes and ears" of Allied forces in the Pacific. They were with every major unit in every Pacific engagement from the Aleutians and Guadalcanal to the march into Tokyo and the occupation of Japan. They served in the front lines and in headquarters from Pearl Harbor to Burma. Analyzing intercepted communications, interrogating prisoners, translating captured documents, persuading die-hard enemy troops to surrender, the *Nisei* saved thousands of American lives and helped shorten the war in the Pacific by many months, according to General MacArthur's Chief of Staff for Military Intelligence. Even the Navy and Marines, which refused to induct *Nisei*, borrowed these lan-

guage specialists from the Army.

These *Nisei* faced a double danger in the Pacific—from the enemy and from fellow G.I.s who might mistake their identity. In tribute to them, Gen. Joseph (Vinegar Joe) Stilwell) commanding general of U.S. Army forces in Asia, remarked: "The *Nisei* bought an awful big hunk of America with their blood."

As restrictions against the evacuees were eased, other *Nisei* as well as *Issei* left the relocation centers to take part in the civilian war effort. They helped harvest food crops and worked in defense plants. *Issei* with specialized skills served with the Office of Strategic Services, taught the Japanese language to Army, Navy and Air Corps personnel, wrote propaganda leaflets which were rained down on the enemy, monitored enemy broadcasts and played key roles in psychological warfare.

The outstanding record of persons of Japanese ancestry during the war bore out the truth of President Franklin D. Roosevelt's statement that "Americanism is a matter of mind and heart, Americanism is not . . . a matter of race or ancestry." Despite rumors—rumors which are hard to stamp out—the files of every government investigative and intelligence agency show conclusively that not a single resident alien Japanese or American of Japanese ancestry committed an act of sabotage or esponage for the enemy before, during, or after the attack on Pearl Harbor.

In 1943 the Government's program of resettlement got under way. Although the West Coast was still closed to them, the evacuees were permitted to leave the relocation centers and move to communities in the East and Midwest. In cooperation with federal authorities and national church organizations, the JACL assisted in the student relocation program whereby *Nisei* college students were able to continue their studies in inland schools. Entire families were resettled in communities throughout the American heartland and were accepted almost without incident.

This acceptance was due in part to the exemplary conduct of the evacuees themselves, in part to the good will of Americans who showed they understood the meaning of democracy. But the largest part of the credit must go to the dramatic reports from the European front where *Nisei* of the 442nd were proving themselves in battle. The *Nisei's* loyal response to the War Department's decision to create "a symbol of the loyalty of Japanese Americans" was paying off.

On the home front JACL stepped up its program of public education and established regional offices in Denver, Chicago, and New York to assist in the resettlement program. As Japanese Americans sank roots into new communities, it was only natural that JACL chapters should be formed wherever they settled in appreciable numbers.

At the same time JACL membership, heretofore restricted to Japanese Americans, was opened to all citizens who subscribed to its principles and many friends of the *Nisei* joined.

Meanwhile, deeply concerned over the precedents set by the Evacuation, JACL had sought judicial reviews of the constitutionality of all aspects of the program. Three landmark suits reached the United States Supreme Court.

In 1943, in a suit brought by Gordon K. Hirabayashi, the Supreme Court ruled unanimously that the curfew and travel restrictions imposed on Japanese Americans were a legal application of military authority.

In 1944, in the JACL-sponsored Fred Korematsu case, the majority of the Supreme Court upheld the legality of the evacuation based solely upon race. Three justices dissented.

But late in 1944, the Supreme Court ruled unanimously in the Mitsuye Endo case that the government had no right to detain loyal American citizens in the relocation centers. Within 48 hours the Army revoked its West Coast exclusion orders.

One legal victory had been won, but it is a disturbing fact that the Supreme Court's decision legalizing evacuation on racial grounds still stands. The JACL agrees with Mr. Justice Jackson's warning that the decision is a "loaded weapon" pointed at democratic rights, and a reversal of the decision is an important piece of unfinished business in the aftermath of an ugly chapter of American history.

The reopening of the Pacific Coast clearly revealed the hand of the racists. Having lost the fight to exclude Japanese Americans legally, these elements resorted to threats and violence in an effort to discourage evacuees from returning to homes, farms and businesses. On shameful record are more than 100 cases of arson, shootings and beatings against returning evacuees. By these acts of terrorism, they demonstrated that their cry of "evacuate the Japs as a military necessity" was a sham. Their alleged concern for national security turned out to be a front for blind racial prejudice or desire for personal economic gain.

But the majority of residents of the West Coast subscribed to principles of decency and fair play, and about three-fourths of the evacuees moved back to their home communities. Again, JACL was in the vanguard, establishing "outposts" in San Francisco and Los Angeles to help in the adjustment of homecoming.

One by one the barriers fell. *Nisei* and *Issei* reestablished homes and businesses, returned to old jobs or found new ones and sought to resume lives disrupted by the Evacuation. One major acknowledgement of the loyalty of the *Nisei* was the Navy's announcement late in 1945 that its ranks would be open for their enlistment.

In their first postwar national convention, JACL members assembled in Denver in 1946 with the sober realization that the organization must spearhead a fight to secure, once and for all, the rights for which *Nisei* G.I.s had gone "for broke." Their wartime experiences had tought them the realistic lesson that only in organization is there strength, that organization is essential even in making a minority group's needs known to its own government. Among their goals were three measures aimed at rectifying injustices against persons of Japanese ancestry:

Legislation to change federal law classifying *Issei* as "ineligible to citizenship" even though they had resided in the United States a half century or more. This law was the basis for much legalized discrimination against *Issei* in many states.

Compensation for property losses suffered in the evacuation.

Stay of deportation for deserving alien Japanese who had lost the right to reside in the United States as "treaty merchants" on the outbreak of war. Many of these individuals had American-born families.

Such an ambitious program could succeed only through a campaign of public education beginning with communities which had been receptive to Japanese Americans. New JACL chapters were established in the East and Midwest where evacuees had settled permanently, and old chapters were reactivated as the Nisei returned to their West Coast homes.

Today the JACL membership roster reflects the extent to which Japanese Americans have spread out across the United States. Whereas before the war JACL chapters were found only in a half dozen states in the Far West, now there are chapters and members in 32 states and the District of Columbia. Thus, out of the war, JACL emerged a truly national organization both geographically and in scope of program.

To implement the national program, a JACL Anti-Discrimination Committee was incorporated and an office opened in Washington, D.C. JACL had not forgotten that Washington officials in 1941 had been woefully ignorant about this American minority and had allowed West Coast pressure groups to dictate national policy regarding them. JACL leaders realized, too, that there are no spectators in a democracy, and that good citizenship means active participation in government. And so the organization has become the collective voice of the *Nisei*, and the JACL finds itself being consulted on matters of national policy having to do with Japanese Americans.

Since JACL represents a small minority without effective voting power, its approach to Washington in seeking its objectives was an appeal for simple justice backed by a record of loyalty tested by fire.

By the time of the next JACL convention in 1948 Congress had passed an act to compensate evacuees for their losses, and had consented to place deportation of Japanese treaty merchants on the same basis as those of other nationalities, thus assuring them of being able to stay with their American-born families.

In addition, through JACL representations, the Soldier Brides Bill was amended to permit the Japanese spouse and children of American servicemen to enter the United States without regard to the Japanese Exclusion Act. This enabled Japanese, for the first time since the Exclusion Act of 1924, to enter this country for permanent residence. JACL was also successful in restoring tenure, cancelled as a result of Evacuation, to *Nisei* in federal civil service. Additionally, Congress passed more than 200 private bills benefiting individual *Issei* and *Nisei*. Significantly, every bill passed without a dissenting vote.

In 1952, JACL's major legislative goal of citizenship privileges for the *Issei* was realized with passage of the Immigration and Nationality Act eliminating race as a qualification for naturalization.

This Act also allowed for the first time a token immigration quota for Japan, negating the 1924 Oriental Exclusion Act which many historians say planted the seeds of resentment which resulted ultimately in war. JACL's plea that certain prospective citizens be permitted to take their examination in their native language enabled many other long-time resident aliens of various nationalities to qualify for American citizenship.

Elimination of the category, "aliens ineligible for citizenship," had widespread repercussions. Some 500 federal and state statutes aimed against and hindering the progress of such aliens, and in many cases their citizen children, were wiped out.

To assist Issei in qualifying for the citizenship they had desired for so long, JACL chapters conducted naturalization classes. So great was the response that for the first time in history the Immigration and Naturalization Service conducted mass swearing-in ceremonies. Despite the advanced age of most Issei, the record shows that in proportion to their number more of them became citizens than in any other nationality group.

JACL also interceded successfully for two groups of Issei with special problems. California was persuaded to grant old age assistance to Issei unable for one reason or another to secure naturalization and who had lived in the United States at least 25 years prior to passage of the 1952 Naturalization Act. The naturalization petitions of certain Issei were challenged on the ground that they had sought exemptions from World War I military duty on the plea that they were aliens. Precedents were established when courts in San Francisco and Denver accepted JACL's position that classification as exempt aliens was involuntary and made automatically by local draft boards.

The President's Immigration Act Amendments of October 1965, eliminating the discriminatory Asia-Pacific Triangle and the National Origins formula in determining immigration quotas, marked the achievement of another major JACL goal. In effect it placed immigration from all Asian countries, including Japan, on an equal basis with other Old World countries, including Europe. Significantly, of all organizations supporting the liberalization of the nation's immigration laws, JACL was first in urging equal treatment for the peoples of Asia.

JACL carried on its campaign for equal rights in courts and state legislatures as well as Congress. In the Oyama case the U.S. Supreme Court established the right of a citizen child to receive a gift of land from his alien parent. This led eventually

to the California State Supreme Court declaring unconstitutional the 40-year-old California Alien Land Law in the Fujii and Masaoka cases. JACL subsequently succeeded in removing this law from the state constitution through referendum. Also as a result of the Oyama case the State of California discontinued what has been referred to as "legalized blackmail" of Japanese landowners by requiring out-of-court money settlements to the state to clear land titles. The state was later to return such escheat monies by action of the legislature.

In the Takahashi case the U.S. Supreme Court invalidated the California law denying commercial fishing licenses to resident alien Japanese.

The battle against discriminatory laws on the state level has been particularly effective. JACL participated in drives to repeal alien land laws in Oregon, Utah, Idaho and Washington, and in eliminating anti-miscegenation laws in Idaho, Nebraska, Utah and Wyoming. JACL helped make Idahoans aware of an obscure statute denying the privilege of voting, serving as jurors and holding office to "Chinese and others of Mongolian descent" not born in the United States, even though citizens. The law was wiped off the books by overwhelming referendum vote.

JACL's campaign for equal rights has not been confined to persons of Japanese ancestry. Realizing that a threat to the rights of any minority is a threat to all Americans, JACL actively has supported the President's Civil Rights program, state and federal Fair Employment and Fair Housing laws, anti-lynch and anti-poll tax bills, and the end of segregation in the armed forces. JACL has been a charter member of the National Leadership Conference on Civil Rights, the coordinating body for more than 100 national organizations representing church, labor, veterans and ethnic groups.

On matters of general concern, but affecting *Nisei* indirectly, JACL has joined with other organizations as "friend of the court" in making its views known. JACL played such a role in Brown v. Board of Education, the historic school desegregation case, and in the case in which the U.S. Supreme Court invalidated restrictive covenants.

JACL participated in the campaign to uphold California's fair housing laws, and joined in amicus brief in the State Supreme Court reversal of the referendum prohibiting the State from providing open housing.

In Loving v. Virginia where the U.S. Supreme Court ruled against anti-miscegenation statutes in the States, JACL filed amicus brief and its National Legal Counsel participated in oral argument.

JACL is proud to have had a part in the campaign for statehood for Hawaii, advocating the staunch Americanism of its people, one-third of whom are of Japanese ancestry.

JACL has felt it of utmost importance that all Americans be made aware of their fellow citizens of Japanese extraction and their place in the nation. An intensive information and education program has been carried on. Among the highlights have been:

A gala homecoming arranged for veterans of the 442nd on their return from Europe, with President Truman reviewing the unit.

Reburial ceremonies for *Nisei* soldiers at Arlington National Cemetery with high government and military leaders in attendance.

Naming of a U.S. Army transport in honor of Pvt. Sadao Munemori, posthumous recipient of the Medal of Honor.

Cooperation with the city of Bruyeres, France, in dedication of a memorial park in honor of the 442nd Combat Team, for the role it played in liberating that community.

Sponsoring services at Arlington National Cemetery commemorating the twentieth anniversary of the 442nd, resulting in an unprecedented two-hour tribute to *Nisei* servicemen in the House of Representatives.

Cooperation with Metro-Goldwyn-Mayer in production of the film, "Go for Broke," a tribute to the war record of the 442nd.

Cooperation with the Columbia Broadcasting System in production of its TV program, "Nisei—The Pride and the Shame," in the Twentieth Century series.

In addition, the JACL has been the primary source of information for a host of writers and editors, scholars and students, officials and organizations seeking factual information about Japanese Americans.

One of JACL's current functions is as a "watchdog," alert for movements and proposals both in Congress and state legislatures which might have a possible effect on the welfare of Japanese Americans. In this role it has fought discrimination in cemeteries, protested the production of "hate" films depicting Japanese Americans in a false light and the revival on television of wartime movies that portray the *Nisei* wrongfully. Through JACL's efforts, inaccuracies in textbooks concerning Japanese Americans have been corrected. JACL has pointed out the derogatory implications in the word "Jap" with the result that several standard dictionaries have revised their definition of the term and it has all but disappeared from newspaper headlines.

In 1960 JACL launched a project of researching and writing the history of the Japanese in America and their contributions to this nation. While designed as a tribute to the *Issei*, the project was in keeping with the JACL's educational program and to highlight the rich cultural heritage of Americans of Japanese descent. The University of California at Los Angeles has accepted cosponsorship of the history project and has been designated as a repository for documentary material collected by researchers. Both the Carnegie Corporation and the National Institute of Mental Health have made grants to further the project.

In recent years an increasing number of Sansei—the children of *Nisei*—have turned to JACL for a better understanding of their identity and backgrounds and for knowledge about the struggle of their parents and grandparents to find acceptance in American life. A number of Junior JACL groups have been formed under sponsorship of JACL chapters as an important part of the JACL program. Unhindered by discrimination, these young people already are making significant contributions to their communities and in their fields of endeavor. JACL has established a national scholarship program as a step toward perpetuating the *Nisei* heritage of academic achievement.

The Japanese American Citizens League, born of the needs of a particular ethnic group, is dedicated to hastening the day when Americans of Japanese ancestry face only those problems which have no racial implications and are no different from the problems faced by all Americans. The term "Japanese American" in the organization's name describes the scope of its operations and activities; it does not identify the membership for its ranks are open to all Americans who believe in its purposes and are interested in its activities. Nor is the term ever hyphenated, for JACL is not a hyphenated organization. JACL is also aware that the concept of America as a "melting pot" has been replaced by the concept of an America united in, and enriched by, the diverse cultural backgrounds of all its people. The *Nisei* are proud of their cultural contributions to a greater America.

JACL's governing body is the National Board, members of which are elected at the biennial national convention held each even-numbered year. Legislative powers reside in the National Council composed of two representatives from each chapter which in turn are grouped geographically into eight District Councils: Eastern, Midwest, Mountain-Plains, Intermountain, Pacific Northwest, Northern California-Western Nevada, Central California and Pacific Southwest.

There are now 88 chapters with total membership exceeding 22,000. The organization is supported through dues and contributions. Associate membership is provided those who reside in areas not served by chapters. JACL is incorporated as a non-profit organization under the laws of the state of California and enjoys state and federal tax exempt status.

JACL publishes a weekly news organ, *The Pacific Citizen*, in Los Angeles to keep the membership informed and to mirror the aims, activities and achievements of Japanese Americans. *The Pacific Citizen* has a proud record of hard hitting leadership and reporting in the best American journalistic traditions. JACL also maintains a national credit union and offers a health and accident insurance program.

As in all Democratic organizations, it is the local JACL chapters which provide grass roots support for the national organization. At the local level they carry on programs of public education, community welfare and youth development; they sponsor informative sessions on local and current issues; organize athletic leagues and social events; undertake voter registration and get-out-to-vote campaigns. In short, they serve as channels for the wider participation of Japanese Americans in the total life of their respective communities.

The current acceptance of Americans of Japanese ancestry, as contrasted with their position in 1941, is both a measure of the effectiveness of the JACL and a demonstration of the ability of a democracy to redress wrongs within its framework.

Congressman Walter H. Judd of Minnesota paid eloquent tribute to the Japanese American Citizens League in a statement, titled "Touchstone of Democracy," published in 1955 on the occasion of its 25th anniversary, in the *Congressional Record:*

"The JACL story for their first 25 years is an inspiring document of democracy action, at the best, an epic which could have been written only in America and which completely refutes the hate and race mongers of only a few years ago who charged that the Japanese, by their very character, were unassimilable into the American cultural pattern, which itself as we all know, is made up of the cultures and the contributions of all the many peoples who have immigrated to these shores since time immemorial, as did the ancestors of all of us.

"But perhaps even more important in the long pull of history is that, what the JACL has accomplished here in the United States is living proof to all the free peoples of the world, and especially to those in the Far East who are so important to us as a nation today, that the democratic way is best, for it makes possible the correction of abuses and wrongs and the achievement of justice and redress on the basis of the complete record and of individual merit, not race, color, creed or national origin."

In its ceaseless struggle for the extension of the rights and privileges of America to every citizen, the JACL has been guided by the spirit of its "Japanese American Creed." It was writen by Mike M. Masaoka, longtime Washington representative of the JACL. It was first read before the United States Senate on May 9, 1941, and published in the *Congresisonal Record*.