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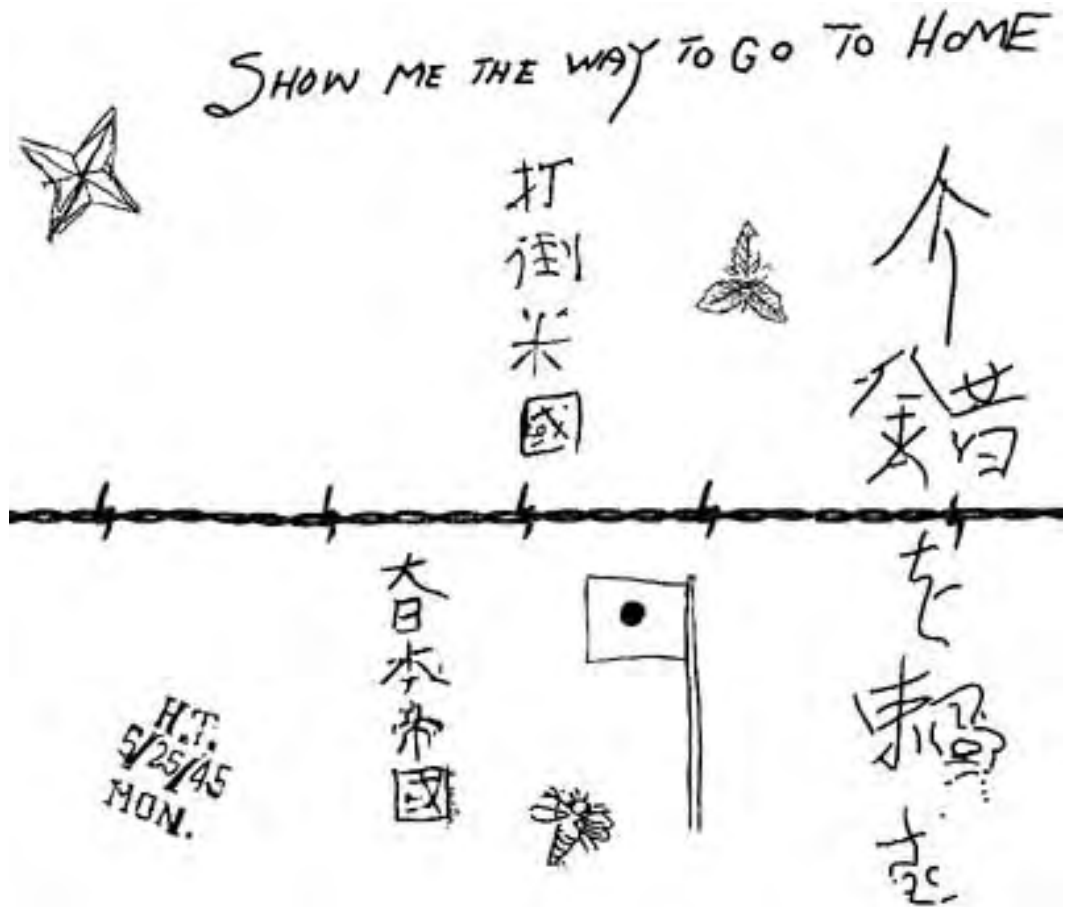
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Western Archeological and Conservation Center
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Cover illustrations: pencilled inscriptions at the Tule Lake stockade jail; translation of Japanese text — Japanese Empire (left), Down with the United States (middle), Please be a second when I commit harakiri ... (right).

Confinement and Ethnicity is out of print. The National Park Service no longer has any paper copies of this publication.

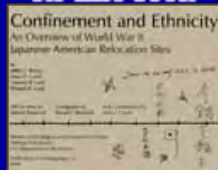
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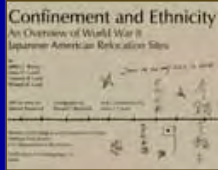
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Confinement and Ethnicity:

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by J. Burton, M. Farrell, F. Lord, and R. Lord



Abstract

This report provides an overview of the tangible remains currently left at the sites of the Japanese American internment during World War II. The main focus is on the War Relocation Authority's relocation centers, but Department of Justice and U.S. Army facilities where Japanese Americans were interned are also considered. The goal of the study has been to provide information for the National Landmark Theme Study called for in the Manzanar National Historic Site enabling legislation. Archival research, field visits, and interviews with former internees provide preliminary documentation about the architectural remnants, the archeological features, and the artifacts remaining at the sites. The degree of preservation varies tremendously. At some locations, modern development has obscured many traces of the World War II-era buildings and features. At a few sites, relocation center buildings still stand, and some are still in use. Overall the physical remains at all the sites are evocative of this very significant, if shameful, episode in U.S. history, and all appear to merit National Register of Historic Places or National Historic Landmark status.

強制収容と民族性

第二次世界大戦下の日系人強制収容所 概観

この報告書は、第二次世界大戦中の日系人強制収容所跡に現存する史料について、概観を試みるものです。本書では、戦時転住局管轄の収容所を中心に、司法省や米陸軍管轄の収容施設にも光をあてていきます。当調査研究は、マンザナ国立史跡の文化財指定を目指して、国立文化財委員会に資料を提供するために進められました。建物跡や考古学的史料、史跡に残された物品については、古書、実地検証、体験者談話を補足資料として調査を行いました。保存の程度は実に様々です。第二次大戦当時の建造物跡は、近年の開発によってほとんど消滅している所もあるかと思えば、現役で使用に耐えている場所もあるのです。収容所跡の物理的な遺物は全て、この重要なかつ不面目な米国史のひとコマを後世に伝える大切な史料であり、国立史跡登録 (National Register of Historic Places) または国立文化財 (National Historic Landmark) の評価に値すると思われれます。



Acknowledgments

As would be expected with a project taking nearly six years to complete, the authors are indebted to many. Three of the authors (Mary, Dick, and Flo) volunteered hundreds of hours of their time. Funding for the senior author was provided by Manzanar National Historic Site. The support, encouragement, and patience of park superintendent Ross Hopkins is gratefully acknowledged. George Teague supervised the project. AutoCAD maps were drafted by Ron Beckwith. Uncredited photographs in the report were taken by the authors.

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Project Team: Jeff Burton, Mary Farrell, Dick and Flo Lord.

Field Work Dates: Intermittently 1994-1999.

Person Days in Field: ~80.

Project Location: Western United States.

Project Scope: Field review of 35 sites associated with Japanese American internment during WW II.

National Register Status: Seven of the visited sites are listed on the National Register (Granada 5/18/94; Heart Mtn. 12/19/85; Manzanar 7/39/79; Minidoka 7/10/79; Rohwer 7/30/74; Topaz 1/2/74; and Moab 5/2/94).

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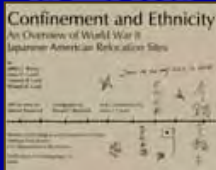
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Confinement and Ethnicity:

An Overview of World War II Japanese American Relocation Sites

by J. Burton, M. Farrell, F. Lord, and R. Lord



Chapter 1

Sites of Shame: An Introduction

In 1942, almost 120,000 Japanese Americans were forced from their homes in California, western Oregon and Washington, and southern Arizona in the single largest forced relocation in U.S. history. Many would spend the next 3 years in one of ten "relocation centers" across the country run by the newly-formed War Relocation Authority (WRA). Others would be held in facilities run by the Department of Justice and the U.S. Army (Figure 1.1). Since all Japanese Americans on the west coast were affected, including the elderly, women, and children, Federal officials attempted to conduct the massive incarceration in a humane manner (Figure 1.2). However, by the time the last internees were released in 1946, the Japanese Americans had lost homes and businesses estimated to be worth, in 1999 values, 4 to 5 billion dollars. Deleterious effects on Japanese American individuals, their families, and their communities, were immeasurable.



Figure 1.1. Sites in the western U.S. associated with the relocation of Japanese Americans during World War II.

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During World War II the relocation was justified as a "military necessity." However, some 40 years later, the United States government conceded that the relocation was based on racial bias rather than on any true threat to national security. President Ronald Reagan signed the Civil Liberties Act of 1988 which provided redress for Japanese Americans. The following year President George Bush issued a formal apology from the U. S. government. Many histories describe the political, economic, legal, and social aspects of the relocation (see, for example CWRIC 1982, Daniels 1989; Daniels et al. 1991; Irons 1983, 1989; Spicer et al. 1969.). This report, in contrast, provides an overview of the physical remains left at the sites of the Japanese American relocation. The main focus is on the architectural remnants, the archeological features, and the artifacts remaining at the relocation centers themselves, although other sites where Japanese americans were held during World War II are also considered.



Figure 1.2. In this obviously posed government photograph armed military police lend a helping hand, Manzanar 1942. *(National Archives photograph)*

One of the relocation centers, Manzanar, was designated a National Historic Site in 1992 to "provide for the protection and interpretation of historic, cultural, and natural resources associated with the relocation of Japanese Americans during World War II" (Public Law 102-248). But there are nine other relocation centers, and numerous other facilities associated with the relocation and internment. Most of the Japanese Americans were first sent to one of 17 temporary "Assembly Centers," where they awaited shipment to a more permanent relocation center. Most of those relocated were American citizens by birth. Many were long-term U.S. residents, but not citizens, because of discriminatory naturalization laws. Thousands of these "aliens" were interned in Department of Justice and U.S. Army facilities.

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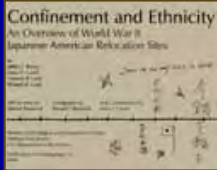
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Chapter 2

To Undo a Mistake is Always Harder Than Not to Create One Originally

Eleanor Roosevelt

This essay is a draft of an article that had been written for Collier's Magazine by Eleanor Roosevelt. Mrs. Roosevelt visited the Gila River Relocation Center in Arizona in 1943 in response to charges that the Japanese American evacuees there were being "coddled" (Figures 2.1 and 2.2). The manuscript, courtesy of the Franklin D. Roosevelt Library (Hyde Park, New York), was published in a revised form October 10, 1943. It is reproduced here from the original draft with only minor editorial changes.

We are at war with Japan, and yet we have American citizens, born and brought up in this country whose parents are Japanese. This is the essential problem. A good deal has already been written about it. One phase, however, I do not think as yet has been adequately stressed. To really cover it, we must get the background straight first.

In this nation of over one hundred and thirty million, we have 127,500 Japanese or Japanese Americans. Those who have lived for a long time in the Midwest or in the east and who have had their records checked by the FBI, have been allowed to go on about their business, whatever it may be, unmolested. The recent order removing aliens from strategic areas, of course, affects those who were not citizens, just as it affects other citizens, however.

112,000 Japanese of the total 127,500 lived on the West Coast. Originally they were much needed on ranches, and on large truck and fruit farms, but as they came in greater numbers, people began to discover that they were not only convenient workers, they were competitors in the labor field, and the people of California began to be afraid of their own importation, so the Exclusion Act was passed in 1917. No people of the Oriental race could become citizens of the United States, and no quota was given to the Oriental nations in the Pacific. They were marked as different from other races and they were not treated on an equal basis. This happened because in one part of our country they were feared as competitors, and the rest of our country knew them so little and cared so little about them that they did not even think about the principle that we in this country believe in — that of equal rights for all human beings.

We granted no citizenship to Orientals, so now we have a group of people, some of whom have been here as long as fifty years who have not been able to become citizens under our laws. Long before the war, an old Japanese man told me that he had great grand-children

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born in this country and that he had never been back to Japan, all that he cared about was here on the soil of the United States, and yet he could not become a citizen.

The children of the Japanese born in this country, however, were citizens automatically and now we have about 42,500 native born Japanese who are known as Issei, and about 85,000 native born Japanese American citizens, known as Nisei. Some of these Japanese Americans have gone to our American schools and colleges and have never known any other country or any other life than the life here in the United States. Sometimes their parents have brought them up, as far as family life is

concerned, in the old Japanese family tradition. Age has its privileges and the respect that is due the elders in a family is strongly emphasized in Oriental life. So for a young Japanese American to go against his parents is more serious than for other children. As a rule in the United States we do not lay undue emphasis upon the control of the older members of the family, or the respect and obedience that is due to mere age.

This large group of Japanese on the West Coast preserved those family traditions, because since they were feared they were also discriminated against. Japanese were not always welcome buyers of real estate. They were not always welcome neighbors, or participators in community undertakings. As always happens with groups that are discriminated against, they gather together and live among their own racial group. The younger ones made friends in school and college and became a part of the community life, and prejudices lessened against them. Their elders were not always sympathetic to the changes thus brought about in manners and customs.

There is another group in this number of American born Japanese called the Kibei. The parents of this group had kept complete loyalty to Japan and some of them were acting as agents of that government in this country. Some of them longed for the day when they could return and live at home in Japan, so they sent their children, born in this country, back to Japan for their education. Some of these young people returned to this country in 1938 and 1939. They saw war coming in Japan and apparently were not loyal enough to Japan to want to go to war on the Japanese side, and neither did they have enough loyalty to the United States, since they did not grow up here, to serve this country. They form a group which is given scant respect either by their elders who are loyal to Japan or from the Japanese who are loyal to the United States.

Enough for the background. Now we come to Pearl Harbor, December 7, 1941. We see the



Figure 2.1. Mrs. Eleanor Roosevelt, accompanied by WRA National Director Dillon S. Myer, visits the Gila River Relocation Center.

(WRA photograph, Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley)



Figure 2.2. Representatives of Councils greet Mrs. Roosevelt, Gila River Relocation Center.

(WRA photograph, Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley)

problems which faced the Pacific coast from this date on. There was no time to investigate families, or to adhere strictly to the American rule that a man is innocent until he is proven guilty. These people were not convicted of any crime, but emotions ran too high, too many people wanted to reek vengeance on Oriental-looking people. Even the Chinese, our Allies, were not always safe on the streets. A few of the Japanese had long been watched by the FBI and were apprehended on

the outbreak of war and taken into custody.

In an effort to live up to the American idea of justice as far as possible, the Army laid down the rules for what they considered the safety of our West Coast. They demanded and they supervised the evacuation. A civil authority was set up, the War Relocation Authority, to establish permanent camps and take over the custody and maintenance of these people, both for their own safety and for the safety of the country.

To many young people this must have seemed strange treatment of American citizens, and one cannot be surprised at the reaction which manifests itself not only in young Japanese American, but in others who had known them well and been educated with them, and who bitterly ask: "What price American citizenship?"

Nevertheless most of them recognized the fact that this was a safety measure. The army carried out its evacuation on the whole with remarkable skill and kindness. The early situation in the camps was difficult. They were not ready for occupation. Sufficient water was not available, food was slow in arriving. The setting up of large communities meant an amount of organization which takes time, but the Japanese proved to be patient, adaptable and courageous for the most part.

Many difficulties have had to be met, but the War Relocation Authority and the Japanese themselves have coped with these remarkably well. There were unexpected problems and one by one these were discovered and an effort made to deal with them fairly. For instance, these people had property they had to dispose of, often at a loss. Sometimes they could not dispose of it and it remained unprotected, so as the months go by it is deteriorating in value. Some business difficulties have arisen which had to be handled through agents, since the Japanese could not leave the camps.

In reading the various accounts which have been written it struck me that practically no one has recognized what a tremendous variety of things the War Relocation Authority has had to develop to meet the innumerable problems created by the removal of a great group of

people from one small section of the country and their temporary location in other parts of the country. When I read the accusations against the Authority for acquiring quantities of canned goods, and laying in stocks of food, I realized there was a lack of understanding of one basic fact, namely, that government authorities such as this have to live up to the law, and if it is the law of the land that we are rationed, we are rationed everywhere — in prisons, in hospitals, in camps, wherever we may be, individuals are rationed and even the War Relocation Authority cannot buy more than is allowed for the number of people they have to feed.



Figure 2.3. Residential area at the Gila River Relocation Center.
(WRA photograph, Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley)

The Armed Services in camp here in this country are probably exempt, but even they are now being put on short rations and I have had many complaints from boys that they were given field rations, which probably comes nearer to approximating the civilian ration. It is logical that in the Armed Forces, men who are undergoing training, physical and mental, should require more food than the civilian population. It is for that reason that civilian goods grow scarcer and we accept rationing in a desire to see that all civilian goods are more equitably distributed to all of us.

But no government authority dealing with civilians is free from the laws of the country as a whole. I think that is something that should be borne in mind when we read attacks as to the manner in which the relocation camps are run, and then see the government officials obliged to deny or explain how they happened to have a certain amount of this or that on hand. If you have a city of 14,000 people living in a camp such as the one I went to in Arizona, even in these days, you have to have more on hand than the average small community (Figures 2.3-2.5).

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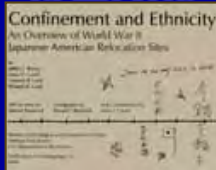
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Chapter 3

A Brief History of Japanese American Relocation During World War II

On December 7, 1941, the United States entered World War II when Japan attacked the U.S. naval base at Pearl Harbor. At that time, nearly 113,000 people of Japanese ancestry, two-thirds of them American citizens, were living in California, Washington, and Oregon. On February 19, 1942, President Franklin D. Roosevelt signed Executive Order No. 9066 empowering the U.S. Army to designate areas from which "any or all persons may be excluded." No person of Japanese ancestry living in the United States was ever convicted of any serious act of espionage or sabotage during the war. Yet these innocent people were removed from their homes and placed in relocation centers, many for the duration of the war (Davis 1982:27). In contrast, between 1942 and 1944, 18 Caucasians were tried for spying for Japan; at least ten were convicted in court (Uyeda 1995:66).

To understand why the United States government decided to remove Japanese Americans from the West Coast in the largest single forced relocation in U.S. history, one must consider many factors. Prejudice, wartime hysteria, and politics all contributed to this decision (CWRIC 1982; Hirabayashi and Hirabayashi 1984).

West Coast Anti-Asian Prejudice

Anti-Asian prejudices, especially in California, began as anti-Chinese feelings. The cultural and economic forces that led to the anti-Japanese feelings are discussed in detail by Daniels (1989:2-25), and summarized here. Chinese immigration to the U.S. began about the same time as the California gold rush of 1849. During the initial phases of the economic boom that accompanied the gold rush, Chinese labor was needed and welcomed. However, soon white workingmen began to consider



Figure 3.1. Japanese American family harvesting their strawberry field near San Jose, April 5, 1942. (Dorothea Lange photograph, Bancroft Library,

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the Chinese, who in 1870
comprised about 10 percent of

California's population, as competitors. This economic competition increased after the completion of the trans-continental Union-Central Pacific Railroad in 1869, which had employed around 10,000 Chinese laborers. Chinese labor was cheap labor, and this economic grievance became an ideology of Asian inferiority similar to existing American racial prejudices. Discrimination became legislated at both the state and federal level, including a Chinese immigration exclusion bill passed in 1882 by the U.S. Congress.

University of California, Berkeley)

The experiences of Chinese immigrants foreshadowed those of Japanese immigrants, who began arriving about the same time the Chinese exclusion bill was passed. Japanese immigrants were called Issei, from the combination of the Japanese words for "one" and "generation;" their children, the American-born second generation, are Nisei, and the third generation are Sansei. Nisei and Sansei who were educated in Japan are called Kibei. The Issei mostly came from the Japanese countryside, and they generally arrived, either in Hawaii or the mainland West Coast, with very little money. Approximately half became farmers, while others went to the coastal urban centers and worked in small commercial establishments, usually for themselves or for other Issei (Figures 3.1 and 3.2).



Figure 3.2. Japanese store, Penryn, California.
(Francis Stewart photograph, Bancroft Library,
University of California, Berkeley)

Anti-Japanese movements began shortly after Japanese immigration began, arising from existing anti-Asian prejudices. However, the anti-Japanese movement became widespread around 1905, due both to increasing immigration and the Japanese victory over Russia, the first defeat of a western nation by an Asian nation in modern times. Both the Issei and Japan began to be perceived as threats. Discrimination included the formation of anti-Japanese organizations, such as the Asiatic Exclusion League, attempts at school segregation (which eventually affected Nisei under the doctrine of "separate but equal"), and a growing number of violent attacks upon individuals and businesses.

The Japanese government subsequently protested this treatment of its citizens. To maintain the Japanese-American friendship President Theodore Roosevelt attempted to negotiate a compromise, convincing the San Francisco school board to revoke the segregationist order, restraining the California Legislature from passing more anti-Japanese legislation and working out what was known as the "Gentlemen's Agreement" with the Japanese government. In this, the Japanese government agreed to limit emigration to the continental United States to laborers who had already been to the United States before and to the parents, wives, and children of laborers already there.

In 1913, California passed the Alien Land Law which prohibited the ownership of agricultural land by "aliens ineligible to citizenship." In 1920, a stronger Alien Land Act

prohibited leasing and sharecropping as well. Both laws were based on the presumption that Asians were aliens ineligible for citizenship, which in turn stemmed from a narrow interpretation of the naturalization statute. The statute had been rewritten after the Fourteenth Amendment to the constitution to permit naturalization of "white persons" and "aliens of African descent." This exclusionism, clearly the intent of Congress, was legitimized by the Supreme Court in 1921, when Takao Ozawa was denied citizenship. However, the Nisei were citizens by birth, and therefore parents would often transfer title to their children. The Immigration Act of 1924 prohibited all further Japanese immigration, with the side effect of making a very distinct generation gap between the Issei and Nisei.

Many of the anti-Japanese fears arose from economic factors combined with envy, since many of the Issei farmers had become very successful at raising fruits and vegetables in soil that most people had considered infertile. Other fears were military in nature; the Russo-Japanese War proved that the Japanese were a force to be reckoned with, and stimulated fears of Asian conquest — "the Yellow Peril." These factors, plus the perception of "otherness" and "Asian inscrutability" that typified American racial stereotypes, greatly influenced the events following Pearl Harbor.

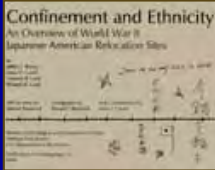
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Japanese American Relocation Sites**

by J. Burton, M. Farrell, F. Lord, and R. Lord



Chapter 4

Gila River Relocation Center

The Gila River Relocation Center was located about 50 miles south of Phoenix and 9 miles west of Sacaton in Pinal County, Arizona. The site is on the Gila River Indian Reservation, and access to the site today is restricted. The post office designation for the center was Rivers, named after Jim Rivers, the first Pima Indian killed in action during World War I. The relocation center included two separate camps located 3-1/2 miles apart, Canal Camp (originally called Camp No. 1) in the eastern half of the Relocation Center reserve, and Butte Camp (Camp No. 2) in the western half. When the Gila River Relocation Center was in operation it was the fourth largest city in Arizona, after Phoenix, Tucson, and the relocation center at Poston.

The Gila Relocation Center lies within the broad Gila River Valley, and the Gila River flows southeast to northwest about 4 miles northeast of the reserve boundary. Just 3 miles south of the reserve, the rocky Sacaton Mountains rise 700 feet above the valley floor. Two main irrigation canals roughly follow the contours of the Sacaton Mountains' north and east bajada, and most of the relocation center reserve lies between these two canals (Figure 4.1). The South Side Canal, at about 1350 feet elevation, is near the southern boundary; the Casa Blanca Canal, at about 1225 feet elevation, forms the northern boundary. Interstate 10 now cuts through the eastern portion of what once were farm fields of the reserve. Most of the relocation center is on flat or very gently sloping sandy alluvial loam, but the rocky outcroppings of Sacaton Butte are just west and north of Butte Camp. The Sonoran desert vegetation of the area is dominated by mesquite trees, creosote and bursage bushes, and cactus.

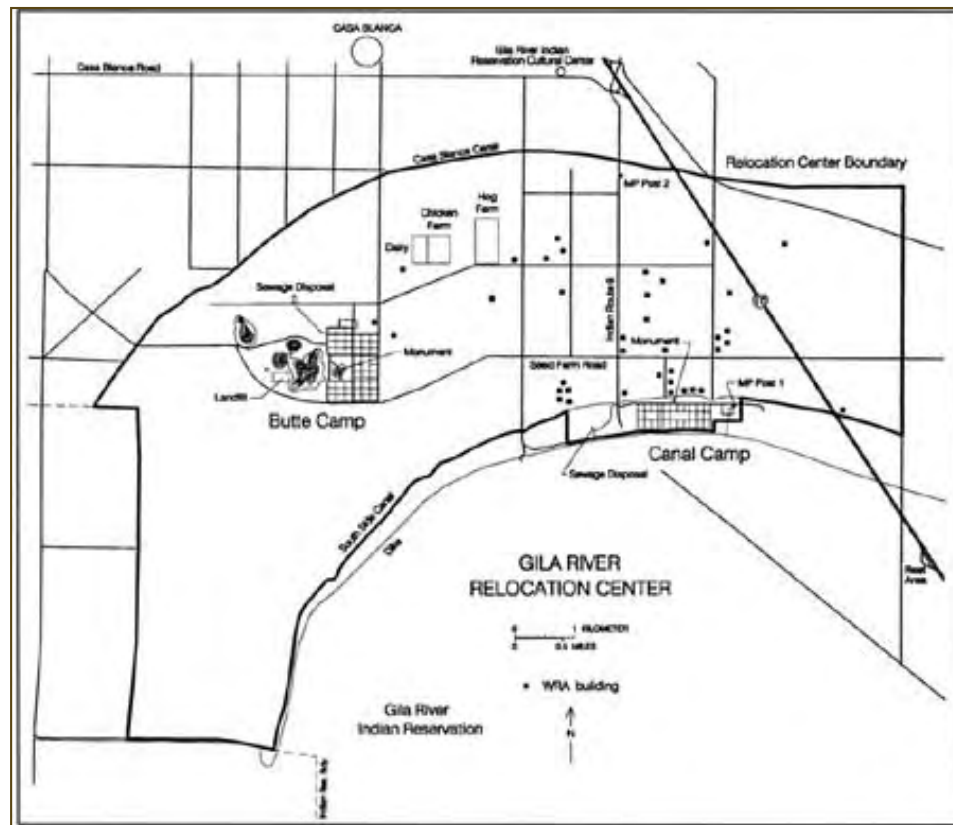
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Figure 4.1 Gila River Relocation Center.
(click image for larger size (~72K))

Before the Gila River site was chosen for a relocation center, other potential sites in Arizona were considered, including Cortaro Farms near Tucson, Fort Mohave on the Colorado River, and Beardsley near Phoenix. These sites were rejected as either too costly to build or too close to sensitive military areas. The Gila River site was approved, in spite of objections by the Gila River Indian tribe, on March 18, 1942. Plans were soon expanded to accommodate 14,000 instead of 10,000 at Gila River to make up for a relocation center site in Nebraska which was rejected at the last minute (Madden 1969). The construction of brand-new cities for 10,000 people would, of course, require a prodigious amount of resources even during peace time. The copper necessary for the transmission line that would had to be constructed for the Nebraska relocation center simply was in short supply during the war, and it was more feasible to expand other centers.

The WRA leased the 16,500 acres for the relocation center reserve from the Bureau of Indian Affairs under a five-year permit. Under the terms of the permit, the WRA agreed to develop agricultural lands and build roads to connect the relocation center with state highways to the north and south. Construction of the relocation center began on May 1, 1942, with 125 workers; by June over 1,250 were employed (Weik 1992). On July 10, the first advance group of 500 Japanese Americans arrived to help set up the relocation center. Groups of 500 Japanese American started to arrive each day the following week. By August the evacuee population was over 8,000. The maximum population, 13,348, was reached in November 1942 even before major construction was completed, which was not until December 1, 1942.

The evacuees at Gila River were mainly from the Tulare, Turlock, Stockton, and Fresno assembly centers, but nearly 3,000 were sent directly from Military Area 2 (southern San Joaquin Valley) without first staying in an assembly center. Canal Camp housed mostly rural people from the Turlock Assembly Center and Military Area 2, while Butte Camp housed mostly urban people from the Tulare and Santa Anita Assembly Centers.

The evacuee barracks at the two camps were constructed of wood frame and sheathed with

lightweight white "beaverboard." Roofs were double, to provide protection from the heat of the desert, with the top roofs sheathed with red fireproof shingles (Figure 4.2). Another extra feature to help deal with the heat at the Gila River Relocation Center was the use of evaporative coolers. Clearly the Gila River Relocation Center was a showplace. Soon after his arrival at the center anthropologist Robert F. Spencer noted "The center is rather attractive as compared with the others. The white houses with their red roofs can be seen from miles away" (Spencer 1942). In April 1943, Eleanor Roosevelt, along with WRA director Dillon Meyer, made a surprise visit to the Gila River Relocation Center, spending 6 hours inspecting facilities (see Chapter 2; Figure 4.3).



Figure 4.2. Typical barracks at the Gila River Relocation Center.

(National Archives photograph)



Figure 4.3. Eleanor Roosevelt at the Gila River Relocation Center, April 23, 1943.

(Francis Stewart photograph, Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley)



Figure 4.4. Model ship building shop.

(National Archives photograph)

However, in spite of the model appearance of the camps, there were problems with the infrastructure. There were chronic water shortages, and for a time parts of Butte Camp ran out of water by nightfall. Use of evaporative coolers was curtailed and other water conservation measures were enforced. An existing natural gas line just east of Canal Camp provided fuel to heat the mess halls and hospital, but barracks were heated with fuel oil due to a limited supply of natural gas (Madden 1969).

Only one watch tower was ever erected at the Gila River Relocation Center. Located at Canal Camp, it was reportedly torn down because staffing it would have imposed a serious burden on the small military police detachment (Madden 1969). Within 6 months the perimeter barbed wire fences around each camp were removed as well. At Butte Camp a camouflage net factory run by Southern California Glass Company employed 500 evacuees. But, the factory was discontinued after 5 months. A model ship building shop at Canal Camp provided models for use in military

training (Figure 4.4).

Supplies for the relocation center were originally shipped by train to Casa Grande and transported the last 17 miles to the camps by truck. In 1943 a loading and warehouse facility for the center was built at a railroad siding at Serape, only 11 miles away.

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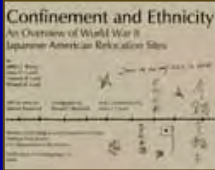
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Chapter 5

Granada Relocation Center

The Granada Relocation Center was located in southeastern Colorado 140 miles east of Pueblo. The relocation center site is 16 miles east of the town of Lamar and 15 miles west of the Kansas border. The relocation center's common name was derived from the small town of Granada, less than a mile away. However, the postal designation was Amache, after a Cheyenne woman who was married to John W. Prowers, a nineteenth century rancher for whom the county is named.

Averaging about 3,600 feet in elevation, the relocation center is on a wind-swept prairie that slopes gently from south to north toward the Arkansas River, 2-1/2 miles north. Cottonwoods grow along the river, but without irrigation, the land is fairly arid, with wild grasses, sagebrush, and prickly pear cactus common.

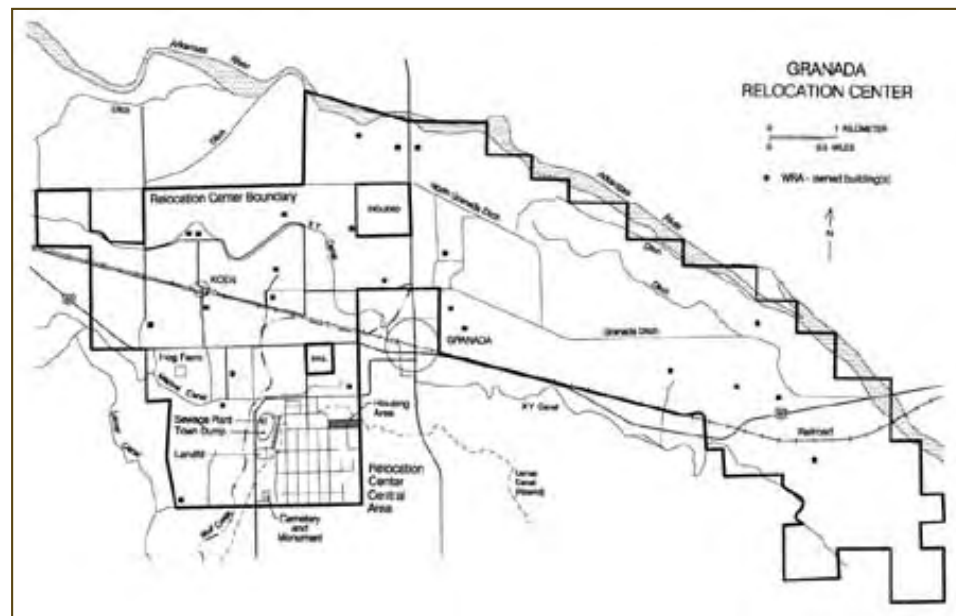


Figure 5.1 Granada Relocation Center.
(click image for larger size (~68K))

The 10,500 acres of the relocation center reserve had been 18 privately owned farms and ranches, acquired by the WRA through purchase or condemnation (Figure 5.1). The largest parcels included the former company town of Koen, owned by the American Crystal Sugar Company, and the XY Ranch, founded by Fred Harvey in 1889 (Figure 5.2). For the planned agricultural projects, the WRA also purchased water rights to parts of the Lamar, Manvel, and

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XY canals, which flowed through the reserve and fed existing irrigation ditches. The Wolf Creek drainage flows northeast to the river just west of the developed part of the relocation center, but the creek bed is currently dry most of the year.

Construction of the relocation center began June 12, 1942, with a crew of up to 1,000 hired workers and 50 evacuee volunteers; the general contractor was Lambie, Moss, Little, and James of Amarillo, Texas. The center was in operation by the end of August 1942, and reached the maximum population of 7,318 by October. Although Granada had the smallest population of the ten relocation centers, it was the tenth largest city in Colorado when it was occupied. Evacuees were from the Merced and Santa Anita assembly centers. There were over 560 buildings, including a few composed of sections of former Civilian Conservation Corps buildings transported to the site (Simmons and Simmons 1993).

The central or developed portion of the relocation center was located on a low bluff overlooking the flood plain and farmlands, which extended to the north and east all the way to the Arkansas River. Like most of the relocation centers, buildings and streets were laid out on a north-south grid within an area about one mile square (Figure 5.3). East-west roads were consecutively numbered from 1st on the north to 12th Street on the south. North-south roads extended from "D" Street on the west to "L" Street on the east (I and J were not used). Shorter roads at a slight angle to the grid in the coal storage area were designated "A" and "B" Streets; "C" Street ran adjacent and parallel to A and B Streets before continuing due south next to the residential area.



Figure 5.2 XY Ranch lands today.

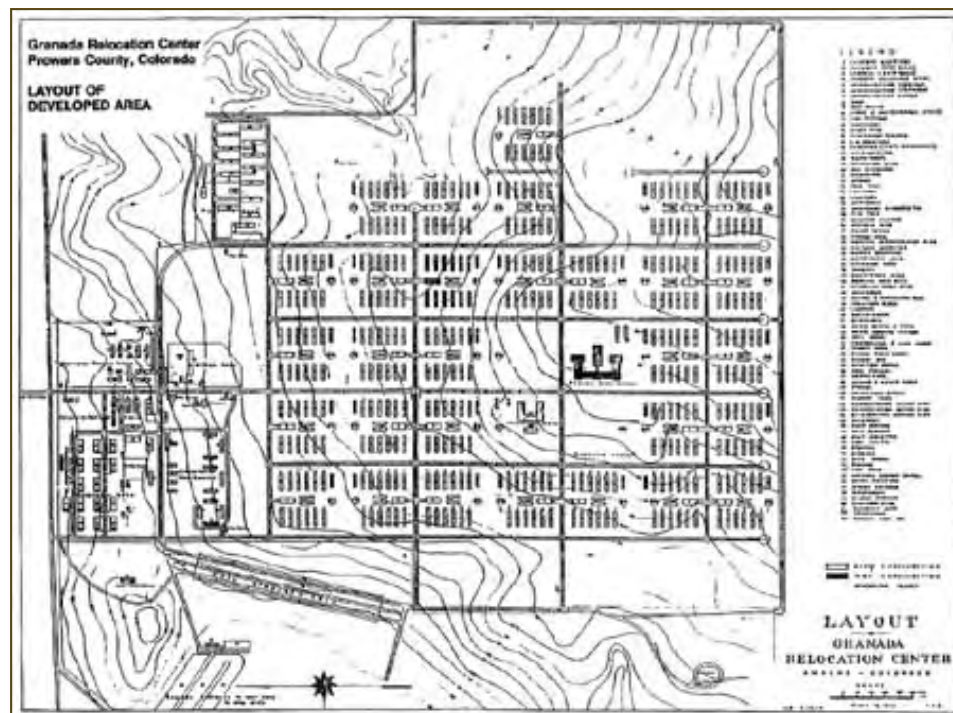


Figure 5.3 Granada Relocation Center central area.
(from Simmons and Simmons 1993)
(click image for larger size (~180K))

The entire developed area was surrounded by a four-strand barbed wire fence, with six watch towers along the perimeter. Equipped with searchlights and staffed by military police guards as were the guard towers at other relocation centers, the six at Granada were unique in their octagonal lookout enclosures (Figure 5.4). The only gate in the perimeter fence was at "G" Street, near the center of the north side, approximately one-half mile south of U.S. Highway 50. On the east side of the entrance was the Military Police compound, which included an administration building with a flagpole out front, a guardhouse, four barracks buildings, an officers quarters building, a mess hall, two recreation buildings, a dispensary, a post exchange, a garage, storage house, and a tool house. In the later stages of the center's operation when the military police detachment was greatly reduced in number, the WRA used some of the buildings in this area for staff housing and offices (Simmons and Simmons 1993).

A visitor center was located south of the Military Police compound at the southeast corner of 4th and "G" Streets. The motor pool area, which included an office, storage building, gas station, and one other building, was just to the south of the visitor center. Farther to the east was the hospital complex, with 17 buildings including an administration building, mess hall, doctors' and nurses' quarters, wards, storehouse, laundry, and heating plant.

On the west side of the entrance were the administration and warehouse areas. The administration area included several office buildings, a warehouse, a garage, a shop, a post office, a store, and a recreation building. A staff housing area, to the southwest of the administration area, included a mess hall, four dormitories, and ten staff apartment buildings (Figure 5.5). The center's water reservoir, a pump station, a well house, and the fire station were located east of the staff housing area, on the west side of "G" Street. The warehouse area (Figure 5.6), in the northwest corner of the developed area, included fifteen large warehouses, a butcher shop, two latrines, a storage building, and a lumber yard.



Figure 5.4 Watch tower at Granada.
(Joe McClelland photograph, Bancroft Library,
University of California, Berkeley)



Figure 5.5. Staff housing area at Granada.
(Joe McClelland photograph, Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley)



Figure 5.6. Warehouse area at Granada.
(Joe McClelland photograph, Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley)

Domestic water was supplied by four 800-foot-deep wells and stored in a 200,000-gallon concrete reservoir located south of the staff housing area. To provide water pressure, water was then pumped to a 72-foot-high 25,000-gallon water tower in the southeast corner of Block 12K, in the evacuee residential area.

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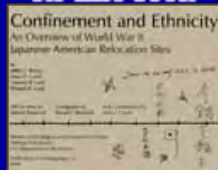
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Chapter 6

Heart Mountain Relocation Center

The Heart Mountain Relocation Center was located in Park County, in northwest Wyoming, 12 miles northwest of the town of Cody. Situated on terraces of the Shoshone River, the relocation center lies at 4700 ft elevation, within open sagebrush desert. Heart Mountain, a detached limestone fault block rising to 8123 ft elevation 8 miles to the west, forms a dramatic backdrop to the relocation center.

The relocation center reserve encompassed 46,000 acres (Figure 6.1). The adjacent Vocation railroad siding and existing Bureau of Reclamation irrigation developments likely influenced the location choice; construction was begun June 15, 1942, with a crew of 2,000 workers. The first evacuees, from California, Oregon, and Washington, arrived August 11, 1942, and the center was in operation until November 10, 1945. With a maximum population of 10,767, the center was the third largest city in Wyoming. Local residents recall that it was one of only a few communities in the state to have electricity.

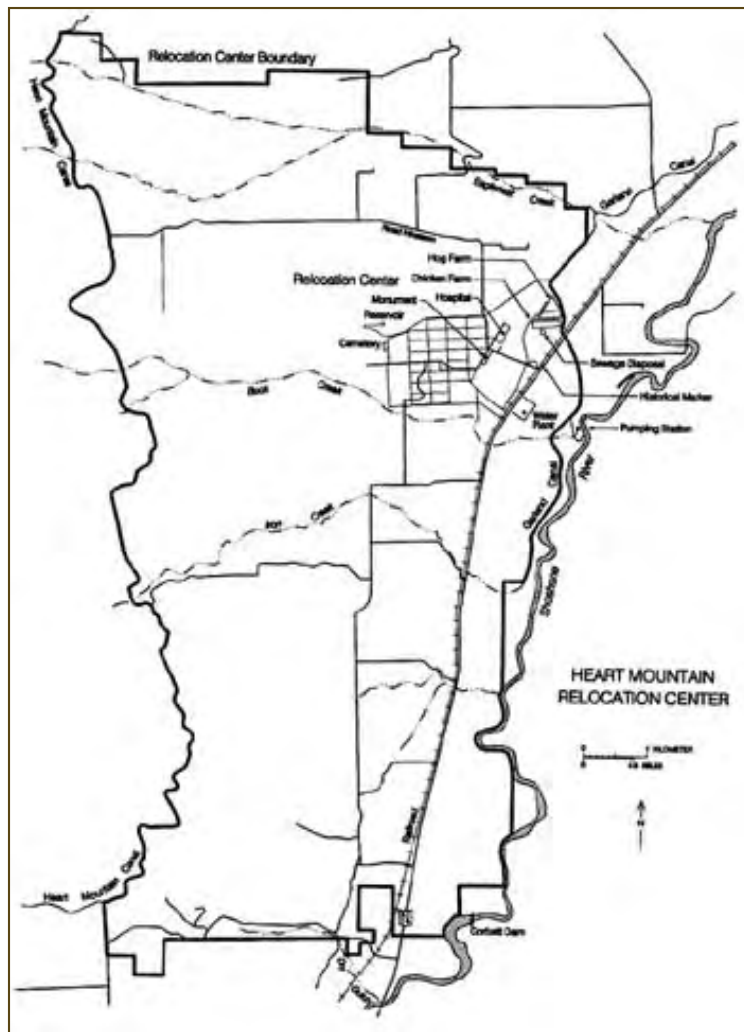
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Figure 6.1. Heart Mountain Relocation Center.
(click image for larger size (~68K))

The Heart Mountain Relocation Center was a major part of the largest single draft resistance movement in U.S. history. To protest the unconstitutional confinement of their families, 315 Japanese Americans from all ten relocation centers were imprisoned for resisting induction into the military. Heart Mountain had the highest rate of resistance, with a total of 85 men imprisoned for draft law violations. The Heart Mountain total included seven leaders of the Heart Mountain Fair Play Committee who were convicted for conspiring to violate the Selective Service Act and for counseling other draft-age Nisei to resist military induction. In spite of substantial draft resistance at Heart Mountain, 700 men reported for their selective service physicals; of these, 385 were inducted, of whom eleven were killed and fifty-two wounded in battle.



Figure 6.2. Oblique aerial view of the Heart Mountain Relocation Center.
(WRA photograph, National Archives)

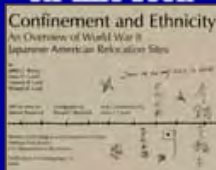
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Chapter 7

Jerome Relocation Center

The Jerome Relocation Center was located in Chicot and Drew Counties, Arkansas, 18 miles south of McGehee and 120 miles southeast of Little Rock. It was one of two relocation centers in Arkansas — 27 miles north was the Rohwer Relocation Center. The relocation center was named after the town of Jerome, which was located one-half mile south. However, the official post office designation for the center was Denson.

The relocation center site is located in the Mississippi River delta region about 12 miles west of the river. At an elevation of 130 feet, the area is laced with cut-off meanders and bayous. Big and Crooked Bayous flow from north to south in the central and eastern part of the former relocation center reserve. Today the forests that once covered the area are now mostly gone, replaced by rice and soybean fields and fish farms.

The relocation center reserve encompassed 10,000 acres of tax-delinquent lands purchased through a trust agreement in the late 1930s by the Farm Security Administration (Figure 7.1). Plans had been to develop the lands by clearing trees and draining swampy areas so that they could provide subsistence for low-income farm families (Bearden 1989).

The roughly 500-acre central area of the relocation center was on the western edge of the reserve along U.S. Highway 165. Construction by A.J. Rife Construction Company of Dallas, Texas, began July 15, 1942, and the center was ready for use on October 6, 1942. The maximum population, reached in November 1942, was 8,497. Internees were from California and Hawaii. Jerome was the last of the relocation centers to open and, in June 1944, the first to close.

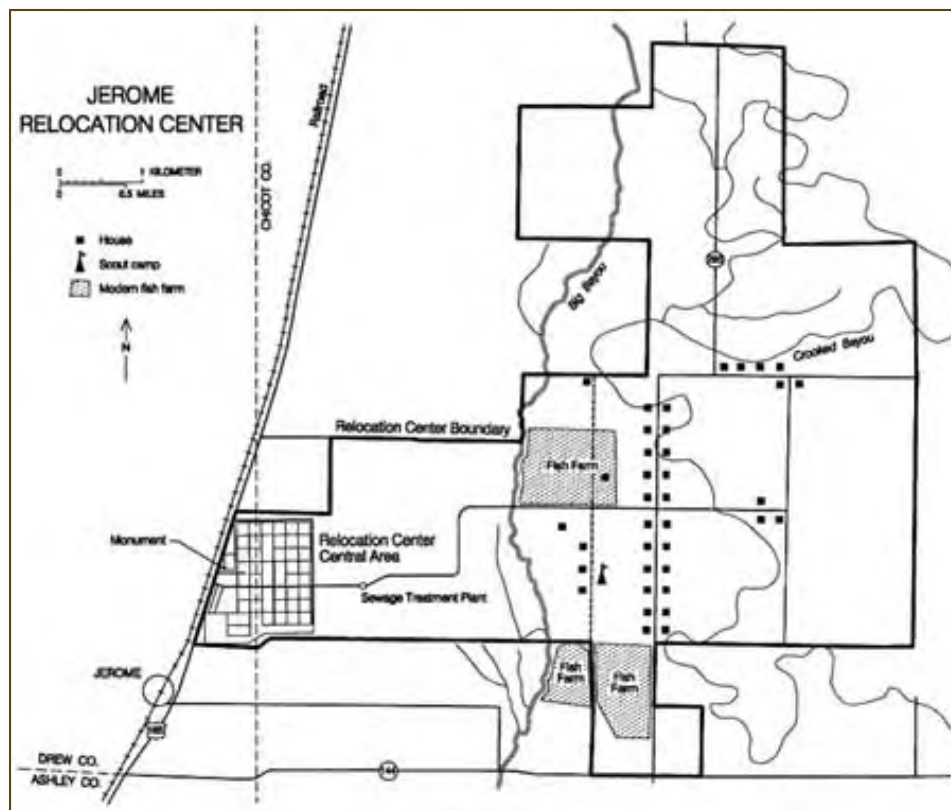
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Figure 7.1. Jerome Relocation Center.
(click image for larger size (~60K))

The closure of the Jerome Relocation Center was cited as a sign of the WRA's success in placing Japanese Americans in jobs and homes outside of the West Coast restricted zone. The overall population of the ten relocation centers declined in 1944 as over 18,000 evacuees moved out through the WRA leave process. Jerome was chosen for closure for three reasons: it was the least developed of the relocation centers, it had one of the smallest populations, and the nearby Rohwer Relocation Center could absorb most of the Jerome residents reducing the amount of transportation needed.

While across the country there were several instances of military police shooting relocation center residents, Jerome was the site of the only known shooting of evacuees by local civilians. A tenant farmer on horseback on his way home from deer hunting came across three Japanese Americans on a work detail in the woods. Thinking the Japanese Americans were trying to escape, he fired one round of buckshot, wounding two of them. Referring to the fact that a Caucasian engineer supervisor was present, the farmer explained he thought the supervisor was trying to aid the escape (*Denison Tribune Communiqué* 11/17/42).

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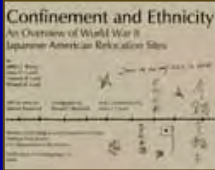
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Chapter 8

Manzanar Relocation Center

The Manzanar Relocation Center was in east-central California, in southern Owens Valley. Located for the most part on the west side of U.S. Highway 395, it is 220 miles north of Los Angeles and 250 miles south of Reno, between the towns of Lone Pine and Independence. The central portion of the relocation center site is now a National Historic Site administered by the National Park Service. Outlying portions of the relocation center are on city of Los Angeles land administered by the Department of Water and Power and public land administered by the Bureau of Land Management.



Figure 8.1. Manzanar with Mount Williamson in the background.

(Dorothea Lange photograph, National Archives)

On the western edge of the Basin and Range province, the topography of the area is dramatic, with the steep Sierra Nevada to the west and the White-Inyo Range to the east. Mount Williamson, the second highest peak in the Sierra Nevada at 14,375 feet, is 10 miles southwest. The National Historic Site itself is located where the Sierran bajada meets the valley floor at 3900 feet elevation.

The Owens Valley is in the rainshadow formed by the Sierra Nevada. Independence has a mean annual precipitation of just under 5 inches and Lone Pine approximately 6 inches. However, the valley is well-watered by Sierran streams and the relocation center site is located between two perennial streams which flow east from the Sierra Nevada, Shepherd Creek on the north and George Creek on the south. The stream flow of Bairs Creek, which crosses the southwest corner of the relocation center central area, is intermittent.

Summers are hot and winters cold, and the natural vegetation in the vicinity is desert scrub (for example, rabbitbrush and sagebrush). Non-native trees, mostly black locust, cottonwood, tamarisk, and fruit trees from abandoned ranches, farms, and the relocation center, form a band across the site.

The Manzanar Relocation Center, established as the Owens Valley Reception Center, was first

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run by the U.S. Army's Wartime Civilian Control Administration (WCCA). It later became the first relocation center to be operated by the War Relocation Authority (WRA). The center was located at the former farm and orchard community of Manzanar. Founded in 1910, the town was abandoned when the city of Los Angeles purchased the land in the late 1920s for its water rights. The Los Angeles aqueduct, which carries Owens Valley water to Los Angeles, is a mile east of Manzanar.

Begun in March of 1942, the relocation center was built by Los Angeles contractor Griffith and Company. Construction proceeded 10 hours a day 7 days a week; major construction was completed within six weeks. On March 21 the first 82 Japanese Americans made the 220-mile trip by bus from Los Angeles. More volunteers soon followed to help build the relocation center: over the next few days 146 more Japanese Americans arrived in 140 cars and trucks under military escort (Figure 8.2). Another 500 Japanese Americans, mostly older men, arrived from Los Angeles by train. By mid April, up to 1,000 Japanese Americans were arriving at Manzanar a day and by mid May Manzanar had a population of over 7,000 (Figure 8.3). By July Manzanar's population was nearly 10,000. Over 90 percent of the evacuees were from the Los Angeles area; others were from Stockton, California, and Bainbridge Island, Washington.



Figure 8.2. Confiscated evacuee automobiles.

(Clem Albers photograph, Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley)



Figure 8.3. Evacuees arriving at Manzanar.
(WRA photograph, National Archives)

The central developed portion of the relocation center covers an area of approximately 540 acres (Figure 8.4). Eight watchtowers were completed on the perimeter by August 1942, and a five-strand barbed wire fence around the central area was completed by the end of the year. A military police compound with 13 buildings was located beyond the southeast quarter of the relocation center central area, south of Bairs Creek and west of U.S. Highway 395.



Figure 8.4. Manzanar Relocation Center.
(click image for larger size (~60K))

Paved or oiled roads divided the central portion of the relocation center into 67 blocks, including 36 residential blocks, two staff housing blocks, an administrative block, two warehouse blocks, a garage block, and a hospital block (Figure 8.5). The 24 remaining blocks, located throughout the center, served as firebreaks. East-west roads were designated by numbers starting with 1st street at the relocation center entrance and proceeding north. The one road south of 1st Street was named Manzanar Street. North-south roads were designated by letters, starting with "A" street on the east and ending with "I" Street on the west. The evacuee residential blocks were designated 1 through 36; none of the other blocks were designated by number. The relocation center was aligned with U.S. Highway 395, rather than true north.

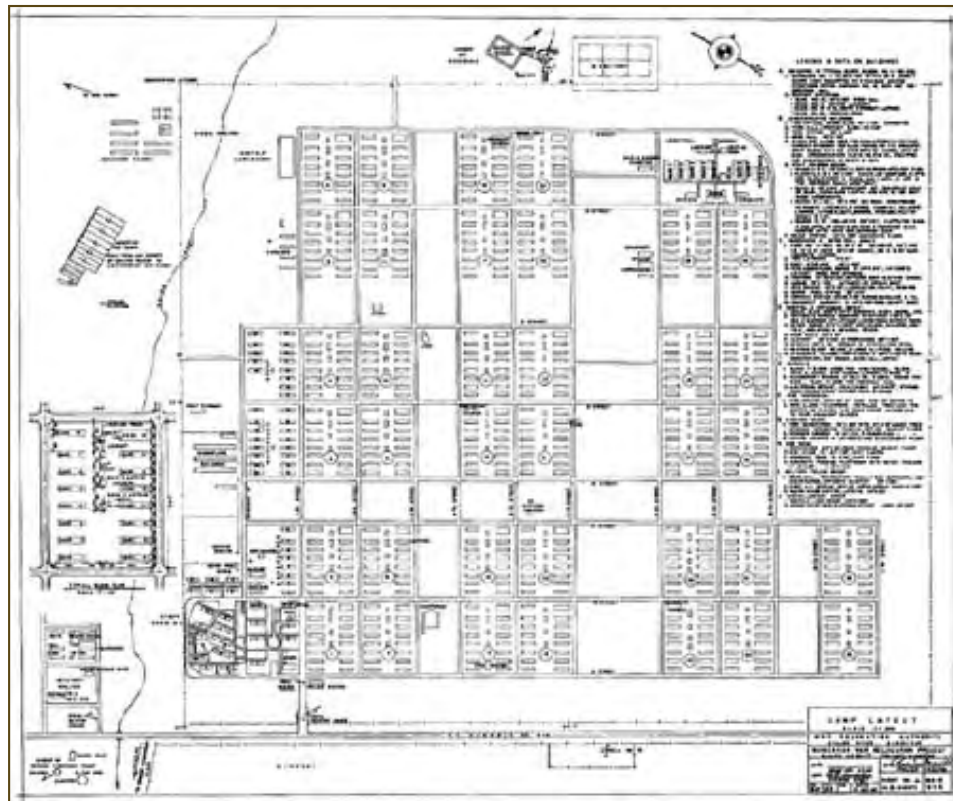


Figure 8.5. Manzanar Relocation Center central area.

(National Archives)

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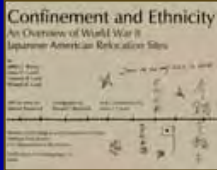
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Chapter 9

Minidoka Relocation Center

The Minidoka Relocation Center was located in Jerome County, Idaho, 15 miles east of Jerome and 15 miles north of Twin Falls. The relocation center was also known as Hunt, after the official Post Office designation for the area, since there was already a town of Minidoka in Idaho, 50 miles east.

The relocation center lies within the Snake River Plain at an elevation of 4000 feet. The natural vegetation of this high desert area is dominated by sagebrush and other shrubs.

Dominant geological features of the area are thin basaltic lava flows and cinder cones overlying thick rhyolite ash. The most notable topographic feature at the site is the wide meandering man-made North Side Canal (Figure 9.1). For the most part, the canal formed the southern boundary of the 33,000-acre relocation center reserve (Figure 9.2).



Figure 9.1. North Side Canal.

(Francis Stewart photograph, Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley)

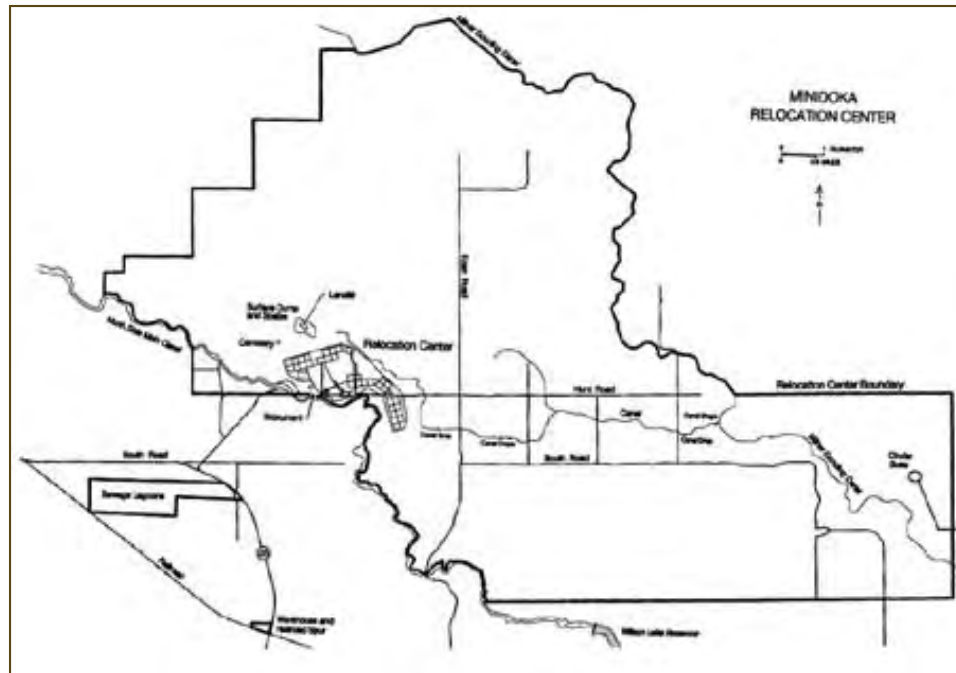
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Figure 9.2. Minidoka Relocation Center.
(click image for larger size (~48K))



Figure 9.3. Residents of one barracks block.
(from *Minidoka Interlude 1943*)

Five miles of barbed wire fencing and eight watch towers surrounded the administrative and residential portions of the relocation center, which was located on 950 acres in the west-central portion of the reserve. Built by the Morrison-Knudsen Company, construction began June 5, 1942, and the relocation center was in operation from August 10, 1942 to October 28, 1945. The maximum population was 7,318; evacuees were from Oregon, Washington, and Alaska (Figure 9.3). In early 1943, all of the Bainbridge Island (Washington) residents interned at the Manzanar Relocation Center under the authority of the first Civilian Exclusion Order were moved to Minidoka. The transfer was at their own request, not only to be closer to their original home, but also because they were often at odds with their new neighbors from Terminal Island in Los Angeles.

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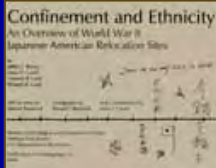
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Chapter 10

Poston Relocation Center

The Poston or Colorado River Relocation Center was located in La Paz County, Arizona, 12 miles south of the town of Parker. Poston was named after Charles Debrille Poston, the first Superintendent for Indian Affairs in Arizona. Poston was directly responsible for the establishment, in 1865, of the Colorado River Reservation, where the center is located (Figure 10.1). La Paz County is a fairly recent political entity; during World War II the Poston area was part of Yuma County.

The Colorado River is about 2-1/2 miles west of the relocation center; this section of the Colorado River Valley from the relocation center vicinity north to Parker Dam is known as Parker Valley. At only 320 feet elevation, the area lies within the lower Sonoran desert. Summers are hot, and, because of the proximity of the river, humid; in the winter days are cool and nights cold.

The Colorado River Indian Reservation Tribal Council opposed the use of their land for a relocation center, on the grounds that they did not want to participate in inflicting the same type of injustice as they had suffered. However, the tribe was overruled by the Army and the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA). In a verbal agreement the WRA turned over administration of the center to the BIA. The BIA considered the relocation center an opportunity to develop farm land on the reservation with the benefit of military funds and a large labor pool. The WRA took did not take full control of the center until December 1943.

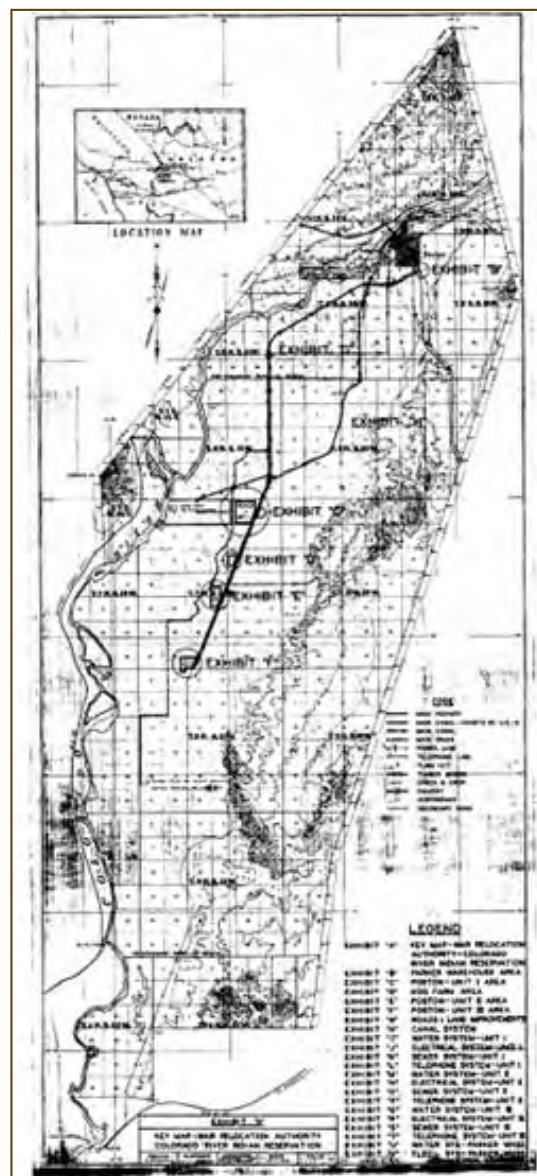


Figure 10.1. Colorado River Indian
Reservation.

(National Archives)

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The Poston Relocation Center consisted of three separate cantonments at three-mile intervals. Known officially as Poston I, II, and III, the evacuees nicknamed them Roasten, Toasten, and Dustin. Construction on Poston I began March 27, 1942, with the contractor Del Webb, later of Sun City fame. Del Webb had a large work force already mobilized for military contracts, and built Luke Air Force Base near Phoenix in March 1941. However, the relocation center was Del Webb's biggest challenge up to that time. Webb had a construction job in progress at Blythe, and when he got the contract to build the camps he diverted his crew to Parker. With equipment brought up from Blythe, the initial ground clearing was done in one day (Figure 10.2).

Using 5,000 workers on a double work shift, Poston I was completed in less than three weeks (Figures 10.3-10.5). The pine specified for construction was in short supply, so heart redwood was substituted. When the redwood shrunk much more than expected, millions of feet of thin wood strips had to be ordered to fill the cracks (Finnerty 1991). Because of the heat in Arizona, the standard tarpaper barracks construction was modified so that the buildings had double roofs. A new contract was awarded to Webb to build Poston II and III within 120 days (Finnerty 1991). Guard towers were not constructed at Poston, as they were at the other relocation centers; here they were considered unnecessary because of the isolated location, in the desert at the end of a road.



Figure 10.2. Poston site partially cleared.
(Clem Albers photograph, Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley)

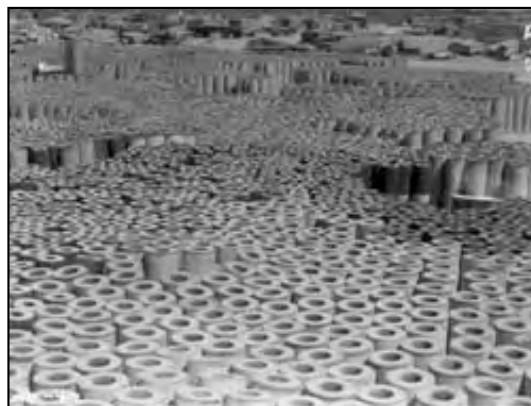


Figure 10.3. Rolls of roofing paper at the Poston site.
(Clem Albers photograph, Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley)



Figure 10.4. Unloading lumber at the Poston site.
(Fred Clark photograph, Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley)



Figure 10.5. Construction underway at Poston I.
(Fred Clark photograph, Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley)

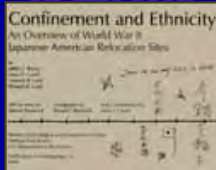
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**Chapter 11
Rohwer Relocation Center**

The Rohwer Relocation Center was located in Desha County, Arkansas, 11 miles north of McGehee and 110 miles southeast of Little Rock. It was one of two relocation centers in Arkansas — 27 miles south was the Jerome Relocation Center. The relocation center was named after the community of Rohwer, which was located one-half mile south.

Five miles west of the Mississippi River and at an elevation of 140 feet, the relocation center area is intertwined with canals, bayous, creeks, and swampy areas. The forests that once covered the area are now gone, replaced with rice, soybean, and cotton fields and dispersed housing. About 1 mile south of the relocation center, on the east side of State Highway 1, there are Indian mounds, one with a residence on it (Figure 11.1).



Figure 11.1. Residence south of Rohwer on top of a suspected Indian mound (another Indian mound is to the left of the house).

Several sources indicate the relocation center reserve encompassed 10,161 acres, but a boundary map for the entire reserve could not be located for this report. However, the central area layout plan includes a vicinity map which may provide clues to the boundary. Twenty full sections and four partial sections around the central area are numbered on the map, whereas the other sections depicted on the map are not numbered. While the total area of these sections exceeds the reported 10,161 acre figure, the relocation center reserve was likely limited to lands within these sections (Figure 11.2).

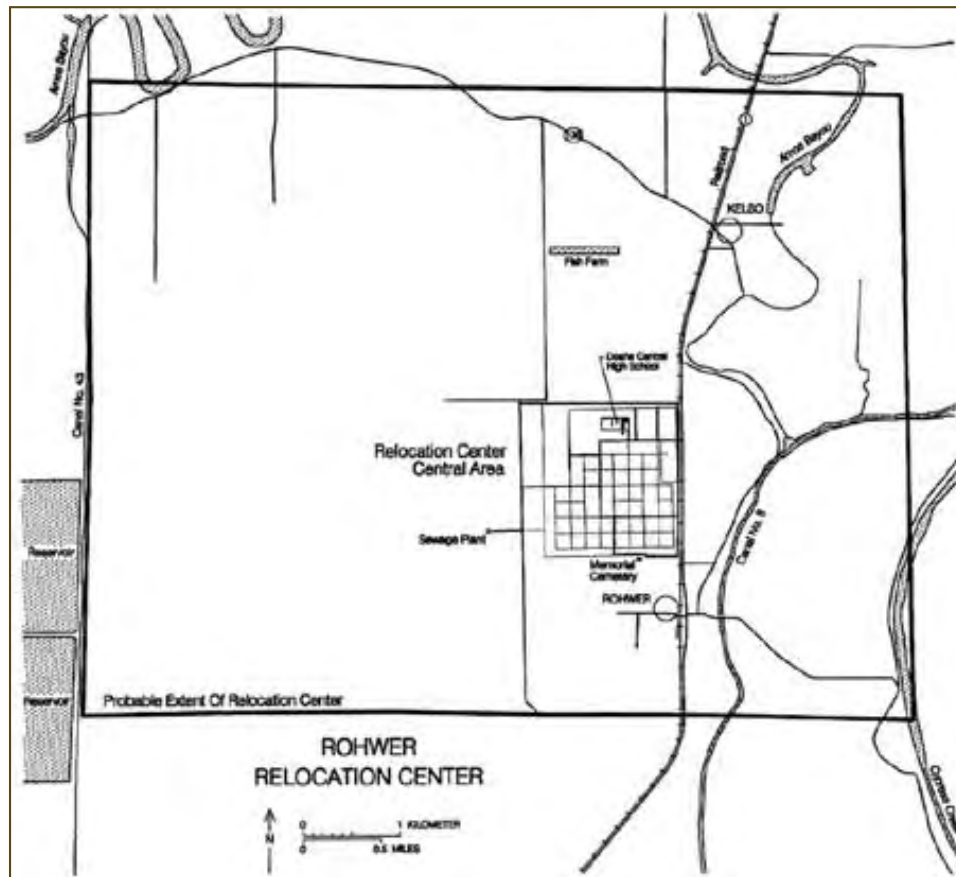
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Figure 11.2. Rohwer Relocation Center.

(click image for larger size (~70K))

According to Bearden (1989), half of the relocation center reserve remained under swampy bayou water during the spring. The reserve was mostly on public land meant for subsistence homesteads under the Farm Security Administration; the balance was purchased from local farmers.



Figure 11.3. Construction underway at the Rohwer Relocation Center.

(WRA photograph, National Archives)

The roughly 500-acre central area of the relocation center was along the west side of State Highway 1 and the adjacent Missouri Pacific Railroad. Construction by the Linebarger-Senne Construction Company of Little Rock, Arkansas, began July 1, 1942, and the center was ready for use on September 18, 1942 (Figure 11.3). The maximum population, reached in November 1942, was 8,475. Evacuees were from California, who endured a three-day train ride from the assembly centers to reach Arkansas. The center

closed November 30, 1944.

Rosalie Gould, the former Mayor of McGehee, grew up in the area, and recounts that the

Arkansas relocation centers were located in very poverty-stricken areas, probably, she believes, at the insistence of some influential Arkansas senator. In spite of local expectations, the centers did not bring prosperity. Hence, as difficult as conditions were within the relocation center, some local residents envied the evacuees' access to regular meals and health care.

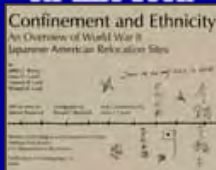
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**Chapter 12
Topaz Relocation Center**

The Topaz or Central Utah Relocation Center was located in west-central Utah, in Millard County near the town of Delta, 140 miles southwest of Salt Lake City. The relocation center named after Topaz Mountain, 9 miles northwest. The relocation center was briefly known as the "Abraham Relocation Center," after a nearby settlement (Figure 12.1).



Figure 12.1. Sign at the Great Basin Museum in Delta, Utah.

The extremely flat terrain of the relocation center lies within the Sevier Desert, part of the Basin and Range province that was once covered by Pleistocene Lake Bonneville. An "Old River Bed" depicted on maps less than a mile west of the site drains northward to the Topaz Slough. The most prominent physical landmark in the vicinity is Smelter Knolls, 4 miles west. Elevation at the Topaz Relocation Center is about 4600 feet and the native vegetation consists mainly of high desert brush.

The 19,800-acre relocation center reserve was a mixture of public domain land, farms acquired by the county for non-payment of taxes, and several privately-held parcels purchased for a dollar an acre (Arrington 1962). Construction of the relocation center was begun July 10, 1942, by the California firm Daley Brothers with a crew of 800.

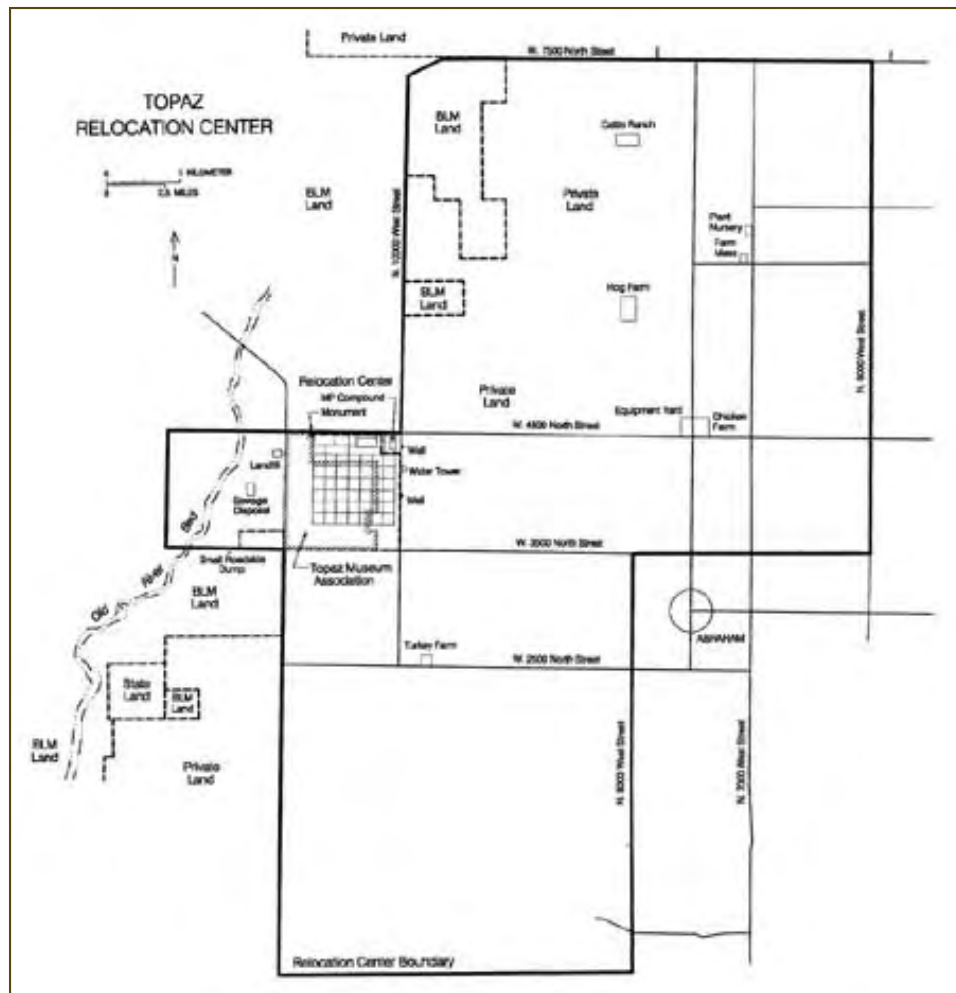
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Figure 12.2. Topaz Relocation Center.
(click image for larger size (~64K))

The relocation center was in operation from September 11, 1942, to October 31, 1945. The maximum population was 8,130; most of the internees were from the San Francisco Bay area. A total of 623 buildings were constructed during the life of the relocation center (Powell 1972). The nucleus of the facility consisted of a one-square-mile area for residents, administrative personnel, and the military police (Figures 12.2-12.5). This "central area" included 42 blocks, eight for administration and 34 for residences. Each residential block had 12 barracks, a mess hall, a recreation hall, and a combination washroom, shower, toilet, and laundry building. The eight administration blocks included office buildings, staff housing, warehouses, a hospital, and a military police compound. Security features at Topaz included a sentry post at the entrance, a perimeter fence, seven watch towers, and a military police compound.

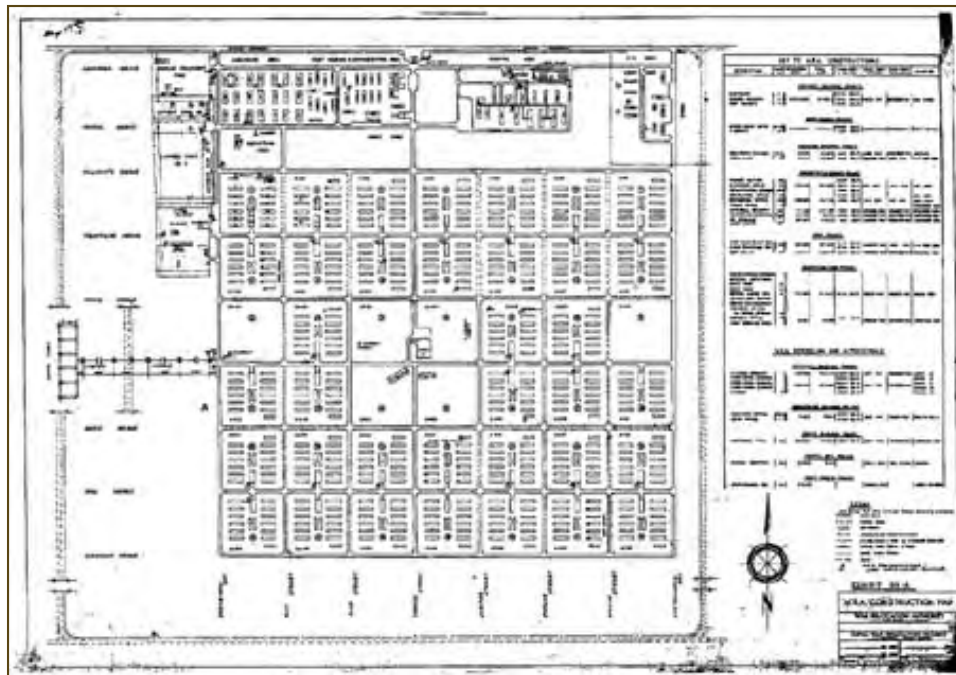


Figure 12.3. Residential and administration area, Topaz Relocation Center.

(National Archives)

(click image for larger size (~148K))

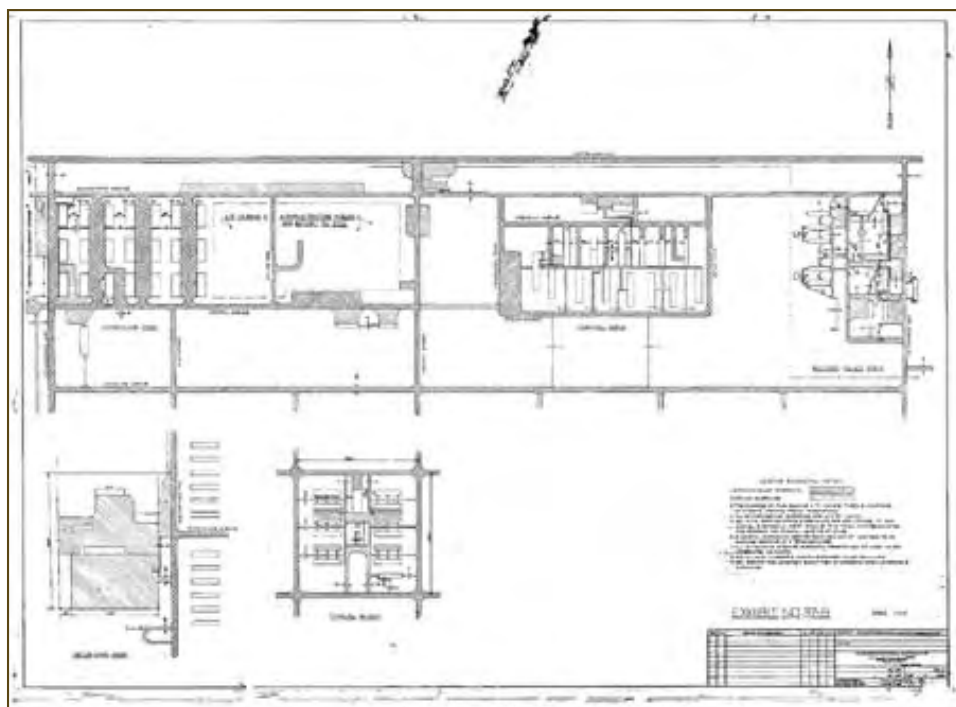


Figure 12.4. Administration area, hospital, and military police compound, Topaz Relocation Center.

(National Archives)

(click image for larger size (~88K))

Some of the buildings at Topaz were imported, recycled from nearby Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) camps. For example, two buildings were moved from the Antelope Springs CCC camp to Topaz to be used as the Christian and Buddhist churches, and two garages and other buildings were moved from the Black Rock CCC camp (Kelsey 1996:99). During World War II the headquarters of the Buddhist Church of America was transferred to Topaz from San Francisco (Ulibarri 1972).

In addition to the typical relocation center array of buildings and other developments, there were also sports fields and facilities, evacuee-constructed ponds and ornamental gardens, victory gardens to grow food, and trees and other vegetation. Over 7,500 trees and 10,000 shrubs were planted during the first 9 months, however nearly all died due to the heat, wind, and alkaline soil (Arrington 1962).

A cemetery was built to the southeast of the central area, but was never used. The 144 persons who died at Topaz were instead sent to Salt Lake City for cremation and their ashes were held at the relocation center for burial in the San Francisco area after the war (Arrington 1962).



Figure 12.5. Panorama view of the Topaz Relocation Center.

(Francis Stewart photograph, Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley)

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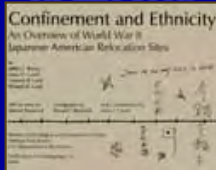
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Chapter 13

Tule Lake Relocation Center

The Tule Lake Relocation Center is in Modoc County, California, 35 miles southeast of Klamath Falls, Oregon, and about 10 miles from the town of Tulelake. The town is spelled as one word and the relocation center as two. The post office designation for the relocation center was Newell, the name of the post office, general store, and gas station at a nearby crossroads.

The relocation center reserve, which encompassed 7,400 acres, is presently a mix of public, state, and private land (Figures 13.1 and 13.2). Situated in the Klamath Valley, the Tule Lake Relocation Center was located within an underdeveloped federal reclamation district, authorized in 1905. The Modoc Project was begun in the Klamath Reclamation District in 1920 to drain Tule Lake for use as farm land. By 1941, 3,500 acres of former lake bed were under cultivation (Jacoby 1996). Large remnants of Tule Lake, now a National Wildlife Refuge, lie within a few miles of the relocation center site.

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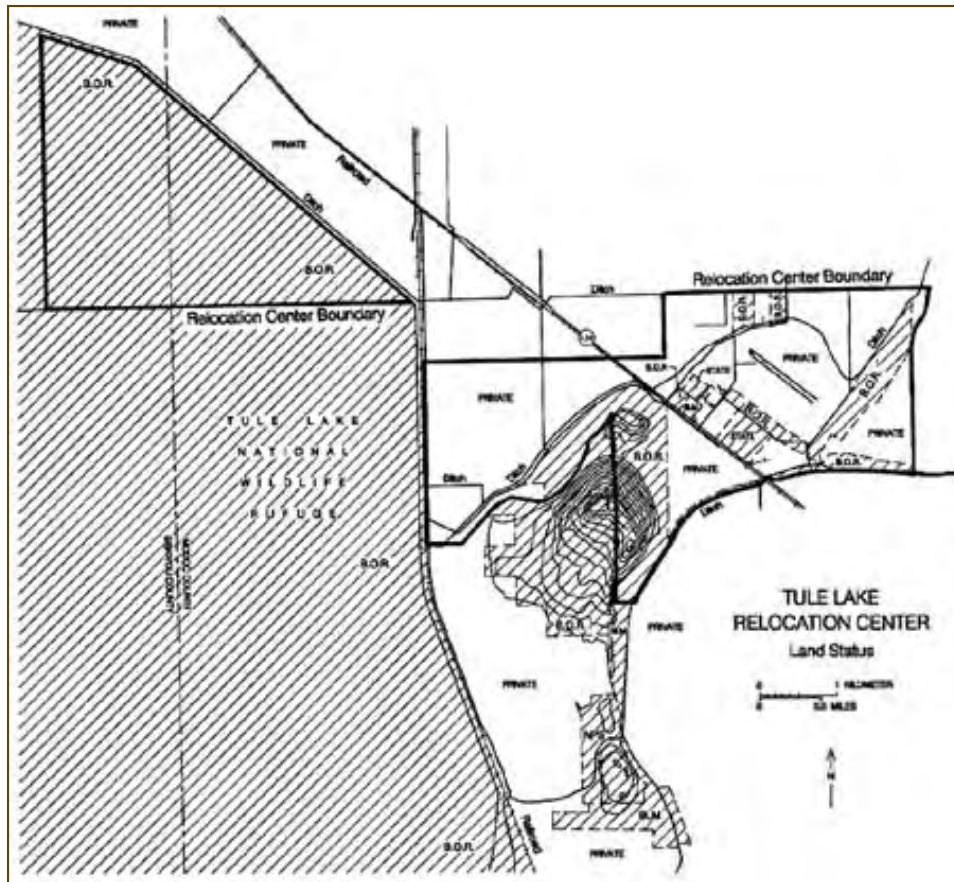


Figure 13.1. Land status, Tule Lake Relocation Center and vicinity.
(click image for larger size (~181K))

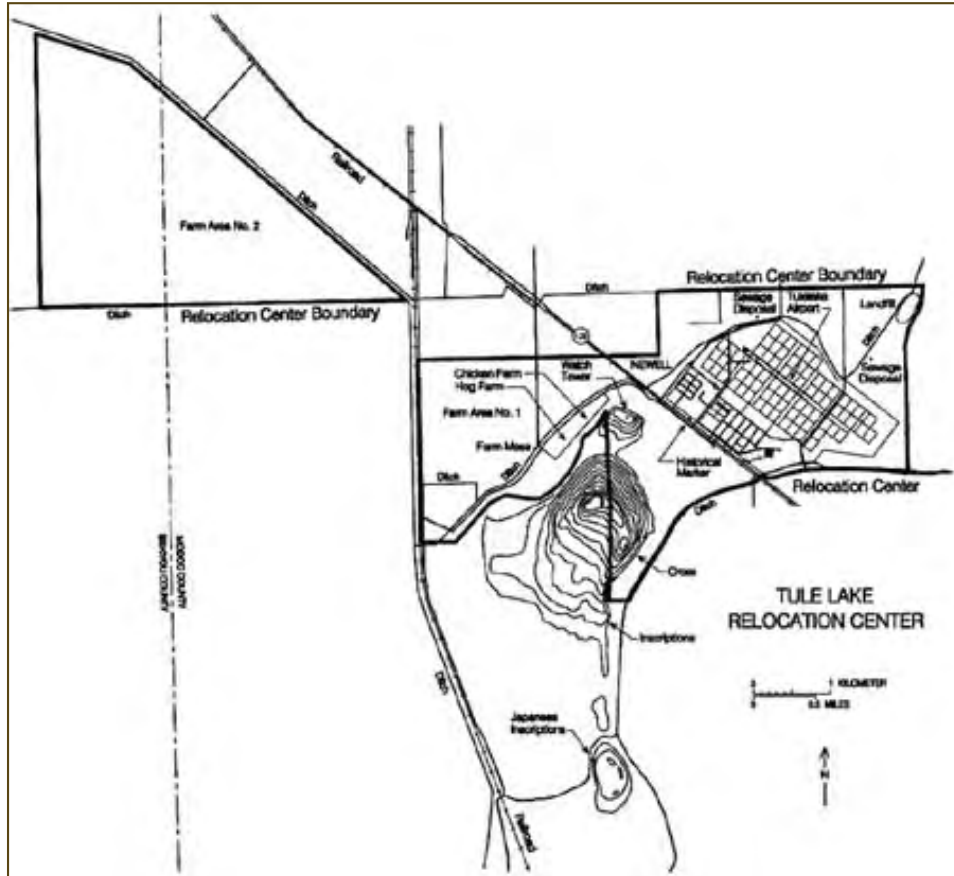


Figure 13.2. Tule Lake Relocation Center.
(click image for larger size (~72K))

The lacustrine geology is evident: the relocation center site and surrounding area is flat and treeless, and the sandy loam soil is interspersed with the abundant remains of freshwater mollusks. To the south and west volcanism is prominent: Tule Lake was just north of lava flows emanating from the Medicine Lake Highlands, the eastern-most promontory of the Cascade Range. An 800-foot-high bluff, called the Peninsula, is composed of volcanic tuff that was extruded within Pleistocene Tule Lake. The Peninsula lies just south of the developed central area of the relocation center, and there are other smaller bluffs to the north and east. Lava Beds National Monument includes two areas southwest of the relocation center, one just south of the Peninsula and another, much larger area at the northern end of the Medicine Lake Highlands. Fifty miles south on a clear day 14,000 foot Mt. Shasta is visible (Figure 13.3). At an elevation of 4,000 feet, the winters at Tule Lake are long and cold and the summers hot and dry. The vegetation consists of a sparse growth of grass, tules, and sagebrush.



Figure 13.3. Tule Lake and Mt. Shasta.

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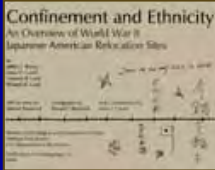
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Chapter 14 Citizen Isolation Centers

After the riot at the Manzanar Relocation Center in December 1942, the War Relocation Authority (WRA) decided to remove so-called troublemakers from the relocation centers. An isolation center was established at an abandoned Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) Camp at Dalton Wells, near Moab, Utah, which had been vacant only 15 months (Figures 14.1 and 14.2). The Dalton Wells camp was used as-is, with no fence or other improvements. Like the relocation centers the isolation center was run by the WRA, headed by Ray Best, who would later be the director of the Tule Lake Segregation Center.



Figure 14.1. Dalton Wells CCC Camp in 1937.

(from Louthan 1993)



Figure 14.2. Administration building at the Dalton Wells CCC Camp.

(from Louthan 1993)

On January 11, 1943, sixteen men from Manzanar were the first arrivals at Moab. Within a few months others from Manzanar and the other relocation centers were also sent to the isolation center, for "crimes" as minor as calling a Caucasian nurse an old maid (Drinnon 1987:104). No formal charges had to be made, transfer was purely at the discretion of the relocation center director (Myer 1971:65). This led to indiscriminate incarceration. For example, thirteen leaders of two separate Young People's Associations at the Gila River Relocation center were sent to Moab. The administration was having troubles with one of the groups and sent the leaders of both on the

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mistaken assumption that they were related.

Conflict between those opposed to the relocation and sympathizers carried over from the relocation centers to the isolation center. Further, living conditions were much harsher than in the relocation centers so protests over treatment and conditions continued. To further segregate the population seven inmates at the isolation center were transferred to the Grand County jail in Moab.

At its peak the Moab facility held 49 men (Louthan and Pierson 1993). On April 27, 1943, the inmates were moved to an abandoned Indian boarding school at Leupp, Arizona (Figures 14.3 and 14.4). The transfer to Leupp was ostensibly "for the purpose of bringing together the families of those persons sent to [Moab]." However, "incurrigibles" were to be placed in an isolated, fenced area of the camp (WRA Report cited in Louthan et al. 1994), and no families were ever transferred to Leupp.

Most of the Moab inmates were moved to Leupp by bus. Five of those held in the Grand County jail, however, were forced to make the 11-hour trip confined in a four by six foot box on the back of a flat-bed truck. On arrival at Leupp, four inmates were transferred to jail in the nearby town of Winslow for a few days before being placed in a jail occupied by six others at Leupp (Embrey et al. 1984). The prison atmosphere at Leupp was enforced by four guard towers, a cyclone fence topped with barbed wire, and the 150 military police who outnumbered the inmates by more than 2 to 1 (Negri 1985).



Figure 14.4. Mess hall at the Leupp Isolation Center.
(Henry Ueno photograph from Embrey et al. 1986)

aware of the injustice and illegality of the incarceration (Louthan and Pierson 1993; Negri 1985). On December 2, 1943, the Leupp facility was closed and the 71 inmates present were transferred by train to the segregation center at Tule Lake (Myer 1971:77). The transfer was to have taken place a month earlier, but it was delayed when the military police had to be called in to control demonstrations at Tule Lake.



Figure 14.3. Leupp Isolation Center.
(Henry Ueno photograph from Drinnon 1987)

More evacuees were transferred to Leupp, for such infractions as drawing pictures that did not meet administration approval, leading a work walk-out, or trying to form a union. Francis Frederick, in charge of internal security at the isolation center, remarked in a letter to a friend "What [the WRA] call dangerous is certainly questionable" (Drinnon 1987).

When Ray Best transferred to Tule Lake and was replaced by Paul Robertson, conditions at Leupp improved as the new director became

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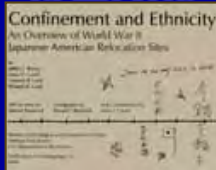
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Chapter 15

Additional War Relocation Authority Facilities

In addition to the relocation centers and isolation centers, the War Relocation Authority (WRA) used at least three other facilities, all former Civilian Conservation Corps (CCC) camps. Antelope Springs, Utah, was used as a recreation area for the Topaz Relocation Center to make difficult conditions more bearable. Cow Creek and Tulelake, California, were emergency short-term housing used to defuse tense situations when conditions had already gotten out of hand.

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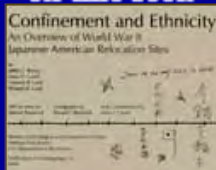
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Confinement and Ethnicity:

An Overview of World War II Japanese American Relocation Sites

by J. Burton, M. Farrell, F. Lord, and R. Lord



Chapter 16 Assembly Centers

Although Executive Order 9066 authorized the evacuation of all persons of Japanese ancestry from the West Coast, at the time it was signed there was no place for the Japanese Americans to go. When voluntary evacuation proved impractical, the military took over full responsibility for the evacuation: on April 9, 1942, the Wartime Civilian Control Agency (WCCA) was established by the military to coordinate the evacuation to inland relocation centers. However, the relocation centers were far from ready for large influxes of people. For some, there was still contention over the location; for most, their placement in isolated undeveloped areas of the country exacerbated problems of building infrastructure and housing. Since the Japanese Americans who lived in the restricted zone were perceived to be too dangerous to go about their daily business, the military decided it was necessary to find temporary "assembly centers" to house the evacuees until the relocation centers could be completed.

The assembly centers would require open space for housing, the immediate availability of water and power, and a geographic context that would make it easy to confine and separate the evacuees from the general population. In addition, to expedite the evacuation and eventual transfer to the relocation centers, facilities had to be centrally located with access to roads and railroads. Within 28 days, 17 assembly centers were prepared for use. Nine were at fairgrounds, two were at horse racetracks (Santa Anita and Tanforan, California), two were at migrant workers camps (Marysville and Sacramento, California), one was at a livestock exposition hall (Portland, Oregon), one was at a mill site (Pinedale, California), and one was at an abandoned Civilian Conservation Corps camp (Mayer, Arizona). In addition, the "reception centers" under construction near Parker Dam in Arizona (Poston) and in the Owens Valley of eastern California (Manzanar), originally set up to expedite the voluntary evacuation, were also employed as assembly centers. Both would later be designated relocation centers as well.

The assembly centers were surrounded by barbed wire fences. Armed military police, housed in a separate compound, patrolled the perimeter. Existing structures were adapted for use as offices, infirmaries, warehouses, and mess halls. At the racetracks, stables were cleaned out for use as living quarters and at the Portland Assembly Center over 3,800 evacuees were housed under one roof in a livestock pavilion subdivided into apartments. However, housing for the most of the evacuees consisted of hastily constructed "Theater of Operations"-type barracks buildings grouped into blocks with separate communal bathrooms and dining halls.

Most of the barracks were built directly on the ground or supported by wooden foundation

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blocks; 2- by 4-inch floor joists supported wooden floors. In a few assembly centers, some barracks had concrete or asphalt floors. Walls were made of horizontal boards covered with 30 lb. felt or one-ply roofing paper. Gable roofs (or shed roofs as at the Puyallup Assembly Center) were constructed with 2- by 4-inch rafters sheathed with boards and a single layer of roofing. The barracks buildings were divided into 20 ft by 20 ft rooms with wooden partition walls extending from the floor to the top of the outside wall line, leaving open a space above the interior walls to the roof. Each room had one door and two or more windows (American Red Cross 1942).

Beginning May 26, 1942, some 500 evacuees a day were transferred from the assembly centers to the relocation centers. Slowed by construction delays at the relocation centers and the lack of certain supplies (DeWitt 1943), transfers dragged on over a five-month period and were not completed until October 30, 1942.

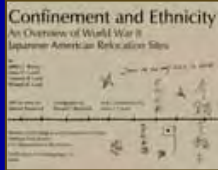
[Fresno, California](#) | [Marysville, California](#) | [Mayer, Arizona](#) | [Merced, California](#) | [Pinedale, California](#) | [Pomona, California](#) | [Portland, Oregon](#) | [Puyallup, Washington](#) | [Sacramento, California](#) | [Salinas, California](#) | [Santa Anita, California](#) | [Stockton, California](#) | [Tanforan, California](#) | [Tulare, California](#) | [Turlock, California](#)

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**Chapter 17****Department of Justice and U.S. Army Facilities**

Most Japanese Americans interned during World War II were held in facilities run by the War Relocation Authority (WRA) and Wartime Civilian Control Agency (WCCA) described in previous chapters. However, other facilities were also used to imprison Japanese Americans during the war. In all, over 7,000 Japanese Americans and Japanese from Latin America were held in internment camps run by the Department of Justice and the U.S. Army. Eight of these facilities were visited for this project.

After the attack on Pearl Harbor and prior to Executive Order 9066 on February 19, 1942, about 4,000 individuals from all over the U.S. were detained by the FBI. Over half of these were Japanese immigrants who were long-term U.S. residents denied U.S. citizenship by discriminatory laws. These Issei, now classified as "enemy aliens," were first sent to temporary detention stations, then transferred to locations known generally as "Justice Department Camps." The camps were run by the Immigration and Naturalization Service, part of the Department of Justice. After hearings, most of the Issei were then sent to U.S. Army internment camps where they remained through May 1943. After that time the internees were returned to Department of Justice control for the duration of the war.

Published literature provides few details about the Japanese American experiences at these facilities. Weglyn (1976:176) notes that most of the U.S. Army and Department of Justice internment camps were considered temporary, and even a complete listing of the camps and internees is not available. Weglyn collected information on the distribution of relief goods sent by the Japanese government through the Red Cross to estimate relative numbers of persons of Japanese ancestry held at various locations. However, as Weglyn notes, these camps often included not only Japanese American Issei who were long-term residents of the United States, but also persons of Japanese ancestry from Latin America.

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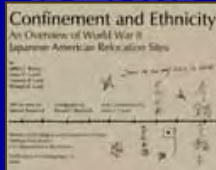
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Chapter 18 Federal Bureau of Prisons

No Japanese American was ever charged and convicted of sabotage or spying during World War II. However, over a hundred Japanese Americans who sought to challenge the internment were convicted and sentenced to terms in federal prisons. These cases, highlighted in recent research (see, for example, work by Abe n.d.; Erickson 1998a, 1998b; Uyeda 1993), belie the perception that the Japanese American community passively accepted the relocation and internment.

Gordon Hirabayashi, Minoru Yasui, and Fred Korematsu challenged the government's actions in court. Minoru Yasui had volunteered for military service after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor and was rejected because of his Japanese ancestry. An attorney, he deliberately violated the curfew law of his native Portland, Oregon, stating that citizens have the duty to challenge unconstitutional regulations. Gordon Hirabayashi, a student at the University of Washington, also deliberately violated the curfew for Japanese Americans and disregarded the evacuation orders, claiming that the government was violating the 5th Amendment by restricting the freedom of innocent Japanese Americans (Figure 18.1). Fred Korematsu changed his name, altered his facial features, and went into hiding. He was later arrested for remaining in a restricted area (Davis 1982:118). In court, Korematsu claimed the government could not imprison a group of people based solely on ancestry.



Figure 18.1. Gordon Hirabayashi in 1942.
(*Seattle Times* photograph)

All three lost their cases and the Supreme Court upheld the convictions of Hirabayashi and Yasui in June of 1943 and that of Korematsu in December 1944. Yasui spent several months in jail and was then sent to the Minidoka Relocation Center. Korematsu was sent to the Topaz Relocation Center while awaiting trial. Hirabayashi refused bail since he then would have been sent to a relocation center; he therefore spent several months in the King County jail in Washington. After the Supreme Court decision Hirabayashi served the remaining 3 months of his sentence at the Catalina Federal Honor Camp in Arizona.

Other protests by Japanese Americans were connected with military service. When the war began, many of the Japanese Americans who were in the military were dismissed, and U.S.

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citizens of Japanese ancestry were classified as enemy aliens ineligible for military service. However in May 1942, the 100th Infantry Battalion was formed in Hawaii, where the majority of Japanese American residents were not interned. The prohibition against other Japanese Americans serving in the military was lifted in early 1943, and the draft was reinstated for Japanese Americans on January 20, 1944. The all-Nisei 442nd Regimental Combat Team joined the 100th Infantry Battalion in Europe in June 1944. Over 33,000 Nisei served in World War II, with over 6,000 of them in the Pacific Theater (NJAHS 1995:70, 77).

However, there were protests over the internment both within and outside the military. In March 1944, 106 Nisei soldiers at Fort McClellan in Alabama refused to undergo combat training while their families were held behind barbed wire without trial. Twenty-eight were court-martialed and sent to Leavenworth prison with sentences from 5 to 30 years (Nakagawa 1999; NJAHS 1995:76-77).



Figure 18.2. Trial of 63 Japanese American draft resisters from the Heart Mountain Relocation Center.
(from NJAHS 1995)

More than 300 internees refused to be drafted into the military until their constitutional rights as citizens were restored (Figures 18.2-18.4). The resisters did not object to the draft, in itself, but hoped that by defying the conscription orders they would clarify their citizenship status. If they were to share in the rights and duties of citizens, why did the government forcibly incarcerate them and their families? If their loyalty was in question, why were they being drafted?



Figure 18.3. Draft resisters just released from McNeil Island wearing government-issued suits.
(from Uyeda 1993)



Figure 18.4. Japanese Americans imprisoned at the Catalina Federal Honor Camp at their first reunion in 1946.
(photograph courtesy of Kenji Taguma)

At least two federal judges agreed with the resisters' position. Charges against 26 resisters from the Tule Lake Segregation Center were dismissed by Judge Louis Goodman, who said in his decision "It is shocking to the conscience that an American Citizen be confined on the grounds of disloyalty and then while so under duress and restraint, be compelled to serve in the Armed Forces or prosecuted for not yielding to such compulsion" (*Associated Press* 1944). Some 100 resisters from the Poston Relocation Center were fined 1 cent each, the judge deciding that the imprisonment of the relocation center itself was sufficient punishment (Weglyn 1976:303). However, other resisters were sentenced to up to 3 years in federal prisons. Young draft resisters from the Heart Mountain Relocation Center were sent to the McNeil Island Federal Penitentiary in Washington; older men were sent to the Leavenworth Federal Penitentiary in Kansas. Draft resisters from Granada and other relocation centers were sent to the Catalina Federal Honor Camp in Arizona. The draft resisters were pardoned in 1947 by President Harry S. Truman. However, the questions of whether citizens must "prove" loyalty when their rights have been revoked, and how citizens can best stand up for civil rights, have still not been resolved.

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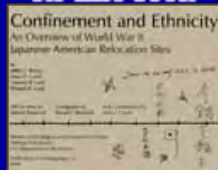
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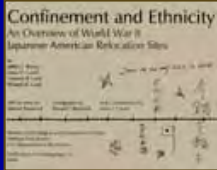
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Confinement and Ethnicity:

An Overview of World War II Japanese American Relocation Sites

by J. Burton, M. Farrell, F. Lord, and R. Lord



Appendix A

Relocation Center Drawings in Records Group 210, National Archives, Cartographic Division (Washington, D.C.)

Compiled by Irene J. Cohen

Gila River Relocation Center

- Electrical Distribution and Telephone Lines — Butte Unit
- Electrical Distribution and Telephone Lines — Canal Unit
- Gila River Project Area Plan — Agricultural Development
- Plan of Center Area — Canal Unit (1" = 200')
- Plan of Center Area — Butte Unit (1" = 200')
- Road System and Location Map (1" = 5,000')
- Sewer System Layout
- Title Page and Index
- W.R.A. Construction (Site Plans with Dates and Construction Costs)
- Water and Gas Distribution — Butte Unit
- Water and Gas Distribution — Canal Unit

Granada Relocation Center

- Electrical Distribution System Layout Plan (1" = 200')
- Granada Relocation Area Field Map (Crops) (3" = 1 Mile; Faded Blueline)
- Project Area (3" = 1 Mile)
- Temporary Buildings Site Plan (1" = 200'; Contour Map)
- Utility System — Water Supply, Storage, and Distribution Layout (1942)
- Utility System — Water Supply, Storage and Distribution (1942)
- Utility Systems — Sewers

Heart Mountain Relocation Center

- Plan of Center Area (1" = 400'; Includes Buildings)
- Area Map 1" = 5000' (Dark, Hard to Read)
- Map of Heart Mountain Relocation Project (1" = 2000')
- Layout Plan (With Key to Roads and Buildings)
- Water Supply System General Plan
- Electrical Distribution System
- Sewer System — General Plan

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**Jerome Relocation Center — Folder 1
(General Including Evacuee Barracks)**

Administration Headquarters for MP Group
Administration Group Dormitory
Administration Group Store
Administration Building for Admin Group
Administration Group Dormitory
Denson Cemetery Layout Plan (1" = 15')
Drainage Layout
Evacuees Barracks Building — Foundation Plan, Floor Plans, Sections
Evacuees Barracks Building — as Built (1/4" = 1')
Evacuees Mess Hall and Kitchen (Plan, Sections, Furnishings, Elevation)
Evacuees Lavatory and Laundry (Elevation)
Evacuees Lavatory and Laundry (Plans, Details)
Evacuees Lavatory and Laundry (Plumbing)
Evacuees Lavatory and Laundry
Evacuees Mess Hall and Kitchen
Evacuees Mess Hall and Kitchen (Building Section, Long Elevation, Details)
Evacuees Lavatory and Laundry
Fire Station
Framing — as Built
Garages for Administration and MP Groups, Watch Towers, Well Pump
Guard House for Military Police Group Plans, Elevation, Sections
Kitchen and Mess Hall for Admin. Groups and MP Group
Layout Plan (1" = 200'; W/building Schedule and Location Map)
Map of Land Developed by WRA — Roads and Bridges, (1" = 1/2 Mile)
Military Police Barracks
Misc. Details: Typical Closet for Evacuee Barracks; Screened Ventilators, and Kitchen Store Room
Officers Quarters and Dispensary for MP Group, Plans, Elevation, Lecture Room
Piping Detail of Two Hot Water Tanks in Evacuees Lavatory and Laundry
Post Exchange
Post Office
Post Office Vault and Interior Equipment Details
Receiving Building Plans, Elevations Sections
Recreation Building for Evacuees Blocks and for Admin. Group
Refrigerated Warehouse
Refrigerated Warehouse
Refrigerated Warehouse
Typical Details for All Buildings (Sections Mostly)
Typical Details for All Buildings (Windows, Doors, Porches, Etc.)
Typical Details for All Buildings
Warehouse for Warehouse Group and Shop for Admin.
Warehouse for Admin. Group

**Jerome Relocation Center — Folder 2
(Hospital and Related)**

Admin Building — Hospital Group
Children's and Isolation Wards, Obstetrical Ward, Electrical Work
Construction Details — Hospital Group

Covered Walks — Hospital
Cross — Sectional Details of Piping for Sewage Treatment Plant
Doctors and Nurses Quarters — Plumbing, Heating, and Electrical
Doctors Quarters — Plans and Elevations
Fire Stops and Covered Walk Ramp — Hospital Group
Hospital Mess Plumbing and Heating Work
Hospital Boiler House Equipment Foundations
Hospital Mess Roof Truss Details
Hospital Boiler House — Misc. Details
Hospital Boiler House — Plans, Elevations
Hospital Boiler House and Misc. Details
Hospital Mess — Plans, Elevations, Etc.
Hospital Mess Misc. Details
Isolation and Children's Ward Plans, Elevations, Section,
Hospital Group
Isolation and Children's Ward Plumbing and Heating
Laundry Building Hospital Group
Mess Building
Morgue and Disinfecting Building and Hosp. Warehouse 46
Nurses Quarters — Plans and Elevations
Obstetrical Ward — Plumb and Heating
Obstetrical Ward Plans and Elevations, Hospital Group
Optional Roof Truss for Hosp. Mess Hall — Details, Elevation
Outpatients Building — Plumb, Heating, Electrical
Outpatients Building — Plans, Elevations, Section
Sprinkler System for Standard Ward Building
Sprinkler System for Isolation Ward, Children's Ward, Obstetrical Ward, Hospital
Sprinkler System for Covered Walks — Hospital Group
Standard Ward Building — Plumbing and Heating Plan Hospital Group
Standard Ward Plans and Elevation
Standard Ward Building — Plumbing and Heating Plan (Hospital Group)
Standard Ward Plans and Elevations
Standard Ward Building — Electrical Plan
Standard Ward Building — Electrical Plan, Hospital Group
Steam Distribution System.
Surgery Building — Plumb, Heating, Electric
Surgery Building — Hospital Group (Plans, Elevation)
Well and Pump Line Installation Details

**Jerome Relocation Center — Folder 3
(Water, Sewage, and Utilities)**

Aerial Electrical Distribution System. Neutral Grid and Grounding System
Aerial Electrical Distribution System. Pole Schedule
Aerial Electrical Distribution System. 13.2 KV. Const. Det
Aerial Electrical Distribution System — Sector No. 2
Aerial Electrical Distribution System. 13.2 KV. Constr. Det.
Aerial Electrical Distribution System. Sector No. 4
Aerial Electrical Distribution System — Sector No. 3
Aerial Electrical Distribution System — Sector No. 1
Composite Plan — Utility Distribution — Sector No. 1
Composite Plan — Utility Distribution — Sector No. 2
Composite Plan — Utility Distribution — Sector No. 3
Composite Plan — Utility Distribution — Sector No. 4

Fire Alarm and Tel System — Pole Lines
Sanitary Sewers — Detailed Layout — Sector No. 4 (1" = 100")
Sanitary Sewers — Detailed Layout — Sector No. 1
Sanitary Sewers — Detailed Layout — Sector No. 3
Sanitary Sewers — General Layout
Sanitary Sewers — Detailed Layout Sector No. 2
Sewage Treatment Plant Prelim. Sedimentation Tanks
Sewage Treatment Plant Filter Beds
Sewage Treatment Plant Final Sedimentation Tanks
Sewage Treatment Plant Sludge Digester
Sewage Treatment Plant Operation Diagram
Sewage Treatment Plant — Sludge Drying Beds
Sewage Treatment Plant — Sewage Pumping Station No. 1
Sewage Treatment Plant — General Layout
Transformer Station — Location Layout
Water Distribution System — Water Pumping Station
Water Distribution System. — Water Reservoir
Water Distribution System — Detailed Layout — Sector No. 2
Water Distribution System — Detailed Layout, Sector No. 4
Water Distribution System — Detailed Layout, Sector No. 3
Water Distribution System — Detailed Layout, Sector No. 1
Water Distribution System — General Layout

Manzanar Relocation Center

Boundary Map (4" = 1 Mi.)
Camp Layout (1" = 200', Incl. Building Legend)
Construction Plot Plan (WRA Construction, Remodeling)
Electrical System and Fire Alarm Telephone
Irrigation Map
Land Improvements (Roads, Airport, Etc; 1" = 100)
Manzanar Relocation Area (1" = 2,000"; Small Sheet)
Sanitary Sewer System
Water Distribution System

Minidoka Relocation Center

Basic Construction by U.S. Engineers: Center Plan (1" = 300'; Includes Building Key and Vicinity Map)
Electrical Distribution — Detail Layout
General Plan (1" = 200' Incl. Buildings, No Key)
Lateral 21.3 Location and Farm Units Served by Lateral
Minidoka Relocation Project (1" = 1/4 Mi)
W.r.a. Construction and Remodeling (1" = 300', Includes Key)

Poston Relocation Center

Canal System (1" = 2000')
Electrical Distribution
Electrical Distribution System — Unit I
Electrical Distribution System — Unit II

Electrical Distribution System — Unit III
Hog Farm Area
Key Map — WRA Colorado River Indian Reservation
Parker Warehouse Area
Poston — Unit I (1" = 300')
Poston — Unit II (1" = 300') and Typical Block (1" = 100')
Poston — Unit III (1" = 300') and Typical Block (1" = 100')
Roads and Land Improvements (1"= 2000')
Sewer System — Unit I
Sewer System — Unit II
Sewer Layout — Unit III
Telephone System Cables and Terminals — Unit I
Telephone System Cables and Terminals — Unit II
Telephone System Cables and Terminals Unit III and Typical Block (1" = 100')
Water Distribution System — Unit I
Water Distribution System — Unit II
Water Distribution System — Unit III
Water Distribution System Parker Warehouse Area

Rohwer Relocation Center

Aerial Electrical Distribution. System. — Sector No. 1
Aerial Electrical Distribution. System. — Sector No. 2
Aerial Electrical Distribution. System. — Sector No. 3
Aerial Electrical Distribution. System. — Sector No. 4
Aerial Electrical Distribution. System. — Neutral Grid and Grounding
Composite Plan — Utility Distribution — Sector No. 1
Composite Plan — Utility Distribution — Sector No. 2
Composite Plan — Utility Distribution — Sector No. 3
Composite Plan — Utility Distribution — Sector No. 4
Layout Plan and Vicinity Map (1" = 200')
Sanitary Sewers — Detailed Layout — Sector No. 1
Sanitary Sewers — Detailed Layout — Sector No. 2
Sanitary Sewers — Detailed Layout — Sector No. 3
Sanitary Sewers — Detailed Layout — Sector No. 4
Sanitary Sewers — General Layout
Sewage Treatment Plant — General Layout
Water Distribution System — Detailed Layout Sector No. 1
Water Distribution System — Detailed Layout Sector No. 2
Water Distribution System — Detailed Layout Sector No. 3
Water Distribution System — Detailed Layout — Sector No. 4
Water Distribution System — General Layout

Topaz Relocation Center

Center Plot Plan — Buildings Planned
Electrical Distribution in Topaz
Hospital Water, Sewer and Sprinkler System (1" = 30')
Land, Fencing, Irrigation and Drainage
Other Investments by WRA (Structures, i.e. Playground Equipment, Flagpole)
Plot Plans for Hog Farm, Poultry Farm, Cattle Ranch
Project Map — Roads, Fences, Ditches, Bridges and Culverts (1"= 1,500')
Project Map — (Small Sheet, No Scale)

Project Plot Plan — Water Lines
Road Layout, Elevations, Typical Sections
Sewer System
Sketch of Irrigation System Showing Culverts in Center (Small Sheet)
Staff Housing — Water, Oil and Sewer Lines (1" = 30')
Streets, Parking Areas and Sidewalks, Hospital Block (1" = 10')
Streets, Parking Areas and Sidewalks in Administration and Appointed Personnel Housing Areas (1"=30')
Construction Buildings (Includes Key)
Utility Area — Water, Sewer, and Road Layout
WRA Construction Map
Warehouse 109 (Large Scale)
Warehouse and MP Areas, and Typical Telephone System
Water Map (Including Detail of Water Tower)

Tule Lake Relocation Center

Camp Area Water Lines
Electrical Distribution — Hog Farms and Deep Well Area
Electrical Distribution System
Master Plot Plan (1" = 300'; Includes Key to Buildings)
Master Area Plot Plan (1" = 600'; Buildings, No Key)
Sewer Lines and Manholes
Utilities Layout



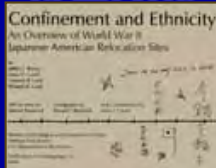
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An Overview of World War II Japanese American Relocation Sites

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Appendix B

Tule Lake Relocation Center Drawings at the Bureau of Reclamation, Klamath Falls (Oregon) Office

40' x 100' Mess Hall — Military Police Area
Addition to Administration Building
Additional Construction — Preliminary (1943)
Additional Housing, Mess Hall, Combined Men's and Women's
Latrine Building — Architectural, Plumbing
Additional Housing, Mess Hall, Combined Men's and Women's
Latrine Building — Details
Additional Housing, Plot Plan — Fence and Perimeter Road
Additional Housing, Sewage Collection System — Plan
Additional Housing, Water Distribution System — Plan
Additional Housing — Building Location Plan and Streets
Additional Housing — Notes and Lists of Drawings
Additional Housing — Recreation Building, Architectural and Electrical Plan, Electrical
Plans
Additional Housing, Family Barracks, Laundry and Ironing Building — Details
Additional Utilities, Bar Screen Chamber
Additional Utilities, Changes and Additions to Protective Lighting
Additional Utilities, Effluent and Sludge Beds
Additional Utilities, Imhoff Tank — General
Additional Utilities, Imhoff Tank — Structural Details
Additional Utilities, Pump Station
Additional Utilities, Pump Station — Installation
Additional Utilities — General Plan
Administration Building and Turnstile Canopy — Plans, Elevations, and Details
Auxiliary Power House and Electrical Details
Boiler House
Boiler House — Plan and Details
Building Location Plan, Building Notes, and List of Drawings
Building Layout
Camp Area, Sewer Line and Manholes
Camp Area, Water Line
Coal Unloading Platform
Cold Storage Warehouse, Revised Meat Storage Room — Plumbing, Electrical, and
Refrigeration
Coordinate Plot Plan
Details — Buildings with Siding

[Assembly Centers](#)

Details — Evacuee Barracks

Details — Hospital Buildings

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Details of Imhoff Tank Repairs

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Enlisted Men's Mess Hall Type M.P.T., Revision of Refrigerators

Electrical Distribution System (1942)

Electrical Distribution System (1943)

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Electrical Distribution — Military Police, Motor Pool, and Entrance Area

Electrical Details

Entrance Area — Gates and Turnstiles

Evacuee Relocation Center (1942)

Evacuee Mess Halls

Family Barracks, Laundry, and Ironing Building Details

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Fire Stations

Garages for Administration and M.P. Groups, Watch Towers, Well Pump Houses

Gasoline Storage and Dispensing System

General Plot Plan (1" = 300')

General Plot Plan and Typical Block Plan

General Plot Plan and Typical Block Plan — Water Distribution System

General Plan Storage Distribution

Guard House and Typical Barracks — Plans and Details

Guard Tower — Plan and Details (1943)

Headquarters Battalion and School

High Pressure Feeder to New 2000,000 Gal. Water Storage Tank

Hospital Group, Sprinkler System Piping — Doctors, Nurses, Children's, Isolation, and Obstetrics

Hospital Group, Sprinkler System Piping — Plot Plan and Out-Patient Building

Hospital Group, Sprinkler System Piping — Ward, Administration, and Operating Buildings

Hospital Mess Hall

Hospital Area — Heating Layout and Details

Imhoff Tanks (two copies)

Imhoff Tanks — Structural Details

Industrial Building Conversion to Vegetable Storage Cellar— Truss and Column Detail

Industrial Building Conversion to Vegetable Storage Cellar

Key Drawings of Buildings (includes notes; three sheets)

Latrines and Dispensary

Laundry and Ironing Buildings

Master Plot Plan (1" = 600'; includes buildings and key; four copies)

Master Plot Plan Showing Location of Proposed Grandview School (1944)

Mess Hall and Latrine Building

Military, Motor Pool, and Entrance Areas — Paving Plan and Sections

Miscellaneous Details (two sheets)

Motor Repair Shop — Military Police Area

Newell Townsite (May 1950)

Out-Patient Building — Details

Out-Patient Building — Electrical Work

Out-Patient Building

Out-Patient Building — Floor Plans, Elevations, and Framing Sections

Out-Patient Building — Foundation, Plot Plan, Details

Out-Patient Building — Mechanical

Perimeter Road and Farm Area No. 1 — Plan and Sections

Personnel Registration Building and Parcel Inspection Building — Plans and Details

Plot Plan Farm Areas No. 1 and No. 2

Plot Plan — Buildings and Grounds (Military Area)

Plot Plan — Military Area

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Plot Plans — Administration, Hospital, and Military Police Groups
Post Office Vault, Sentry House, and Garage Door
Recreation and Mess Hall — Administration Area
Recreation and 20 x 100 Mess Hall — Military Police Area
Residential Area External Security — Plan and Details
Residential Area Protective Lighting and Details
Residential Area (Military and Staff Areas) Protective Lighting — Plan
Revised 160' Motor Repair Shop in Easterly Motor Pool Buildings No. 44 and 45
Revised Building Location Plan (Staff Area)
Sanitary Sewer System
Sewage Disposal System
Sewage Pumping Station — Pipe Bridges
Sewage Pumping Station — Pumping Plant Details (five sheets)
Sewage Pumping Station — Structural Plans (revised)
Sewage Pumping Station — Structural Plans
Sewage Treatment and Disposal Plan
Sewage Treatment Plant, Parshall Flume
Sewerage Distribution — Typical Block
Sewerage Distribution — Manhole Details
Space and Water Heater Data
Spur Warehouse and SD-17 Shed
Stables, Corral, and Forage Shed — Modifications to Standard Drawings
Standard Family Barracks (1942)
Steam Distribution — Hospital
Temporary Sewage Disposal
Timber Bridge — Plan and Details
Tracts No. 1 and No. 2 External Security Plan and Detail
Truss Details
Utilities Layout — Area No. 9
Utilities Layout — Area No. 15
Utilities Layout — Area No. 16
Utilities Layout — Area No. 17
Utilities Layout — Area No. 20
Utilities Layout — Area No. 21
Utilities Layout — Area No. 22
Utilities Layout — Area No. 27
Utilities Layout — Area No. 28
Utilities Layout — Area No. 32
Utilities Layout — Area No. 33
Utility Yard and Shops — Key Drawings of Buildings (Military Police Area)
Vicinity Map (1" = 4000')
Warehouse Type WH-A-T (Military Police Area)
Water Distribution — Standard Details
Water Storage Tanks
Water Distribution System
Well Pump House and Sentry Towers (1942)
Wooden Sewage Tanks



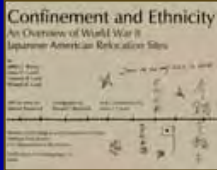
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Appendix C

Selected Relocation Center Drawings

This appendix contains a sample of Corps of Engineers construction plans for various buildings in the relocation centers. (Web edition note: image sizes are quite large — please be patient while the figure downloads). Included are:

[Figure C.1.](#) Family Barracks, Laundry, and Ironing Building Details, Tule Lake Relocation Center.

[Figure C.2.](#) Evacuees Barracks Bldg — Foundation Plan and Floor Plans and Sections, Jerome Relocation Center.

[Figure C.3.](#) Evacuee Mess Halls, Tule Lake Relocation Center.

[Figure C.4.](#) Additional Housing, Mess Hall, Combined Men's and Women's Latrine Building — Architectural, Plumbing, Tule Lake Relocation Center.

[Figure C.5.](#) Latrines and Dispensary, Tule Lake Relocation Center.

[Figure C.6.](#) Additional Housing — Recreation Building, Architectural and Electrical Plan, Electrical Plans, Tule Lake Relocation Center.

[Figure C.7.](#) Evacuees Lavatory and Laundry, Jerome Relocation Center.

[Figure C.8.](#) Laundry and Ironing Buildings, Tule Lake Relocation Center.

[Figure C.9.](#) Additional Housing, Family Barracks, Laundry and Ironing Building — Details, Tule Lake Relocation Center.

[Figure C.10.](#) Garages for Administration and M.P. Groups, Watch Towers, Well Pump Houses, Tule Lake Relocation Center.

[Figure C.11.](#) Well Pump House and Sentry Towers (1942), Tule Lake Relocation Center.

[Figure C.12.](#) Guard Tower — Plan and Details (1943), Tule Lake Relocation Center.

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[Figure C.13.](#) Sewage Treatment Plant — General Layout, Tule Lake Relocation Center.

[Figure C.14.](#) Sewage Disposal System, Tule Lake Relocation Center.

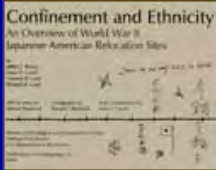


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Cover Page

Confinement and Ethnicity: An Overview of World War II Japanese American Relocation Sites

by J. Burton, M. Farrell, F. Lord, and R. Lord



Evacuee barracks at the Manzanar Relocation Center.
(National Archives)



(U.C. Berkeley)

"Gradually it was disclosed to me that the line separating good and evil passes not through states, nor between classes, nor between political parties — but right through every human heart — and all human hearts."

Alexander Solzhenitsyn,
The Gulag Archipelago, 1974

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