



Curriculum Unit

Causes of Conflict

Issues of Immigration

Essential Question:

How do conflicts over immigration arise from labor needs and social change?

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Acknowledgments and Notes

The lesson *Causes of Conflict: Issues of Immigration* is made possible by grants from the Washington Civil Liberties Public Education Program.

This unit is designed to closely align with Washington State's Essential Academic Learning Requirements (EALRs) as measured by a Social Studies Classroom Based Assessment (CBA) model. The model used for this unit is:

Category: History
Level: High School
Topic: Causes of Conflict

For more information about this Classroom Based Assessment model, go to:
<http://www.k12.wa.us/assessment/WASL/socialstudies/CBAs/HSxxxxxCBA.pdf>.

Densho: the Japanese American Legacy Project developed this unit. Sarah Loudon and Doug Selwyn were the primary writers.

Densho is a Japanese term meaning "to pass on to the next generation," or to leave a legacy. Our mission is to preserve the testimonies of Japanese Americans who were unjustly incarcerated during World War II. Using digital technology, Densho provides free online access to personal accounts, historical documents and photographs, and teacher resources to explore principles of democracy and promote equal justice. Sign up for the free Densho Digital Archive at www.densho.org.

Feedback and Contact Information

We are very interested in receiving comments, suggestions, and questions about this unit and our materials. Feedback is essential in guiding our further work with educators! After using, or reviewing the materials for later use, we ask that you return the Teacher Talk Back page. Or you may fill out the form online at www.densho.org/learning. We also very much appreciate receiving copies of student reflections written at the end of the unit.

Thank you!



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Connection to Washington State Social Studies Class-room Based Assessments (CBAs)

Bridging Document

Step-by-Step Alignment of the High School Classroom Based Assessment model “Causes of Conflict” and the lesson *Issues in Immigration*.

For the CBA, students are asked to research and analyze causes of a conflict by:	The <i>Immigration</i> lesson aligns itself with the essential academic learning requirements of the “Causes of Conflict” CBA model in the following manner:
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Analyzing historical and economic factors that contributed to a conflict 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Students research and analyze the context of a significant conflict in immigration history.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Identifying and evaluating multiple points of view 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Students examine the conflicting positions of several stakeholders on an immigration issue. Students evaluate articles and editorials that represent two or more points of view on a conflict related to immigration.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Explaining why one (or more) factor(s) was (were) the major cause(s) of a conflict 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Students give a reasoned argument and evidence for identifying one historical or economic factor as the major cause, and analyze several additional contributing factors.
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Using relevant information from primary sources 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Students learn procedures for conducting and searching for oral history interviews; they draw from oral histories and other primary sources in their research.

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To the Teacher

Unit Overview

The unit outlines a three-week investigation of conflicts over immigration, based on the Washington State Classroom-Based Assessment (CBA) Causes of Conflict. Although the majority of U.S. citizens are descended from immigrants and enslaved peoples of Africa, new immigrants have not always been welcomed into the country. Sometimes immigrants have been seen as competition by settled Americans, and sometimes as threats to the American way of life. There have been tensions between Americans' concepts of our country as a nation built by immigrants, and perceptions of national security. There are tensions between Americans' legal obligation to be fair regardless of race and national origin, and discriminatory attitudes that have affected immigration policy and treatment of certain communities. And there is a long history of conflict between needs of workers to receive better wages and needs or desire of employers to control costs--with immigrants coming in as the best source of low-wage workers.

Three assignments are included here to be completed during the unit:

- 1) a position paper and presentation analyzing a conflict related to immigration, that can range from a historic event to an ongoing struggle of a particular community;
- 2) an oral history interview with an immigrant; and
- 3) a small group simulation of an editorial board meeting.

It is up to the teacher to decide whether to include all assignments, and whether to modify the amount of time given to students to complete them. The position paper and editorial board meeting simulation satisfy the requirements of the Causes of Conflict CBA; the oral history assignment investigates a suggested (but not required) component of the CBA.

The unit begins with an exploration of attitudes toward immigrants and how people from other parts of the world can become U.S. citizens. Students are introduced to the experience of immigration through a sampling of several oral history accounts. Students analyze the causes of example conflicts according to the interplay of needs, resources and beliefs. The class reviews a timeline for an overview of key issues and conflicts in U.S. immigration history.

During the second week, the unit focuses on conflicts related to immigration from Japan and from Mexico. Students analyze and compare the 1930s mass deportation of Mexican Americans with the 1940s incarceration of Japanese Americans. These deeper investigations suggest approaches for students' individual research

During the third and final week, one session is devoted to responding to works of art that express social comment on immigration issues. Three days are spent on student presentations of their position paper. Finally, students engage in a role-playing simulation based on an editorial board meeting of a media organization, bringing their understanding of immigration history to current conflicts. They evaluate two to three opinion articles on immigration issues to make decisions on which to publish. The simulation is designed to introduce students to complexities of presenting a balance of opinions, and criteria for reasoned positions supported by evidence and accuracy.

The unit wraps up with reflections on the meeting simulation, and on their learning experiences.

Assessing Student Achievement

This multi-step unit presents numerous opportunities to assess student knowledge, understanding, and skills.

- Oral history interview: summary log with a transcribed excerpt
- End of unit paper and presentation that synthesizes learning from three-week study
- Written analysis of opinion articles and recommendations on whether to publish them
- Discussion and small group presentations during the editorial meeting simulation
- One to two page written reflection on what was done in the first two weeks of the unit
- One to two page written reflection on the editorial board meeting
- End of unit writing assignment that assesses and reflects on learning during the three week study

The teacher must decide what he or she wishes to emphasize in terms of content and process, and assign and assess accordingly.

Notes about This Unit

This unit is designed to be taught over a three week period, though teachers are encouraged to make whatever adjustments best fit their situations. We assume that the sequence is being taught toward the end of the school year, when students are pulling together skills and content they have learned throughout the year. The unit can easily be expanded if required skills or content must first be taught or reviewed. It can also be shortened to best serve the needs of the class.

This unit sets goals for both skills and content. It may not be possible to give full attention to all of the items on the following list, but after successfully completing the requirements of the unit, students should have the ability to:

- Read a variety of materials for understanding
- Identify points of view and bias in a variety of texts
- Situate past and current events within a historical context
- Develop and carry out a research plan
- Listen to the views, arguments, and ideas of others in an open and thoughtful manner
- Explore how conflicts arise from needs, beliefs and resources
- Prepare for and conduct an oral history interview
- Use oral history interviews as primary sources
- Demonstrate knowledge of several key events in the history of immigration to the U.S.
- Explore how migrant workers have organized around labor conditions
- Look at social impact of legislation on migrant worker and immigration policies
- Interpret social commentary as expressed in selected works of art
- Examine how racism is manifested in anti-immigrant attitudes
- Write a position paper, using evidence, logic, and reason to support that position
- Analyze opinion articles for their reasoning, evidence, and context given for the issue
- Investigate the enduring and evolving nature of the illegal immigrant/undocumented worker population of the U.S.

Share the Learning

Learning is a dialogue—please talk back! We request that you send us your comments using this Teacher Talk Back page. Or you may fill out this form online at www.densho.org/learning. Your input is essential for evaluating and revising these materials.

Densho is interested in receiving copies of student work produced through this unit. Please consider sending students' written reflections done at the end of the unit, or even digital photos of students' display boards. We will occasionally feature student work in our newsletter.

Teach Talk Back

Please send or e-mail to Densho at: info@densho.org
Address: 1416 south Jackson Street
Seattle, WA 98144-2023

I assessed student learning through this unit by:

I believe the most significant student learning through this unit was:

Students showed their engagement with the material in class discussions by:

The parts of the unit I used were:

The parts of the unit I did not use were:

Your comments on the format of the unit:

Your suggestions for revision of the unit:

Lesson Overview:

The unit begins with students writing about their opinions on U.S. immigration restrictions, and working with a partner to develop screening questions for potential immigrants. A whole class discussion leads into larger immigration issues.

Materials:

Handout #1—Who Gets In?

Terms:

Immigration—the act of moving to another country to settle ('in migration')

Emigration—the act of leaving one's country or residence to live in another country ('out migration')

Naturalization—granting of citizenship to someone who was born in another country

First generation American—generally the first generation within a family to be born in the U.S., or the children of immigrants. Among some communities, refers to the generation who moved to the U.S., the immigrants themselves.

Second generation—children of first generation Americans, generally grandchildren of immigrants. Among some communities, children of immigrants.

Work visa—government document that allows a foreign person into the country to work for a specified period of time

SESSION 1. INTRODUCING THE UNIT

Guiding Question: Who gets to become an American?

Essential Understanding: Americans struggle over how to define an immigration policy that limits the numbers and establishes criteria for admitting new citizens.

Teacher Activities:

1. Begin with a free write, giving students 10-15 minutes to respond to the following questions on who is an American, and how someone can become an American. For purposes of this discussion, 'Americans' refers to the U.S. rather than to North America or the Americas. Prompt them as follows:

Who are Americans, and what makes someone an American? Is everyone living in the U.S. an American? If not, who isn't an American? Is there such a thing as a 'real' American? Are some people in the U.S. more American than others?

2. Before taking comments, distribute **Handout #1—Who Gets In?**, for students to note down their initial attitudes towards restrictions on immigration.

Students talk over their answers on Handout #1 in pairs, and with this partner, generate a list of questions to be used to screen potential immigrants.

3. Ask student pairs to report on their admission questions to the whole class. Were any questions common among many students? Were there major concerns that the students' questions were designed to screen for? [It is not acceptable to exclude people on the basis of race or national origin, although it happened in the past.] What criteria are acceptable?
4. Introduce the unit: We are about to embark on a unit of study on conflicts that have come up over immigration policy throughout our history. What are some of the controversies? Who are some of the groups involved in this debate [stakeholders]? What are the enduring and underlying issues that continue to keep immigration issues unresolved?

Lead an initial discussion on immigration issues, and with the class, generate a list of points of conflict on the board. Prompt students as needed to end up with a list something like the words in bold below, and to identify questions they may have.

A Few Quotations on becoming and being American:

From the 19th century poem “The New Colossus,” that appears on a plaque at the base of the Statue of Liberty. It ends with the statue herself speaking:

“Give me your tired, your poor,
Your huddled masses yearning to
breathe free,
The wretched refuse of your teeming
shore.
Send these, the homeless, tempest-
tossed, to me.
I lift my lamp beside the golden
door.”

--Emma Lazarus

“Every immigrant who comes here
should be required within five years
to learn English or leave the country.”

--Attributed to Theodore
Roosevelt (1858-1919)

"You know that being an American is
more than a matter of where your
parents came from. It is a belief that
all men are created free and equal
and that everyone deserves an even
break."

--Harry S. Truman

“To the huddled masses—
Keep yearnin’.”

--Jon Stewart

- **Jobs:** Many Americans fear that fewer jobs and resources are available for our growing and increasingly diverse population.
- **Wages:** Some businesses are lobbying heavily to keep their low income workers, legal and illegal.
- **National security:** There are concerns about people who may intend to harm U.S. citizens and the U.S. government.
- **Borders:** Concern over securing the borders has led to construction of sections of fencing between the U.S. and Mexico. Self appointed militias stand guard at borders, weapons in hand, attempting to stop illegal immigrants.
- **Education and services:** Schools, educational institutions, and social service organizations are struggling to serve increased numbers of recent immigrants, with the additional pressure of high stakes testing.
- **Families:** Immigrant families are affected by political debate over proposals for reform that could either reunite or keep them apart.

5. Teacher wrap-up:

We are going to look at immigration during these next three weeks, to understand how it has taken place in the United States throughout its history, and what is happening now. We will look at the big picture, and also at individual stories, remembering that immigrants are individuals, couples, and families, moving for what they hope will be a better life. Moving to another country is not easy, and immigrants coming to the United States have rarely found what they expected upon their arrival. As we examine immigration as an issue we will be paying particular attention to points of conflict, looking to understand the underlying issues that lead to conflict. We'll look for some of the trigger events that set things in motion, the ways that those conflicts played out, and the longer term consequences of those conflicts.

SESSION 2. HOW AND WHY DO PEOPLE IMMIGRATE?

Overview: Students take a short test made up of questions from the U.S. citizenship test. The teacher gives a summary of restrictions on immigration in U.S. history.

Materials:

Handout #2—U.S. Citizenship Test

Terms:

Naturalized citizen

Illegal immigrant

Illegal alien

Undocumented worker

Temporary foreign worker

Guest worker

Government agencies:

Former: INS-- Immigration and Naturalization Services

Current: ICE--Immigration and Customs Enforcement

Guiding questions:

Why do people immigrate?

Why have they come to the United States?

What are some of the restrictions on immigration in U.S. history, and how does an immigrant become a U.S. citizen? What are different categories and terms for immigrants?

Essential Understandings:

Immigration means leaving one country to move to another country.

People immigrate for a variety of reasons. Sometimes they are pushed, or forced from their homes, due to factors such as war, discrimination, disease, or economic failures. Sometimes they are pulled towards a new home, with the promise of joining family, of economic prosperity, of increased educational or career opportunity, or increased freedom.

Restrictions on immigration have varied in history, according to the American public's concepts of changes or problems that large immigrant groups might bring to the United States, and according to the perceived needs of the community at the time. The U.S. defines essential knowledge for becoming a U.S. citizen through a citizenship test.

Terms for different categories of immigrants can describe attitudes towards them as well as their legal status.

Teacher Activities:

1. Remind students of the previous day's discussion. In the colonies, immigration was not restricted by law but depended on the ability of people to pay for their passage, with the exception of enslaved Africans.

In 1875, the first restriction was passed, disallowing convicts. Potential immigrants have been required to show that they have a way to support themselves or are not likely to become a 'public charge' needing government services. Beginning in the late 19th century, immigration was restricted to people who were not infected with 'loathsome or contagious' diseases such as tuberculosis. At various times in history, immigrants had to be able to pass an English literacy test. In the early 20th century, immigrants' political views had to be acceptable, when anarchists were barred from entry.

In U.S. history, there have been restrictions on immigration that limit or exclude people according to their race or national origin. These restrictions began in 1882 with the Chinese Exclusion Act, and were changed in 1965, when equal quotas were established according to national origin. The class will look at those restrictions more closely in Session 5.

Concepts to introduce as appropriate:

Push/pull theory of immigration:
An older theory for explaining immigration in terms of decisions made by individuals, determined by negative factors in their native country that 'push' them out (such as civil war, lack of economic opportunities, lack of political or religious freedom), and/or positive factors that attract or 'pull' them to another country (such as economic opportunities, stability, political freedom).

Labor market theory of immigration:
A more recent model for explaining immigration in terms of differences in economic conditions between the native country and the new country, with a general movement from countries with labor market of surplus labor and low wages, to countries with a demand for labor and higher wages.

2. Once potential immigrants are admitted entry to the U.S., there is a process for becoming a citizen that takes several years. Let students know they will be taking a citizenship test—part of the actual test that immigrants must pass after living in the U.S. for several years, in order to become U.S. citizens—and distribute **Handout #2—U.S. Citizenship Test**. Students will discover as they take the test that some of the questions are in Spanish, as a taste of the experience that many immigrants have of taking this test in English.

3. Discussion: Given these questions, what has the US government determined that prospective immigrants should know about the U.S.? What kind of knowledge is considered essential? What matters most for becoming an American citizen?

Let students know that the citizenship test has been undergoing revision, with the new test beginning in October 2008.

4. Pull out for a broader look at the reasons for immigration:
What is immigration? What are common reasons that people move from one place to another? Broadly speaking, people may be forced or choose to move away from a place because of bad conditions, or they may be encouraged or lured to move to a place for a better situation. The most common reasons for immigration may be known as the American dream. Jobs, economic opportunities, political stability, and freedoms are all part of the pull. War, disease, racial, gender, religious, or political discrimination, economic failures, limited opportunities are all a part of the push. Looking globally at immigration, movement of peoples tends to be from countries with lower wages and standards of living to those with higher wages.

5. What are classifications of immigrant and foreign resident in the U.S.?

- those who have become citizens,
- those who are in the US via various legal designations, such as temporary student or work visas,
- those who have come to work illegally,
- those who have come legally for a period of time, then overstayed illegally.

Review terms for types of immigrants and foreign residents of the U.S. Do some of them have a similar meaning but different connotation?

- Naturalized citizen
- Illegal immigrant
- Illegal alien
- Undocumented worker
- Temporary foreign worker
- Guest worker

6. Keep a look out in the media for ways that some of these terms are used. We'll look at examples in a later session.

Overview:

Students discuss various purposes of oral history. They read (or view) excerpts from several interviews of immigrants to the U.S., identify common themes, and compare the accounts.

As an alternative, students read the accounts and write answers to the discussion questions as homework.

Materials Needed:

Handout #3: Oral History Excerpts from Immigrants (students will need to refer to Handout #3 again during the next session)
OR project the excerpts from their on-line sources.

Handout #4-- Oral History Interview Assignment
Handout #5—Student Guide to Conducting Oral History Interviews

Terms:

Oral history
Works Progress Administration,
Federal Writers Project
Angel Island
detention
contract laborer
'papers'
sponsor

"In 1855, John Little, a fugitive slave who had escaped to Canada, uttered this perceptive commentary upon attempts to convey the realities of the existence that he had fled: *"Tisn't he who has stood and looked on, that can tell you what slavery is-- 'tis he who has endured."*

SESSION 3. PERSONAL ACCOUNTS OF IMMIGRATION

Guiding Questions:

What are some common themes among immigrants' personal histories, and what are some differences?

How can first-person accounts be used as part of studying history? What do they add and in what ways must we be cautious in how we use them?

Essential Understandings: Individuals and families experience an enormous transition and adjustment in moving to another country. Their adjustment varies depending partly on how different their new home is from their culture and nation of origin, the circumstances of their move, and how they are received in their new community.

Personal accounts are valuable when evaluated among other oral histories and other sources on the topic, and according to their circumstances.

Teacher Activities:

1. Introduce oral history:
What is oral history? How is oral history used? Have you seen documentaries that included oral histories?

Our knowledge of a historical time period is often limited to major events, and the doings of political leaders. Sometimes we don't have sources from the common people, or a way to investigate everyday experiences or feelings of individuals. An oral history interview is an opportunity to get an individual's perspective of a historical event. This perspective may or may not be typical of a person from his or her time and culture. Because of the subjective nature of an oral history interview, no one account should be regarded as definitive. It should not be used as a substitute for other primary sources. However, the oral testimony can help illuminate a historical period.

In addition, our understanding of history is often based primarily on records left by people who were in power. How can understanding of a historical conflict be informed by those who did not leave official records, or who could not or did not write, or whose effects were destroyed? Sometimes a collection of oral histories can be useful in these situations.

2. Share excerpts from oral history accounts of immigration with the class. Teachers can select from the ones provided here, or substitute others. Introduce each excerpt before reading or viewing:

--Mrs. Ruth Chinn, 1938 interview done through the Federal Writers Project, relating an account of several Seattle Chinese American boys who were sent to university in China. What evidence do you see in the account of this interview of the attitude of the writer who conducted it?

The Federal Writers Project and Oral History:

A well-known and extensive oral history project was conducted during the Great Depression of the 1930s, through the Federal Writers Project, a program of the Works Progress Administration that was designed to create jobs during a time of massive unemployment.

One of the many projects undertaken by the writers employed through the program was to interview people who had experienced slavery as children, and who were elderly by the 1930s. Writers gathered over 2,300 accounts of slavery from 17 states from 1936-38.

These accounts must be used carefully by historians, as some of the people being interviewed may not have felt they could express themselves freely. However, with consideration given to circumstances of the interviews and time period, they provide an important body of work.

--Henry McGee, 1998 interview about his experience in being detained upon entry to the U.S. from China in 1940. This interview from the Angel Island website focuses on his experience in being detained there while he waited to be questioned about his background, to prove himself to be an immigrant—not a Chinese man already living in the U.S. illegally.

--Roy Matsumoto, 2003 interview excerpt of a family immigration account beginning in 1888. By Densho: The Japanese American Legacy Project. This excerpt covers the time period before incarceration. View on the CD or at <http://www.densho.org/learning/CivilLiberties>.

--Armando Gonzalez, from an exhibition at the Yakima Valley Museum, write-up of a recent interview with a young Mexican American man who immigrated to the Yakima Valley in 1988 at the age of 20.

--Tina Duong, interview about her family's immigration from Vietnam that began in 1975. From the Ellis Island website page *Immigration: Their Stories*.

3. Compare the accounts to discuss their content:
 - What reasons did they give for wanting to come to the U.S.?
 - What kind of transition was involved in each story?
 - How did they get work after arriving? Applied for jobs? Arranged in advance? Was one kind of work done right away, and another kind of work done later?
 - Did they become part of a community with others from their native country; did they work with others from their community?
 - Did the family stay together or split up? Is there evidence of changes from one generation of a family to the next?
4. Compare the accounts to discuss their format:
 - What is the narrator's relationship to the events under discussion?
 - What stake might the narrator have in presenting a particular version of events?
 - How has the narrator structured the interview? What does this tell us about the way the narrator thinks about his/her experience?
 - What background, interests, and attitudes does the interviewer bring to the topic of the interview? How might this affect the interview?
 - Has the interviewer/transcriber had respect for the account as a primary source?
 - Does it appear that care has been taken to preserve the original wording, even if there seems to be a goof or grammatical error? Are there any clues of possible bias of the interviewer?
5. Give students copies of **Handout #4—Oral History Interview Assignment**, and accompanying **Handout #5—Student Guide to Conducting Oral History Interviews**.

Lesson extension option for classroom teachers: Searching for Oral History Sources

Students need to find primary resources for their position paper that may include oral history sources. Aside from the oral history interview they conduct themselves, how might they identify another oral history source that would be relevant to their paper? (Note that many large oral history projects do not offer online access to materials)

Look at the following sites, the sources of excerpts in Handout #3, to compare their organization and search mechanisms. For example, revisiting one of the topics such as citizenship tests, undocumented workers or Vietnamese refugees, try out a couple of searches on the different sites. How is their organization different? How do they allow for searches by topic (or do they)? What features are especially valuable?

Lesson extension option for classroom teachers: Practice Oral History Interview in the Classroom

Before students conduct their own oral history interview, they practice by interviewing each other. Then a practice interview can be done with a guest to the classroom who is an immigrant. This guest could be a school employee, parent of a student, or community member. Use the Student Guide for guidelines on preparing questions and conducting the interview.

Follow-up Class Discussion: How did the practice interview go?

How did you establish rapport?

Did your procedure go smoothly?

Did you get the essential material you needed?

How did you reframe questions that didn't get the response you were looking for?

Which follow-up questions worked well?

Is there anything you would do differently next time?

Overview:

The lesson begins with a discussion of the nature of conflict and way of analyzing causes of conflict according to needs, resources, and beliefs. Look at conflicts from immigrants' accounts to apply this type of analysis. The teacher introduces the graphic organizer to use while drafting the position paper.

Materials needed:

Overhead or blackboard
Handout #6-- Student Notes on Causes of Conflict
Handout #7-- Assignment: Causes of Conflict Position Paper and Presentation (includes graphic organizer, checklist and rubric)

Terms:

Interpersonal conflict
Social conflict
Trigger events
Escalation
Resolution
Stakeholders

Resources:

Notes on more causes of conflict
<http://www.geocities.com/Athens/Forum/1650/htmlcausesofconflict.html>

SESSION 4. CAUSES OF CONFLICT

Guiding Question: How do peoples' needs, resources, beliefs and other factors contribute to conflict over immigration?

Essential Understanding: Conflict arises when people believe that their disagreements over needs, resources and beliefs cannot be resolved, and instead work to undermine the others in order to gain advantage. Conflicts escalate through miscommunication and polarization between stakeholders.

Teacher and Student Activities:

1. Introduce the topic of conflict.

This unit is focused on immigration, but it is also focused on understanding conflict; what it is, what causes it, and how to most effectively deal with it on an individual, group, and larger level. Today we will begin to look at conflict in our personal, daily lives, and then move toward understanding conflict on a larger scale.

Conflict: what is it, why does it happen?

--Is conflict always physical? If not, does it necessarily involve people shouting at one another?

--What about conflict that is on a larger social scale, beyond the interpersonal? What are ways it can be manifested, for instance between groups of people with different beliefs?

--What are underlying causes or trigger events that can spark conflict?

Ask students to begin by taking a moment to recall a couple of conflicts you have been involved in or felt the impact of, in two different areas of your life—perhaps at school and home, with family and friends. You don't need to share anything about it, just note it down for yourself to keep in mind during the discussion.

2. Introduce a way of analyzing conflict.

A simple definition of conflict refers to a prolonged battle, struggle, or profound disagreement between people, organizations, or nations. It occurs when the groups involved view their goals as incompatible, and seek to undermine the other rather than work toward resolution. Conflict is more than a short term disagreement, and has more underlying causes and deeper reasons than may be apparent from the outside.

William Kreidler, who wrote on conflict in the school classrooms, noted that conflict occurs because of disagreements over three basic elements: **resources, beliefs, and needs**. It can be remarkable how smaller interpersonal conflicts and large-scale social conflicts resemble one another, and we'll try looking at how resources, beliefs and needs contributed to several conflicts.

Resources:

A conflict over resources arises from scarcity, when there is not enough to meet the needs (or perceived needs) of the people involved. Questions for resource issues include: where do the resources come from and who has decided how many there should be; how is resource distribution or usage determined; what history is there with regard to the particular resource in question (who has had access to it in the past); what agreements have been made; who should decide about resource use, and on what basis should they decide?

Needs:

Who defines whether something is a need or a want, and who determines whether my need is greater than your need? How often do we say we need something, when what we mean is we want it? Most would agree that people need food, water, clothing, shelter, health, a way of providing for themselves and their families. Yet there are also cultural, community, and other needs.

Beliefs:

Beliefs are more complicated still because they don't always correspond to anything visible or negotiable. Beliefs are different than reason; they are deeper, tend to have an emotional component to them, and are perceived to be more central to how people understand their being in the world.

3. Discuss individually the elements of resources, needs and beliefs (as on the sidebar). For each, come up with a couple of political and social conflicts, historical or contemporary, such as:

4. Over **Resources**: (water use, oil drilling, taxes?)

Over **Needs**: (health care? National security?)

Over **Beliefs** or values: (racist discrimination? Polygamy?)

Do any of the conflicts that came up represent a combination of causes? Do any of them represent a conflict tied to only one of those elements?

Break students into small groups to talk over one or more conflicts related to immigration. Look back at the oral history excerpts to identify a conflict. Using **Handout #6—Student Notes on Causes of Conflict**, students come up with a statement of the conflict, and jot down some thoughts about how needs, resources and beliefs were part of this conflict. Who do they think were likely the stakeholders? (In this unit, the term “stakeholders” replaces the word “sides.”) There are usually more than two stakeholders, and more than two perspectives.

5. Give students the major assignment for this unit, **Handout #7-- Assignment: Causes of Conflict Position Paper and Presentation**. Students will give their presentations during Sessions 13-15.

Overview:

Explore a timeline of immigration history, to gain an overview of key events and conflicts. As a group, trace some of the strands related to needs, resources, and beliefs.

Materials needed:

Internet access and projector, OR
Student access to computers, OR
work from the printed handout,
Handout #8--Immigration Timeline.

Reading assignment for Session 6:
Handout#9—Immigration from
Mexico to the Pacific NW
Handout #10—Labor Issues among
Mexican Workers in the U.S.

Terms:

Mexican American War
Burlingame Treaty
Chinese Exclusion Act
Spanish American War
Quota Act
Bracero Program

Resources:

More websites with timelines of
immigration to the U.S. (post links on
class web page, if available):

Library of Congress:
<http://memory.loc.gov/learn/features/immig/timeline.html>

Asian American Immigration
Timeline:
<http://modelminority.com/modules.php?name=News&file=article&sid=70>

PBS immigration timeline:
<http://www.pbs.org/itvs/thecity/america1.html>

SESSION 5. IMMIGRATION TIMELINE

Guiding Question: What are some key conflicts in the history of immigration to the U.S.?

Essential Understanding: The history of U.S. immigration is tied to both international and national events. This history represents an ongoing negotiation between a growing economy's need for workers, the determination of people from other countries to find new opportunities in the U.S., and concerns over social changes immigrants might bring.

Teacher Activities:

1. Project a page from this timeline, to introduce the history of immigration to the U.S. (As an alternative, work from **Handout #8—Immigration Timeline** that lists key events.)The timeline is on the University of North Carolina website,
<http://www.unc.edu/~perreira/198timeline.html#The%20Colonial%20Era>
2. Share some broader context while viewing. You may want to think of this history as a door that is periodically opened wider and closed tighter for different groups of potential new immigrants.

Early on, most immigrants came from northern Europe. Between 1820 and 1880, large waves of Irish and German Catholics came to the U.S. Some Americans believed that these new immigrants did not fit in, and began to seek restrictions on immigration.

In 1882, Congress passed the Chinese Exclusion Act to bar all entry of Chinese immigrants into the U.S. In the late 19th century and early 20th century, this desire to restrict immigration was also directed towards people from Southern Europe and Eastern Europe, who were not considered as worthy of citizenship as northern Europeans. And in the late 19th, and 20th and 21st centuries, discrimination and violence have been directed towards immigrants from Latin America, Asia, and the Middle East.

3. Focus in on terms from the sidebar, and events according to your interests. Ask for students' prior knowledge, and share basic information. On this first look into each conflict, would students characterize them as caused by needs, resources, beliefs, or a combination?
4. If time allows, look at one of the other timelines listed on the left. Conclude by asking students to identify any issues they see come up over and over again during different time periods.
5. Distribute readings for the next session, **Handouts #9—Immigrations from Mexico to the Pacific Northwest**, and **#10—Labor Issues Among Mexican Workers in the U.S.**

Overview:

After a brief introduction to the Mexican border, the class listens to an audio feature on border crossing procedures for Mexican workers in the early 20th century. Based on their assigned readings and viewing an audio slideshow, students discuss the continuing conflict over Mexican labor in the U.S. and immigration.

Materials Needed:

Internet access with digital projector and speakers;

OR print copies of these two features:
The Bath Riots: Indignities along the Mexican Border, from National Public Radio

<http://www.npr.org/templates/story/story.php?storyID=5176177>

And *100 Years of In the Back Door, Out the Front* from New York Times
http://www.nytimes.com/2006/05/21/weekinreview/21bernstein.html?_r=1&oref=slogin

Students' copies of Handouts #9 and #10 with their notes

Terms:

Mexican American War (1848)
Mexican Revolution (1910)
Tejanos and californianos
Bracero
Chicano
United Farm Workers
Carmelita Torres
Cesar Chavez
Minimum wage standards
Boycott
Union contract

SESSION 6. FOCUS ON THE HISTORY OF IMMIGRATION FROM MEXICO

Guiding question:

Why is conflict over Mexican immigration and labor so persistent?

Essential Understanding: Growers and businesses depend on Mexican labor, yet their work in the U.S. often does not qualify them for citizenship.

The U.S. has taken actions that have had a negative impact on the Mexican economy, which has caused Mexican workers to seek employment in the U.S.

Teacher Activities:

1. Introduce the second week of the unit: we will take a more in-depth look at immigration history of two communities, Japanese American and Mexican American. Ask students what they know about how the U.S./Mexico border was determined, and why it has been (and still is) a site of conflict.
2. Introduce some history of the border region between the U.S. and Mexico:

The borders of a nation have an impact on how it is related to its region and the rest of the world, and sometimes on which populations are likely to be immigrating to the country. The U.S.-Mexican border is the longest border in the world between a developed country (or 'first world' nation) and a developing country (or 'third world' nation), with such a dramatic contrast in living standards on either side. Travelers, workers and potential immigrants moving from Mexico to the U.S.A. have often received different treatment than people entering the U.S. from other points.

After the Mexican-American War and the change in the border, the result was an increase in the size of the U.S. by about a third. As a result, many citizens of Mexico found afterwards that they were now living in the southwestern U.S.A. The larger border region has since been a site of some confusion and conflict.

Mexican people who were living in this large new region of the U.S. had a choice of U.S. or Mexican citizenship. Those who chose U.S. citizenship soon found that the law was not extended to them equally, and they were being treated like foreigners. In many cases, their rights to own land and their property were lost. Many of these people, such as the *tejanos* (living in Texas), had lived in the area for generations longer than the Americans.

During and after the Mexican Revolution (1910), the number of Mexican people seeking refuge and work in the U.S. increased substantially. During

Recommendation for sharing the audio feature:

Project the webpage for the class to view while listening to the story. When the audio begins, minimize the media player window to view the feature page with the photos and text summary. While listening, enlarge the photo of a crowd of Mexican men, and then the photo of Juan Burciaga.

Additional Resources:

<http://memory.loc.gov/learn/features/mig/mexican.html> Library of Congress sequence on the story of Mexican immigration history

<http://www.pbs.org/kpbs/theborder/history/timeline/17.html> PBS timeline of Mexican immigration and labor

http://www.pbs.org/kera/usmexicanwar/index_flash.html "U.S. Mexican War 1846-1848." PBS educational website.

"Many Truths Constitute the Past: The Legacy of the U.S. Mexican War." U.S. Mexican War, 1846-1848. David Weber, http://www.pbs.org/kera/usmexicanwar/aftermath/many_truths.html

"The Border in History" Virtual Festival. United States-Mexico Borderlands/La Frontera. [Olivia Cadaval](http://www.oliviacadaval.com). [www](http://www.oliviacadaval.com).

Columbia River Basin Ethnic History Archive. Oral histories of Mexican Americans in the Pacific Northwest can be viewed on this website. [www](http://www.crbah.org).

American Harvest, White Hot Films 2008. Nonpartisan documentary examines immigration and your kitchen table www.americanharvestmovie.com

WWI in the U.S., a big drop in immigration from Europe created a demand for labor in the U.S., and Mexican laborers helped to meet this demand.

3. Introduce a public radio feature on early 20th century daily border crossing procedures for Mexicans working in the U.S., and discuss it as a class.

Listen to the following story from National Public Radio, *The Bath Riots: Indignity Along the Mexican Border* (by John Burnett, length of 9 min. 6 sec.) Or, read the print version.

<http://www.npr.org/templates/story/story.php?storyID=5176177>

Afterwards, discuss the following questions as a class:

- What was the focus of the 1917 article in the El Paso newspaper that reported this event?
- What do the oral histories add to the newspaper account?
- Why do you think the Mexican border crossing was treated so differently from every other point of entry to the U.S.?

4. Introduce an audio slide show on the alternating pulling in and pushing out of Mexican workers. During times of recession in the U.S., Mexican and Mexican Americans in the region were driven out or deported on a large scale, including those who were U.S. citizens.

View "Borders, Open and Closed" (by Nina Bernstein, New York Times; May 21, 2006, length of 3'30"). Or, read the print article.

http://www.nytimes.com/packages/khtml/2006/05/21/weekinreview/20060521_BERN_FEATURE.html

5. Discuss the following questions, based on both the slideshow and the readings in Handouts #9 and #10:

--Why is there continually a need for more migrant laborers from Mexico?
--Why were some American workers involved in pushing out Mexican workers? Did they want the jobs that Mexican workers had been doing?
--What purpose did the bracero program serve? Why were bracero workers not able to request better pay or better working conditions?
--Why were braceros tied to one employer? What was the concern over allowing them to leave an employer and take another job?
--Is the basic idea of a program for temporary foreign workers (also known as guest workers) a good one? If so, is it possible to structure the program to eliminate the abuses of the bracero program?
--How did migrant farmworkers begin to make demands after the conclusion of the bracero program? What are some of the reasons it is difficult for farmworkers to organize for better conditions?

6. Wrap up the session by asking students for their comments on the concluding quote from the slide show by Marcelo Suarez-Orozco: "We can't have it both ways—an economy that's addicted to immigrant labor on the one hand, but that's not ready to pay the cost."

SESSION 7. FOCUS ON EARLY HISTORY OF IMMIGRATION FROM JAPAN

Overview:

Students read, view and discuss historical background and oral history excerpts on immigration from Japan. They discuss factors that shaped conflicts experienced by Japanese Americans, and conclude by comparing them to the experiences of immigrants from Mexico.

Materials Needed:

CD or internet access and digital projector (OR, work from the handouts only).

Handout #11-- Historical Overview of Japanese Immigration to the U.S.

Handout #12—Oral History Excerpts, Japanese American Accounts of Immigration

To Assign:

Handout #13—Historical Overview of Japanese American Incarceration

Handout#14—Excerpts from Interviews on Japanese American Incarceration

Terms:

Contract labor system
Illegal alien

Guiding Question:

What factors contributed to conflicts in the Japanese American immigration experience?

Essential Understanding:

Labor issues, racist attitudes of other Americans, relations with the Japanese government, and legal immigration for women were significant in shaping the Japanese American immigration experience.

Teacher Activities:

1. Let students know that over the next couple of days, they will be making some comparisons between conflicts related to immigration from Mexico and immigration from Japan. Begin by dividing students into small groups to read through **Handout #11—Historical Overview of Japanese Immigration to the U.S.**, and discuss the questions at the end, making notes on their handouts.

--What labor needs in the U.S. and Hawaii first brought Japanese immigrants? (Remember that Hawaii was not a state until much later.)

--Why was it difficult for Japanese workers to organize for better conditions? How were their rights restricted?

--How did the situation for Japanese immigrants change as a result of objections from Japan? Why was treatment of Japanese immigrants important to the Japanese government? In negotiation between the Japan and U.S., why was the opportunity for Japanese women to immigrate important to the Japanese government?

2. View two video oral history clips of Shigeki Uno and Harvey Watanabe, interviewed by Densho. Video is provided on the accompanying CD or at <http://www.densho.org/learning/CivilLiberties>.

In these excerpts, the narrators discuss immigration experiences that were prior to incarceration, which will be the topic for Session 8. The interviews were conducted for Densho: The Japanese American Legacy Project and all of the interviewers were Japanese American. The students received the transcripts of these excerpts as **Handout #12** during the previous session. In between viewing, students can make notes on the discussion questions on the last page.

3. Remaining in their small groups, students discuss the oral history excerpts, and note down their group's thoughts on these questions:

--What do these accounts add to understanding of basic events on the timeline?

Resources:

Asian Pacific Americans and
Immigration Law

<http://academic.udayton.edu/race/02rights/immigr05.htm>

Library of Congress, Japanese
American immigration (includes
material on the incarceration):
<http://lcweb2.loc.gov/learn/features/immig/japanese.html>

--What kind of conflicts do they refer to?

--How did these immigrants enter the U.S.? For those who entered illegally, why do you think they did so? Did either of them mention consequences for having done so?

--What was the family situation for each immigrant, and how was it affected by their move?

--As part of the lengthy transition of immigration, there is a decision to move to the U.S., and often after some years and some hardships, there comes the decision of whether to stay in the U.S. or return. One account mentions that many *issei* had to consider whether to return or stay. Why did so many consider returning, and how did this person (Mr Harvey Watanabe) describe their decision to stay?

4. Conclude by asking for some preliminary comparisons between the Mexican American and Japanese American experiences they have heard and read about so far.

--What were similarities in the working opportunities and situations that initially attracted these immigrants to the U.S.?

--What were similarities and differences in the ways that these different immigrant groups entered the U.S.?

--What was the impact of these differences: the intervention of the Japanese government, the geographic proximity of Mexico, the exclusion on immigration of Japanese men

5. Distribute the next reading assignments, **Handout #13—Historical Overview of Japanese American Incarceration** and **Handout#14—Excerpts from Interviews on Japanese American Incarceration.**

SESSION 8. FOCUS ON JAPANESE AMERICAN INCARCERATION

Overview:

Students read background and view oral history excerpts on Japanese American incarceration, and analyze the causes of this conflict as needs, resources and/or beliefs. In discussion, and using the graphic organizer for the position paper, students identify instances where [mis]communication escalated the conflict, or made steps towards resolution.

Materials Needed:

CD or internet access and digital projector (or print handouts only)

Students' copies of :

- Handout #6—Student Notes on Causes of Conflict
- Handout #13—Conflict and the Japanese American Experience: A Focus on Incarceration
- Handout #14—Excerpts from Interviews on Japanese American Incarceration

Terms:

Executive Order 9066
Habeas corpus
General John DeWitt
Korematsu v. United States
Redress
Reparations
Enemy alien

Guiding Question:

What combination of disagreement over needs, resources and beliefs led to the incarceration of Japanese Americans?

Essential Understanding:

Claim of a military necessity (need) can be a disguise for a belief.

A person or group that considers a belief they hold as a need for themselves and others might use it as a justification for conflict.

Teacher and Student Activities:

1. Introduce the topic of incarceration as hostility towards foreigners misdirected towards Japanese Americans.

We have looked at a variety of transitions experienced by immigrants; although a move to another country is always a major undertaking, some transitions are especially lengthy and filled with conflict. The transition is partly adjustment made by the immigrant, and partly adjustment that the new community makes to accommodate them. Some transitions are made primarily within a single generation, by the immigrants themselves. While their American children need to negotiate the differences between their lives at home and their lives in the larger society, the drastic change of immigration does not impede this next generation. For some immigrants who suffered a trauma, the transition and healing can take a couple of generations. For other immigrants, the transition can drag on over several generations because the society continues to view them, their children and descendants as unworthy foreigners.

Probably the most severe example of a community of American citizens being mistaken for enemies is the incarceration of Japanese Americans during World War II.

2. Students need blank copies of Handout #6 to use for notes on the causes of incarceration. They make notes on this graphic organizer by marking sections of the Overview reading that refer to needs, resources and beliefs as contributing factors. They also look for instances of communication that escalated or partly resolved the conflict. For each factor, identify whether they are historical, economic or both. How might they be stated, focused, or broken down for statement on the organizer? Indicate the sources. At this point, students are noting down factors—a position statement will come tomorrow.
3. Next, students view the oral history excerpts as a class. Show the video oral history clips of Frank Fujii and Kara Kondo, interviewed by Densho.

Video is provided on the accompanying CD or at <http://www.densho.org/learning/CivilLiberties>.

The students received the transcripts of these excerpts during the previous session. Both narrators were removed from their homes in Washington State and sent to a remote incarceration camp with their families. The interviews were conducted for Densho: The Japanese American Legacy Project and all of the interviewers were Japanese American.

4. Take some initial comments from students on what they have heard in the oral histories. How could Japanese Americans have been mistaken for the enemy? What new sense of the conflict did they gain? What sense of the long aftermath of incarceration did they gain? Next students add further notes to their graphic organizers, based on what they heard.
5. Debrief as a class to analyze the conflict of incarceration, referring to the graphic organizer (preferably on an overhead).
 - What was the claim of "need" for incarceration? What did General DeWitt mean by "military necessity?"
 - Why did other Americans accept this false claim of need? Where was the proof? Why wasn't proof required?
 - What beliefs contributed to incarceration?
 - Did a disagreement over resources contribute to the conflict?
 - How would you explain the danger of a belief being mistaken for a need?
 - What (mis)communication at the time escalated the conflict?
 - What form of communication afterwards sought to take a step towards resolution?

Overview:

Teacher reviews the conflict paper and presentation assignment, and the class analysis of factors leading to Japanese American incarceration. Teacher guides the class in working up an example position statement on the most significant contributing factor. Students in small groups read through material on deportations of Mexican Americans, and note their analysis of this conflict on the same graphic organizer. Groups share their position statements on deportation with the class. In a full class discussion, compare incarceration with mass deportation.

Materials needed:

Student notes on Handout #6--
Causes of Conflict graphic organizer.

Student notes and handouts on
Japanese American Incarceration

Handout #15—Mass Deportation of
Mexican Americans

Handout #16—Primary Source
Material on 1930s Mass Deportation

Internet access and projector, or
computer access for students

SESSION 9. COMPARING DEPORTATION AND INCARCERATION--WORKING WITH POSITION STATEMENTS AND CONFLICT ANALYSIS

Guiding Question: What were the most significant contributing factors to the wartime incarceration of Japanese Americans, and to the Depression era mass deportations of Mexican Americans? How do these two conflicts compare?

Essential Understanding: During the Great Depression and WWII, the American public believed that they could better protect themselves and their interests by excluding other Americans they identified as foreigners.

Teacher Activities:

1. Refer to the previous session's notes on the graphic organizer (**Handout #6**) on the causes of Japanese American incarceration. Is there any agreement among students on which factor is most significant? Write in example position statements given by students, and request feedback and revisions of the wording from other students. Work together to craft two different position statements.
2. Distribute **Handout #15—Mass Deportation of Mexican Americans** and **Handout #16—Primary Source Material on 1930s Mass Deportation**. Students work in small groups for readings and discussion on mass deportations of Mexican Americans, and note their analysis of that conflict on a new copy of the graphic organizer. This time, small groups also work together on a position statement on the conflict.
3. Reconvene as a class for small group reporting out, to share their position statement. How much agreement was there between groups? Discuss any differences of opinion by referring to supporting evidence.
4. How would students compare the two conflicts? Work through the full list of contributing factors for each.

Are these episodes something that just arise during times of extreme stress, such as the Depression and WWII? And if so, how do you explain Operation Wetback during the 1950s? Are either of these two conflicts continuing in some form? Thinking about their causes, how might people have organized to prevent them? What early warning signs might you be alert for today to head off a similar conflict?

Overview:

Students listen to an audio feature on a dangerous border crossing, then discuss current controversies over illegal immigration. Reading a summary from a research report provides a baseline of information prior to evaluation of editorials.

Materials needed:

Internet access, speakers, and projector.

Handout #17: Excerpt from *Immigration: The Demographic and Economic Facts* (Cato Institute)

To assign:

Handout #18—Assignment for Editorial Board Meeting Simulation (includes reference material, organizer & rubric)

Handout #19—Opinion Articles for Editorial Board Meeting

Terms:

Coyote
Free trade
Amnesty
Public coffers
Net flows
Displacement
Purchasing power

Additional Resources:

Powerpoint including video clips from oral histories, on Mexican American issues in Washington state. ***Raza Si! Chicano/a Activism in Washington State.*** From the website of the Seattle Civil Rights and Labor History Project, University of Washington.
http://depts.washington.edu/civilr2/slides/chicano/chicanomovement_files/frame.htm

SESSION 10. AN UPDATE--CONFLICT OVER ILLEGAL IMMIGRATION

Guiding Question:

What are some of the historic and new elements of the current conflict over illegal immigration?

Essential Understandings:

Labor issues, competition over resources, and fear of social change continue to fuel the immigration debate. The perception of national security needs since 9/11 has changed enforcement practices and discussion of border security issues.

Teacher Activities:

1. Begin the session by listening as a class to a National Public Radio feature by Scott Carrier: *Crossing the Border from Mexico to the U.S., Part 1.* (9 mins.) August 25, 2004. The reporter accompanies a group of Mexican people who make the dangerous on crossing in the Arizona desert.

<http://www.npr.org/templates/story/story.php?storyId=3870941>

2. Introduce the topic of current political debate over immigration and illegal immigration to the class.

In recent years, issues of illegal immigration have become more heated, especially since 9/11, now that immigrants and foreign people coming into the U.S. are seen as even more potentially dangerous. A lot of discussion has centered on how to secure the U.S. borders, and how to discourage illegal immigration. On the other hand, large demonstrations such as the 2006 marches for immigrants' rights in Seattle and Yakima, have pushed for establishing a path to citizenship for illegal immigrants, for assistance in uniting families, and for supporting rights and protections for workers. Ask students what elements of these debates they have heard or read about.

3. Discuss the following questions. Make notes of some of the student responses to refer to again while concluding the class (especially on reasons for concern about immigration and illegal immigration).
 - For what reasons do you think many Americans are concerned about entry to the U.S., immigration numbers, and illegal immigration?
 - What are some of the strategies you have heard about for preventing and reducing illegal immigration?
 - Are you familiar with various arguments for and against detaining undocumented people who attempt to enter the U.S.? How would you explain them?

“The rate of immigration relative to population size now is low rather than high. Immigration as a proportion of population is about a third of what it was in the peak years.”

“The foreign-born population of the United States is 8.5 percent of the total population (as of 1990). The proportions in the United States during the period from before 1850 to 1940 were higher--always above 13 percent during the entire period from 1860 to 1930--and the proportions since the 1940s were lower.”

“Immigrants, even those from countries that are much poorer and have lower average life expectancies than the United States, are healthier than U.S. natives of the same age and sex. New immigrants have better records with respect to infant mortality and health than do U.S. natives and immigrants who have been in the United States longer.”

“Immigrants do not cause native unemployment, even among low-paid or minority groups. ..The explanation is that new entrants not only take jobs, they make jobs. The jobs they create with their purchasing power, and with the new businesses which they start, are at least as numerous as the jobs which immigrants fill.”

“Illegal aliens contribute about as much to the public coffers in taxes as they receive in benefits. New data suggest that the undocumented pay about 46 percent as much in taxes as do natives, but use about 45 percent as much in services.”

http://www.cato.org/pubs/policy_report/pr-immig.html

Recall earlier class readings to add to the discussion:

- How are issues of Mexican American workers and Mexican temporary workers in the U.S. connected?
- What are the advantages and disadvantages of having a system of temporary foreign workers (or ‘guest workers’) in the U.S.?
- Have you heard arguments for or against establishing a new guest worker program to provide employers with an alternative to hiring undocumented workers? How would you explain the arguments?

4. Conclude by distributing the following reading:

Handout #17: “Summary of Important Facts about Immigration,”

excerpted from *Immigration: The Demographic and Economic Facts*, 1995, a report published by the Cato Institute and the National Immigration Forum. Julian L. Simon. http://www.cato.org/pubs/policy_report/pr-immig.html

This excerpt from a research report on immigration, conducted by an alliance of non-profit organizations led by the Cato Institute, will provide some background prior to the students’ evaluation of editorials. (Note that due to its date, 1995, students are not advised to use it for fact-checking of current figures, and the Cato Institute has a strong point of view.)

As time allows, look at each paragraph together to check for understanding, and see if there are any surprises. Does any of the information address points brought up during the discussion about public concerns over immigration?

5. Give students the assignment packet **Handout #18--Assignment for the Editorial Board Meeting Simulation** and **Handout #19--Opinion Articles for Editorial Board Meeting**. Students will work in seven small groups of about four students each for this exercise. Each of the groups will review opinion articles on a different immigration topic, and receives 3-4 articles on this topic.

Handout #19 provides a ‘starter set’ of topics and editorials. Teachers are free to use some or all of the pre-selected articles. Alternatives are to assign students to locate their own editorials, substitute a different topic for one of those given, or select some more recent editorials to replace those given here. Students need to read and make preliminary notes on their articles using the graphic organizer before their in-class meeting.

SESSION 11. ARTISTS' REPRESENTATIONS OF THE IMMIGRANT EXPERIENCE

Overview:

Discuss several paintings related to immigrant experiences by artists Roger Shimomura and Daniel de Siga.

Materials needed:

Internet access and projector.

<http://www.densho.org/learning/default.asp?path=shadow/Shadow.asp>

<http://www.chicanolatino.evergreen.edu>

Terms:

Mural painting

Mural movement

Campesino/campesina

Roger Shimomura

Narrative painting

Daniel DeSiga—Chicano painter in Washington state, whose murals are installed in central Washington and Seattle

Esteban Villa—well known Chicano muralist based in California (his name appears in one of DeSiga's paintings)

Resources:

Arte Latino, on the website of the Smithsonian American Art Museum

<http://americanartssi.edu/t2go/11a/index.html>

Murals by Chicano artists in Seattle:

http://depts.washington.edu/civilr/mecha_photos.htm#rosales

Guiding Question: How can works of art express identity and social commentary on the immigrant experience?

Essential Understanding: Narrative painting, use of iconic imagery, and visual symbols of identity are some of the ways that artists have expressed their interpretations of immigrant experience.

Teacher and Student Activities:

1. Introduce art as a cultural expression:

Looking at oral history, we talked about how a person's life history can be a source for interpreting history. Today we'll look at several works of art to talk about how they can also—in a different way—provide a 'way in' to understanding history. As with oral history accounts, works of art require careful interpretation. And, as with oral history accounts, they can provide an expressive insight and illumination into the experience of another person or another time.

We will look at several paintings by Japanese American artist Roger Shimomura, and paintings by Mexican American muralists such as Daniel De Siga and others. It is vital to keep in mind that artists have an entire world of inspiration to draw from—not all Japanese American artists' work depicts Japanese American experience, and Mexican American artists are just as likely to work in digital art as to paint murals. The paintings we will look at today, however, were chosen for the social and cultural insight they provide into immigration experience, in addition to their artistic excellence.

2. Introduce the paintings of Roger Shimomura with a few words about how some Americans are often perceived as foreigners because of their appearance, even though their family may have lived in this country for several generations. Many Asian Americans are asked repeatedly where they are from or what language they speak. Too many Mexican Americans are assumed to be "illegals," even if their family has lived in the U.S. for many generations. The incarceration of Japanese Americans was an example of confusion and discrimination on a massive scale, directed against Americans who were mistakenly thought of as aliens. Shimomura turns these mistaken perceptions on their head in his artwork, by including some elements of Japanese woodblock prints in his work.
3. Project the multimedia presentation on paintings by artist Roger Shimomura, "In the Shadow of My Country," from the website of Densho: The Japanese American Legacy project.
<http://www.densho.org/learning/default.asp?path=shadow/Shadow.asp>
p The presentation begins and ends with two short excerpts of video

Explore more artwork at:

Artwork created by Japanese American artists while incarcerated can be viewed online at the website of the **Japanese American National Museum** (www.janm.org), such as:

Paintings done at camp by artist Hisako Hibe

http://www.janm.org/collections/online/hisako_hibi_collection

Paintings done at camp by artist Henry Sugimoto

http://www.janm.org/collections/online/henry_sugimoto_collection

More paintings by Roger Shimomura can be viewed by searching the Collections area on the website of the **Smithsonian Museum of American Art**,
<http://americanart.si.edu>

Also available is work by artist Kenjiro Nomura, who immigrated from Japan to Seattle:

<http://americanart.si.edu/collections/exhibits/t2go/1sa/index-noframe.html?/collections/exhibits/t2go/1sa/1964.1.36.html>

commentary by the artist, with images of nine paintings connected to quotations from his grandmother's diary. **Recommendation for viewing:** Have different students read aloud the text for each of the slides of the paintings. Each painting has a window that slides open for another perspective. Focus on the paintings for this viewing without the windows, and suggest that students return to the presentation later to explore further.

4. After a student reads the text for each painting, pause for comments before the next slide. For the first painting, call attention to the partially open sliding door as a reminder of Japanese prints—Shimomura's grandmother, although now American, was still perceived from the outside (outside the door in the painting) as Japanese.

For other paintings, ask students what they see in each painting.

--Why do they think the artist used some of this imagery, of superheroes, or picturesque views with guard towers superimposed?

--How does the artist's sense of irony come through in the images? In the text from his grandmother's diary that accompanies them?

--Why is this work considered narrative painting?

5. Transition to looking at mural painting, a major part of the Chicano movement—large-scale and public artistic expressions in a format that was used by famous Mexican artist Diego Rivera, as well as by Aztec artists centuries ago. Begin at the page for the Evergreen State College Library Archive, Chicano and Latino Artists in the Pacific Northwest.
<http://chicanolatino.evergreen.edu/>

Select View by Artists, then Daniel DeSiga, then Artworks, to view paintings 1-11 in the slide show. Begin conversation about each work by asking students what they see. Discuss with the class:

- In paintings of farmworkers, such as the first one, what is the feeling created by the painting? How does the artist emphasize the heat?
 - What is the perspective, or where are you looking from? What feeling does that viewpoint give the painting?
 - How would you describe the field and sky?
 - Why do you think so many paintings depict a single worker?
 - How does the artist use color? How does he use pattern?
 - We might often think of farmworkers as common or undistinguished people. Why do you think the artist shows the farmworker as a kind of heroic figure, or iconic figure?
 - The slogan on the poster "Educate—Si Se Puede," means 'it can be done,' the famous cry of the farmworkers led by Cesar Chavez.
 - How does the artist combine ancient Mexican imagery with Chicano and contemporary imagery?
6. Summarize and compare the use of narrative painting, iconic imagery, and visual symbols by the artists.

SESSION 12: EDITORIAL BOARD MEETINGS—SMALL GROUP WORK

Overview:

Small groups simulate an editorial board meeting considering publication of 3-4 op-ed articles. Students take turns at the part of the op-ed writer attending the meeting to answer questions. Comments and recommendations on each article are recorded on the graphic organizer.

Optional planning for a 16th session:

Students in their small groups plan to report out to the full class on their issue and their decisions.

Materials:

Students need their editorial packets, with prepared notes on the opinion pieces they will consider for publication.

Terms:

Editorial board
Op-ed

Resources:

Seven editorial packets:

Group 1: Are immigrants an economic threat & competition for jobs?

Group 2: Border Security—Will a fence do the job?

Group 3: Are immigrants a threat to American culture & cohesive society?

Group 4: Should undocumented residents benefit from education and public services?

Group 5: What rights are due to undocumented residents in detention?

Group 6: How can we best legislate for immigration reform?

Group 7: How much of a problem is illegal immigration?

Guiding Question: How can opinion articles be evaluated according to how well they make their case?

Essential Understanding: Decisions on publishing opinion articles can be made on the basis of their reasoning, evidence, framing of the issue, and their use of language.

Teacher and Student Activities:

1. Review with students the contents and organization of a newspaper editorial and opinion section. Ask them to explain what these features are: the newspaper's own editorials, syndicated columnists, op-ed pieces, and letters to the editor. How do they think the newspapers' editors decide what to print? 'Op-ed' is the page devoted to individual opinion writing; the term derives from "opposite the editorials," its placement within the newspaper.
2. Students gather in their small groups for their editorial board meetings, to consider publishing pieces that have been submitted to them as op-ed pieces. These small groups discuss their notes on each opinion article from the graphic organizer, evaluating it according to its reasoning, evidence, use of language and framing of the issue.
3. Each small group (board) considers one op-ed piece at a time, and students take turns at taking the part of the op-ed writer meeting with the editorial board. Editors share their initial notes about the article, and ask any questions of its writer. The editorial board discusses whether or not to publish the piece, and notes their recommendations and their reasons on the handout. Moving on to consider the next article, another student takes the part of the writer. During this class period, the small groups need to make a decision on all 3-4 of the op-eds that have been submitted to them.
4. Optional: Planning for Session 16. Next, students in their small groups plan how they will present their decisions to the full class during Session 16. A spokesperson for each group will brief the class on the issue. Another spokesperson will report on which articles/editorials their media organization has decided to publish/present, and why.

Overview:

Begin presentations on the historical and economic background on a significant event or population in the history of immigration to the U.S. Wrap-up discussion and written reflections will happen during Session 15.

Materials:

For Session 15:

Handout #20—Reflection on Causes of Conflict Presentations

SESSION 13-15. STUDENT PRESENTATIONS

Teacher and Student Activities:

1. Begin sharing the five-minute student presentations. We suggest having two or three groups so that the presentations can be completed in two days. It does mean that you will not see all of the presentations, which is one of the reasons students will also be required to turn in a written report.
2. Leave time at the end of Session 15 to distribute the exercise for students' written reflections in **Handouts #20—Reflection on Causes of Conflict Presentation**. Take any comments that students would like to share on their learning.

Now that they are well versed in these issues and the workings of editorial boards, they may wish to write a letter to the editor themselves!

Overview:

A spokesperson for each group will brief the class on the issue. Another spokesperson will report on which articles/editorials their media organization has decided to publish/present, and why.

Materials needed:

Students completed Graphic Organizers for Editorial Board Meeting, and copies of the opinion articles they reviewed.

SESSION 16. SMALL GROUP DISCUSSION: EDITORIAL BOARD MEETINGS**Teacher and Student Activities:**

1. Small groups report out to the full class on their editorial board deliberations and decisions. A spokesperson for each group will brief the class on the issue. Another spokesperson will report on which articles/editorials their media organization has decided to publish/present, and why.
2. Conclude with a discussion on whether and how students' thinking on these issues changed during the course of the unit.

A FEW ADDITIONAL RESOURCES FOR TEACHERS:

Immigration Information and Articles

<http://www.personal.anderson.ucla.edu/elioisa.borah/filfaq.htm>

History of Filipino immigration.

<http://www.csuchico.edu/ncpaso/filipino.htm>

History of Filipinos in America

<http://www.mtholyoke.edu/acad/intrel/chinex.htm>

Text of Chinese exclusion act

<http://www.sfmuseum.net/hist1/index0.html#chinese>

Museum collection of articles on Chinese immigration

<http://memory.loc.gov/learn/educators/workshop/european/wimmlink.html>

American Memory writings about many different immigrant groups

<http://adminstaff.vassar.edu/sttaylor/FAMINE/index.html>

Articles and letters related to the famine in Ireland in the mid 19th century

Background essay on the economic cost and benefits of immigration, legal and illegal:

<http://www.cfr.org/content/publications/attachments/ImmigrationCSR26.pdf>

Japanese American history -- *Early Immigration*

Asian Pacific Americans and Immigration Law

<http://academic.udayton.edu/race/02rights/immigr05.htm>

Library of Congress, Japanese American immigration (includes material on the incarceration):

<http://lcweb2.loc.gov/learn/features/immig/japanese.html>

“Sites of Shame”: Overview of all the detention facilities with primary sources from Densho: The Japanese American Legacy Project:

<http://www.densho.org/sitesofshame>

“A More Perfect Union: Japanese Americans and the U.S. Constitution,” online exhibit from the Smithsonian Institution, National Museum of American History:

<http://americanhistory.si.edu/perfectunion>

“Dear Miss Breed: Letters from Camp,” online exhibit from the Japanese American National Museum:

<http://www.janm.org/exhibits/breed/title.htm>

Lesson plans for teaching about immigration

<http://www.yale.edu/ynhti/curriculum/units/1996/4/96.04.01.x.html#b>

Lesson plans on immigration with a focus on Mexican Americans and Puerto Rican Americans

<http://www.kqed.org/w/pacificlink/lessonplans/>

Angel Island immigration lesson plans and resources

<http://www.newtrier.k12.il.us/academics/social/ais/Baeb-Weiner/immigration.html>

Lesson plans and resources on immigration

Checklist of Student Activities

Below is a checklist that summarizes the student activities during the Immigration unit. You can use this checklist to help plan dates for the activities and to keep track of progress.

- ☐ In-class exercise for Session 1: **Handout #1--Who Gets In?** Date_____
- ☐ In-class exercise for Session 2: **Handout #2—U.S. Citizenship Test** Date_____
- ☐ Reading for Session 3: **Handout #3—Oral History Excerpts from Immigrants** Date_____
- ☐ Assignment Packet, **Handout #4—Oral History Interview Assignment** Date_____
- Handout #5, Student Guide to Conducting Oral History Interviews**
- ☐ In-class exercise for Session 4: **Handout #6—Student Notes on Causes of Conflict** Date_____
- ☐ Assignment Packet, **Handout #7—Conflict Position Paper and Presentation** Date_____
- Graphic Organizer for Conflict Analysis
- Student Checklist
- Position Paper Rubric
- ☐ Reference for Session 5: **Handout #8—Immigration Timeline: A Few Significant Events** Date_____
- ☐ Reading assignment for Session 6: **Handout #9—Immigration from Mexico to the Pacific Northwest** Date_____
- ☐ Reading assignment for Session 6: **Handout #10—Labor Issues among Mexican Workers in the U.S.** Date_____
- ☐ Reading and Discussion Questions as assignment or in-class for Session 7: **Handout #11—Historical Overview of Japanese Immigration to the U.S.** Date_____
- ☐ Reading assignment or in-class for Session 7: **Handout #12—Oral History Excerpts, Japanese American Accounts of Immigration** Date_____
- ☐ Identify topic & sources for Conflict paper, assignment due for Session 7. This assignment is explained in **Handout #4—Causes of Conflict Position Paper and Presentation** Date_____
- ☐ Reading as assignment or in-class for Session 8: **Handout #13—Historical Overview of Japanese American Incarceration** Date_____
- ☐ Reading as assignment or in-class for Session 8: **Handout #14—Excerpts from Interviews on Japanese American Incarceration** Date_____
- ☐ In-class reading for Session 9: **Handout #15—Mass Deportations of Mexican Americans and Mexican Workers in the U.S.** Date_____
- ☐ In-class reading for Session 9: **Handout #16—Primary Source Material on 1930s Mass Deportation** Date_____

☐ Reading, Handout #17—Excerpts from the report *Immigration: The Demographic and Economic Facts* (Cato Institute and the National Immigration Forum) Date_____

☐ Assignment Packet of homework for Session 12: **Handout #18—Editorial Board Meeting Simulation** Date_____

For Your Reference: On Editorial Boards
Graphic Organizer for the Editorial Board Meeting
Editorial Board Meeting Assessment

☐ Reading assignment for editorial board meeting participation, **Handout #19—Opinion Articles** Date _____

☐ Writing exercise, in-class or assigned during Session 15, **Handout #20—Reflection on Causes of Conflict Presentations** Date_____

Unit Overview and Activities Checklist for Students

Unit Overview

Through this unit of study, you will learn about and investigate historical and contemporary conflicts over immigration, based on the Washington State CBA Causes of Conflict. Immigration is currently a big topic in our national discourse, and most of the issues have long historical roots. Here we are investigating longstanding social and economic conflict, and sometimes also physical conflict, between peoples with different positions on immigration issues.

Although the majority of U.S. citizens are descended from immigrants and enslaved peoples of Africa, new immigrants are not always welcomed. Sometimes they are seen as competition by settled Americans, and sometimes as threats to the American way of life. There are tensions between Americans' concepts of our country as a nation built by immigrants, and perceptions of national security. There are tensions between Americans' obligation to be fair regardless of race and national origin, and discriminatory attitudes that have affected immigration policy and treatment of certain communities. And there is a long history of conflict between needs of workers to receive better wages and needs of employers to control costs--with immigrants coming in as the best source of low wage workers.

You will begin by exploring attitudes toward immigrants, and how people from other parts of the world can become U.S. citizens. You will then look as a class at a couple of conflicts to think about them according to differences of needs, resources and beliefs. Several primary sources for studying the immigration experience are discussed, with a focus on oral histories. Using a handout guide to conducting oral history interviews, you will also conduct an interview yourself. Your class will review a timeline of immigration history for an overview of key issues and conflicts, and students individually will choose an issue or conflict over immigration for your position paper. Three assignments will be given out to be completed during the unit: 1) a position paper and presentation analyzing a conflict related to immigration, that can range from a historic event to an ongoing struggle of a particular community; 2) an oral history interview with an immigrant; and 3) a small group simulation of an editorial board meeting.

During the second week, the unit focuses on conflicts related to immigration from Japan and from Mexico. These deeper investigations may suggest approaches for your own individual research topics.

During the third and final week, one session is devoted to responding to works of art that express social comment on immigration issues. The next three days are spent on individual presentations of your position papers. Finally, you will engage in a role-playing simulation based on an editorial board meeting of a media organization. In small groups, you will evaluate 2-3 editorials and opinion articles on immigration issues, and meet to make decisions on which to publish. The simulation will introduce the complexities of presenting a balance of opinions, and criteria for reasoned positions supported by evidence and accuracy.

The unit wraps up with written reflections on the meeting simulation, and on your learning experiences.

This unit sets goals for both skills and content. It may not be possible to give full attention to all of the items on the following list, but after successfully completing the requirements of the unit, you should have the ability to:

- Identify points of view and bias in a variety of texts and demonstrate an awareness of how both can affect the reading and the meaning of the texts
- Situate past and current events within a historical context
- Develop and carry out a research plan
- Listen to the views, arguments, and ideas of others in an open and thoughtful manner
- Explore how conflicts arise from needs, beliefs and resources

- Write a position paper, using evidence, logic, and reason to support that position
- Prepare for and conduct an oral history interview
- Use oral history interviews as primary sources
- Demonstrate knowledge of several key events in the history of immigration to the U.S.
- Explore how immigrants and migrant workers have organized around labor conditions
- Explore tensions between “settled” citizens and new immigrants
- Look at social impact of legislation on migrant worker and immigration policies
- Interpret social commentary as expressed in selected works of art
- Examine how racism is manifested in anti-immigrant attitudes
- Analyze opinion articles for their reasoning, evidence, and framing or context given for the issue
- Investigate the enduring and evolving nature of the illegal immigrant/undocumented worker population of the U.S.

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- Editorial Board Meeting Assessment
- ☐ Reading assignment for editorial board meeting participation, **Handout #19—Opinion Articles** Date_____
- ☐ Writing exercise, in-class or assigned during Session 15, **Handout #20—Reflection on Causes of Conflict Presentations** Date_____

Handout #1 – Who Gets In?

In U.S. history, government policy has changed over the years on who, how many, and how people can immigrate to the U.S.

Please answer the following questions individually first, then discuss your answers with a partner:

1. Should the U.S. continue to allow immigrants to come into this country? _____
2. If no, why not?

3. If yes, should immigration be open to anyone, or should there be restrictions on what kind of person can move to the U.S.? Should there be a limit on the number of immigrants admitted per year?

4. If we should not let just anyone in, who should we let in/who should we keep out?

5. What should immigrants know about the U.S. government, law and U.S. history? What else should they know?

Now work with a partner to discuss your responses.

Next, work with your partner to create a set of admissions questions for potential immigrants, and list them on the right.

Our Admission Questions for Potential Immigrants:

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

5. _____

6. _____

Handout #2 – U.S. Citizenship Test

1. What do the stripes on the flag mean?
2. How many changes or amendments are there to the Constitution?
3. How many representatives are there in Congress?
4. What are the duties of the Supreme Court?
5. Who becomes President of the United States if the President and the Vice-President should die?
6. Who is the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court?
7. Can you name the 13 original states?
8. Which countries were our enemies during World War II?
9. According to the Constitution, a person must meet certain requirements in order to be eligible to become President. Name one of these requirements.
10. Who was the main writer of the Declaration of Independence?
11. What is the basic belief of the Declaration of Independence?
12. Who wrote the Star-Spangled Banner?
13. Where does freedom of speech come from?
14. What Immigration and Naturalization Service form is used to apply to become a naturalized citizen?
15. What is the introduction to the Constitution called?
16. What is the most important right granted to U.S. citizens?
17. Name one right guaranteed by the first amendment.
18. How many times may a Congressman be re-elected?
19. ¿Quién es el funcionario de más alto rango en su gobierno local?
- 20. Según la Constitución, una persona debe de cumplir ciertos requisitos para ser elegible y llegar a ser presidente ¿Cuáles son?**

Handout #3-- Oral History Excerpts from Immigrants

ORAL HISTORY EXCERPT 1:

Federal Writer's Project:

STATE: WASHINGTON

DATE: December 21, 1938.

1. Mrs. Ruth Chinn, informant: 200-17th Avenue, Seattle, Washington.
2. Interview held at 2:00 P.M. Dec. 21, 1938
3. At the Chinese Recreational Center, 671 Weller Street
4. WPA Information Bureau, furnished name and address of Mrs. Chinn, making interview at the Chinese Recreation Center possible.
5. I went alone.
6. The Recreation Center is a vacant store building, now furnished with two ping pong tables and a broad wooden table, used as a desk by the Recreation attendants. This Center is located in the heart of Seattle's Chinatown.

FORM B: Personal History of informant.

STATE: WASHINGTON

SUBJECT: Chinese Folk Tales.

NAME AND ADDRESS OF INFORMANT: Mrs. Ruth Chinn; 200-17th Ave. So. Seattle, Wash.

1. Ancestry; Chinese.
2. She was born in Seattle. (Much of this information requested is not available, as Chinese are suspicious and fear a misuse of this personal information.)
5. Her education was completed in Ling Nan University, Canton, China. (No dates)
9. Mrs. Chinn is small; slim, young, and pretty, in spite of the Chinese characteristic wide and flattened nose.
10. No other points gained. Her modesty and fear of not telling a story well made getting any story at all almost impossible.

It was summer in Canton, China and very hot. So the American Born Chinese boys from Seattle changed to white linen suits and tropical clothing such as is worn in India and other hot countries. They had been sent to Ling Nan University to complete their education in the Chinese language and history. These boys were from wealthy or well to do families, their ages ranging from 14 to 10 years. Chinese boys from all over the world go to this University.

Professor Wong especially, didn't like the Seattle boys because they were mischievous and played practical jokes. Besides their manners were bad, they were frank and outspoken, they ate too much and spent money they should have saved, for extra meals and picture shows.

The true Chinese boys Professor Wong held up as an example were quiet and mild. They sat down thankfully to their meals in the mess hall that was poorly made up of loose boards and bamboo thatching, And were willing to leave the table half filled and hungry, without protest. The Seattle boys thought the food was stale and scantily portioned out. So after eating in the mess hall they would use their money to take a launch across the water to Canton. They would go to a hotel and get a good meal, of fresh and plentiful food.

Wing was the leader of a little group of three Seattle boys, and Wing liked to correct Professor Wong whenever his American-gained knowledge gave him a chance Making Professor Wong very angry and leading him to use his position of Professor in charge of Wing's dormitory to teach Wing and the other Seattle boys good manners and the value of money through strict discipline.

So Wing was no longer allowed to play his guitar with American harmony and sing American songs after 10 o'clock at night, when all lights had to be out and silence was compulsory. Professor Wing thought Chinese music that cannot be harmonized, much more seemly than the discordant noises Wing and his companions took such delight in. Then, to correct the boys of extravagance, he forced the Seattle boys to put all their money in the treasury-- and whenever they asked for their own money, they would only receive a dollar.

This wasn't enough, it cost 20 cents to cross the water to Canton in a launch, 20 cents a show and at least 60 cents for a meal. After 6 in the evening, the boys would have to hire a sampan to get back to the University and this cost much more than the motor launch, 60 or 80 cents.

The boys said, we pay for our education and should be able to lead our own lives, as we do in America. We must all work together to force Professor Wong to break away from his severe rules.

Then the Seattle boys would slip out of the dormitory and play their guitars and sing American songs under the Professor's window as he was trying to sleep. But this only made Wong more strict[.?] He gave Wing and his friends much extra work on studies the boys thought were very dry Tying them down even more.

In desperation, while the Professor was out of the dormitory, the boys took all his white linen out of the closet and spilled ink all over Then they put the suits back with a note saying."Try and find out who did this."

Professor Wong went to bed without noticing his clothing-- but the next morning none of his clothing was fit to wear.

Of course, Wong knew who had spoiled his clothing as the resentment of the Seattle boys against his rules was not hidden from him. And only the American chinese boys would have the courage necessary to attempt such a destructive trick.

Professor Wong called Wing and his two best friends in his office and gave them the choice of either buying a complete new outfit of clothing for him or being expelled. The boys decided to be expelled as they were all anxious to return to Seattle where there was good food and they could lead their own lives.

ORAL HISTORY EXCERPT 2:

From the Angel Island website:

<http://www.angel-island.com/hgee.html>

By Lydia Lum, copyright 1998

At age 17, Henry S.H. Gee immigrated in 1940 with a cousin to the United States. He was detained for more than a month at Angel Island. He and his father, who was waiting in San Francisco, went to Mississippi but later moved to Houston to join other relatives.

After returning from World War II naval service in 1946, Gee ran into "Number One" on a San Francisco street. The man had been detained at least four years and was finally released when war broke out. Now 74, Gee is a retired engineering supervisor in Houston.

"My cousin and I had spent at least a year practicing for the interrogation even before we left for America. My father had written a book of questions and answers for me. There were diagrams of our village, our house. It even had a drawing of my uncle's hand and description of his moles and marks."

"We studied about an hour a day. We studied on the ship (across the Pacific Ocean) and we kept studying once we got to Angel Island, too. I was nervous."

"The questions were tough. Not just how many people were in my family, but where do they sleep? What picture is hanging on which room of the house?"

"I met an older man in the barrack, he was in his 30s or 40s. He seemed well- educated and articulate but he had gotten stuck at Angel Island because he didn't have the right papers. We called him "Number One" because he knew the guards really well."

"All of us -- all we wanted was to stay in this country."

--- Henry S. H. Gee

Note on Angel Island: Many Chinese immigrants were detained for months for interrogation about their home in China. Immigration officials were concerned that Chinese who were already living in the U.S. without entry documentation would try to re-enter to become legal residents. Immigration officials asked many detailed questions, and would compare their answers to those of their family members, to try to verify whether they had come from China as they claimed.

ORAL HISTORY EXCERPT 3:

Densho Digital Archive

Densho Visual History Collection

Title: Roy H. Matsumoto Interview

Narrator: Roy H. Matsumoto

Interviewers: Alice Ito (primary), Tom Ikeda (secondary)

Location: Seattle, Washington

Date: December 17 & 18, 2003

Densho ID: denshovh-mroy-01

<Begin Segment 1>

Nisei male. Born May 1, 1913 in Laguna, California. Lived in Japan from childhood through teenage years, before returning to the United States during high school. Incarcerated in the Santa Anita Assembly Center, California, and the Jerome incarceration camp, Arkansas. Volunteered for the U.S. army in 1942, and was inducted in the Military Intelligence Service. Selected for a dangerous mission in Burma, becoming one of the famed Merrill's Marauders. Provided crucial intelligence information for the U.S. government after tapping into a Japanese army communications wire in Burma. Instrumental in a mission to hold Nhpum Ga hill in Burma, in which he shouted military orders in Japanese to confuse the attacking Japanese soldiers. Awarded the Legion of Merit from the U.S. military, and stationed in China and Japan after the war. Met future wife while working undercover in Japan. Inducted into the Ranger Hall of Fame in 1993.

Although Mr. Matsumoto does not identify himself as a Kibei (American-born person of Japanese ancestry sent to Japan for formal education and socialization when young and later returned to the U.S.), some of his life experiences are similar to those who do identify themselves as such.

AI: Alright, so today is December 17, 2003. We're here in Seattle at the Densho office with Mr. Roy Matsumoto. And I'm Alice Ito, and Tom Ikeda, also from Densho are interviewing, Dana Hoshide on videography. So thanks very much, Mr. Matsumoto. This is --

RM: *Doitashimashite.*

AI: Great to have you here. And we just want to start with your family background. And the first question I wanted to ask was your paternal grandfather's name, and where he came from in Japan.

RM: My grandfather's name was Wakamatsu Matsumoto and came from a place called Jigozen, right now it's the city of Hatsuokaichi, nearby the city of Hiroshima in Hiroshima-ken.

AI: And what, how did he make a living in Japan? What was his family doing at that time?

RM: Well, his family was half farmer and half fishermen. And right there is the lot of hilly places and not many arable place, so after crop is done, see, nothing else to do so they have to go to the inland sea, fishing to support themselves.

AI: And, excuse me, and what was your paternal grandmother's name?

RM: Haru Matsumoto, well, her maiden name was Motoyama, Motoyama clan, because the big family there.

AI: Well, you told us in our earlier discussion that your grandfather immigrated to Hawaii very early. And could you tell a little bit about why he went to Hawaii?

RM: Well, it so happened that my grandfather was the youngest son of the family. And I don't know how many the brother and sister that he had, but, only things that he do is help elder brother. Because in the Japanese custom, the elder brother inherit everything, including the debts, farm or house, everything. So the younger brother and sister, you see, they don't have anything. So naturally, in order to support themselves, have to find a job outside of family. And then, so happened at the time, the Japanese government solicit the contract laborer, going to Hawaii and work for pineapple field or sugar cane field to harvest sugar cane. And so my grandfather evidently applied for that.

AI: And I think you told us that he went to Hawaii about 1890?

RM: No, before that --

AI: No?

RM: -- I checked his... my nephew just sent me the book about my mother and other family members and mentioned that, that was 1888, so almost '90, but '87 or '8, I presume.

AI: And then --

RM: When he was about twenty years old. He married young and married my grandmother and went to Hawaii and, most likely Kauai first because my uncle was born there and says Kauai, that means probably sugar cane factory, I mean, the field in Hawaii.

AI: So, your, your grandfather and your grandmother both went to Hawaii?

RM: Hawaii, yes. Together.

AI: And, and your oldest uncle was born there in Kauai?

RM: Oldest uncle, and then also my auntie, too. Then, when my grandfather's contract was over he let his wife and his son and daughter go back to Japan. Then he, himself, came to Seattle, I understand. Then, then went down south to Southern California and start farming. Then, he know how to farm because his family was a farmer.

AI: Well, and so then, at some point he decided to call over your father --

RM: Uh-huh.

AI: -- from Japan?

RM: Yes.

ORAL HISTORY EXCERPT 4:

Immigration: Their Stories (from Ellis Island website)

My name is Tina Duong. I came from Vietnam. I had a big house in Vietnam, and my family lived together. My father, mother, brother and sister, we had a business. After 1975 my family immigrated my country to Malaysia by a small boat. When we were on the sea, we were very worried about the robber on the sea, but we were very lucky. After 48 hours, we arrived in Malaysia. We stayed in Kulalumpur for two days than they sent us to Bulaubidong Camp. In Bulaubidong we lived there while waiting for my brother to sponsor. We lived in the camp. We couldn't leave the camp to find fire wood, vegetables, or any food for the children because it was forbidden to go outside the camp. My husband went fishing for a small fish and we didn't have enough rice to cook. When the children were sick, we don't have medicine for them. After two years the person who sponsored us was my husband's brother. We left the camp to go to Philippines. We had to study English there for six months and then we went to the United States. When we first arrived, we had trouble because we didn't speak English very well. We weren't accustomed to the customs and way to life in the U.S. I couldn't use the oven, turn on the faucet, and shower, nor vacuum the flour because I wasn't encountered these things in my homeland. Eventually, I overcame the tough times and got to learn how things work with hard work and determination. My family and I succeeded in life. We now have a very happy family, a nice house and a successful business. My children are studying hard in school and are bound to be successful in the future.

-Tina

ORAL HISTORY EXCERPT 5:

Armando González

Born in San Juan Huastepc, Oaxaca, 1968

I came to the Valley in 1988. I like the weather here. First I worked in the fields and now I'm packing apples. Music wasn't my vocation. It was a necessity. In the beginning, I lived with 18 guys in a room. Only two of us were working and it wasn't enough to feed everyone. That's when Manuel González and David Morales arrived from Mexico. They are musicians, and I offered to find them instruments. I couldn't play an instrument in those days. They invited more guys and we formed a band. Now we have fourteen members. We all play brass and wind instruments. I learned to be the emcee and rep for the group.

We play classic songs that are good for parties. It is our dream to play professionally, but it has not been possible because some of the players do not have their papers; we haven't be able to make it happen because some of us have regular jobs and some work under the table. We haven't found a sponsor. So far it's been just a weekend thing. We have written a few of our own songs and would like to record them some day. The band is called "Banda La Palmera." We are all related. It's a family band; we all come from San Juan Huastepc.

The Yakima Valley has changed a lot since my arrival here. In those days you couldn't find a place that made tortillas; it was necessary to travel up to 30 miles to buy them. Now we can buy Mexican food everywhere. Some day I would like to return to San Juan to work in the palm frond industry. My parents are weavers, and their work with palm fronds has always been our bread and butter. They helped us grow up and now I would like to make their work easier by making the palm more accessible.

Discussion Questions:

How would you compare these accounts in terms of their content?

What do they tell you about transition in immigrant experiences? Do you get a sense of the length of time involved in making this transition?

What conflicts do the immigrants mention?

How would you compare the format of these interviews? Are they written up as interviews, directly as they were told? Do you consider all of them to be oral history?

Give the Densho interview another look to identify different kinds of questions asked by the interviewer. Find instances of summarizing, follow-up, introducing a new topic, and verification. What information did the interviewer bring in to the interview?

Handout#4 – Oral History Interview Assignment

For this assignment, you and a partner will interview an immigrant using oral history techniques. You will prepare a written summary of the interview to turn in, listing the topics that were discussed. You will also choose an important part of the interview to write up as closely as possible to how it was spoken—either by transcribing from a recording, or by writing it up from thorough notes.

The interview could be with a person you know well, such as a family member, neighbor, or friend who is an immigrant. Or, it could also be with a person working at your school (please allow your teacher to check first whether the person is willing), the parent of another student, or another community member.

The interview needs to cover the circumstances of the person's immigration: how they decided to come to the U.S., how they came, and how they made the transition to living in the U.S. Refer to the *Student Guide to Conducting Oral History* and read it carefully for complete guidelines on requesting an interview, preparing questions, and completing the follow-up.

Preparation: Be sure to ask for a few basic facts ahead of time: the date and point of entry to the U.S., and whether the person immigrated by themselves or with family members. Before the interview, continue your preparation by looking up immigration procedures at the time of their arrival. If possible, find another account of that time period, such as a relevant major news event or another immigrant oral history. You would be able to ask how they responded to the news event as a new resident of the U.S., or ask if they experienced a particular procedure as part of their immigration.

Planning your responsibilities: You and your partner need to clarify ahead of time how you will share the responsibilities. If you will record the interview, who will set it up? If you are taking notes, one of you can ask questions first while the other takes notes, and then switch roles. Is it agreed that either of you can ask a clarifying question or follow-up question, when needed?

After the interview: Write up your interview notes while they are fresh in your mind. A suggested method for dividing up the work with your partner is to each write a summary of half the interview, then exchange notes to add what you can to each other's work. Prepare an interview log, as described in the Student Guide, listing the topics that were discussed.

Select a short excerpt from the interview that is the most relevant to your research topic to write up carefully as a quotation. In your position paper, you might use the quote to "set the scene" on the immigration experience. Or perhaps you will quote an excerpt that is more specific to the conflict or the community discussed in your paper. You and your partner will each select a short excerpt to transcribe (if recorded), or to write up as thoroughly as you can in their words.

If you do not have an excerpt that is relevant to your paper, you can write one up just for this assignment. Then later, do some research to identify a quote from a published oral history account to use in your paper.

Handout #5—Student Guide to Conducting Oral History Interviews

Telling it Like it Was!

A Student Guide to Conducting
Oral History Interviews



D E N S H Ō

The Japanese American Legacy Project

Densho: The Japanese American Legacy Project

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Densho is a Japanese term meaning "to pass on to the next generation," or to leave a legacy. Our mission is to preserve the testimonies of Japanese Americans who were unjustly incarcerated during World War II. We collect and offer their stories in a manner that reflects our deep regard for who they are and what they endured.

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People as Primary Sources

Interviews all around

On a TV talk show, the host interviews a Hollywood guest who talks about her personal encounters in the past with fellow movie stars. Elsewhere, a university scholar interviews an elder to record stories and songs the elder learned as a boy from his grandfather. A foreign correspondent in Iraq interviews a soldier about the events of the previous day. Students in an elementary school classroom interview one another about their favorite foods. And a community volunteer interviews a neighbor about her memories of participating in the civil rights movement in their city.

Which of these interviews could be considered oral history? Is there something more you would need to know to be sure?

What is oral history?

Oral history is a method of historical research; the collecting of living people's accounts of their own past experiences that they consider to be historically significant, through systematic interviews.

While all of the examples above are of oral interviews (as opposed to an account that someone wrote down) and most of them have to do with the past, those criteria alone do not qualify them as oral history. The talk show guest is providing entertainment, and probably gossip! (It's not likely that the host will go on to interview the movie stars the guest mentioned, to compare their accounts for the historical record.) The scholar is researching folklore and oral traditions, which has some overlap with oral history, but is still different. The foreign correspondent conducts systematic interviews and seeks to verify the information using other sources (as do oral historians), but is not doing historical research—nor are the elementary school students.

Meanwhile, the community volunteer is not a scholar or a professional historian, but is engaged in oral history. She is one of a group of volunteers for the city's historical society who are conducting interviews and finding old articles from their city newspapers, as part of the development of an exhibition on the history of the local civil rights movement.

An oral history interview is conducted as part of a research project. It is conducted systematically and is documented with care, so that it is valuable as a primary source for study of an aspect of history. A person working on an oral history project will do more than just an interview—that person (or team of people) will usually plan a number of related interviews, compare the accounts, and check some of the information against other kinds of sources for verification. The project will involve analysis of the interviews, research on the historical context of their topic, and storage of the interviews for potential use by others.

History Gets Personal: Reasons for Oral History

Eyewitnesses to History—Oral historians have similar motivation to journalists in seeking eyewitness accounts of major world events, although in the case of oral history, these accounts are tempered by time and memory. An articulate eyewitness can offer a vivid account that probably is not captured in an official record—when did they realize the event was happening, what did they think it was at first, what did it look/smell/feel like, and how did they find out more about the full story? An oral history account can reveal what meaning the event has years later for the narrator—a meaning that depends upon present circumstances, the personality and background of the narrator, and the relationship between the narrator and interviewer.

‘History Belongs to the Victors’—Not if an oral historian can help it! This expression refers to history that reflects the perspective of powerful people, and the side that won a war. Sometimes an oral history project is undertaken to balance the historical record through inclusion of people considered less important, or not part of an official record. In extreme circumstances, records from one side in a conflict may have been destroyed.

Everyman and Everywoman Create a Collective History—We see another use of oral history in projects developed to collect accounts from ‘ordinary’ people who are not famous. Such a project might target, for example, a cross-section of the population of a particular location. These projects also counter histories based on powerful people’s records and official sources--the equivalent of a ‘man-on-the-street interview’ in journalism.

Varied perspectives— Some oral history projects examine the perspective of a particular group of people, perhaps a group that has been marginalized in the past. Quite a few projects have been done with various ethnic communities, groups of women, members of a particular profession, labor organizers, and civil rights activists.

How Could This Happen? Reflecting on Tragedy—Some tragic events in history are terrible on such a large scale that they are almost unfathomable. Years later, an oral history project can help air the voices of survivors and reflect on what happened. Oral history testimony can be critical in documenting a situation hidden or covered up at the time.

Think Locally—Some oral history projects are community efforts, and may focus on a relatively small groups or events that aren’t covered in the history books! A local historical society or community organization might take on such an effort for an exhibition or publication of a booklet. The anniversary of a school or other building might inspire a project, or conversely, a physical change in an area that involves dismantling a community landmark.

Planning a Project that Includes Oral History

For your study of a topic within living memory, you may want to conduct an oral history interview if:

- You are working on a family, school, or community history that doesn't have lots of published sources
- Your project will benefit from an individual's perspective to add a personal dimension to information from other sources
- You are working on a multimedia project that can incorporate audio or video commentary
- You are working with others to build a collection, such as oral histories from a defined group of people, or on a particular topic from many individuals

What are your goals?

Consider your purpose, how you envision your final product and what else you have to work with, to be clear about your goals for conducting oral history interviews. Your goals will affect how you prepare for an interview. For instance, if you are looking for an individual's responses to a historical event, you will need to familiarize yourself with the background on the event and sources that reported on it at the time. On the other hand, if you are collecting oral histories from a particular population, you will need to familiarize yourself with other interviews with members of that population, their common threads and variations.

How will you find the right person to interview?

Depending on your topic, you might call community organizations, search through local newspapers, or post notices in neighborhood locations. A good starting point would be to ask teachers and librarians at your school for recommendations of someone with personal knowledge of the topic you plan to research.

Protocol for Oral History Interviews

By following these simple standards of behavior while in contact with your narrator, you can communicate well, avoid misunderstandings, and respect their time and attention.

Making the Contact

When you contact someone to request an interview, begin by introducing yourself and explaining your purpose. Generally, you will explain that the information is for educational purposes, and not for any commercial use. Let them know how you got their name, or who referred you to them. On this first contact, you will determine whether this person is an appropriate source for your project; they may not be able to accommodate you, or may recommend someone else.

Introducing yourself—In addition to your name, tell the person your school or affiliation, whether you are working independently or as part of a team, and your interest in their experiences.

Explaining your purpose—In addition to your basic interview topic, explain the larger project. How will their interview fit into the full range of research? What will be the product? It will help them think over the topic if they understand the larger scope of your work.

Let them know what to expect—Let them know if anyone else will accompany you, how you will record or take notes, and what equipment you will bring. Confirm the time you expect to take. For many interview subjects, two hours would not fatigue them too much.

Do they need to prepare anything?—You can let the person know they don't need to write up notes to give you. Certainly let them know in advance if you have an interest in photos or artifacts, or communicate your interest if they offer to show you such objects. Be considerate, because you don't want the person to spend hours looking for something that won't be useful.

Permissions, Privacy and Rights Issues—Be sure to inform the person that you will bring personal information and release forms for their signature, and what they mean. Explain how others will have access to what they say.

Summarize the process for the person being interviewed—Explain what happens after the interview: what you will do with the information from the interview, how a person can correct a misunderstanding if necessary, where will the interview material be kept and in what format.

Ask for some basic preliminary information--The interview will be partly spontaneous, as you respond to what you hear from the narrator. However, you still need to do some careful preparation and plan your basic questions. When you schedule the interview, ask some basic questions about the person's experiences with your topic. You might determine some dates and places or incidents to be covered, so that you can fine-tune the basic research you have already done, and adjust your questions.

Preparing for an Interview

Make a decision about how to record the interview, and gather any equipment you may be using. What quality of recording do you need, for example, for online use or video production? In addition to some practice with the equipment, it's useful to practice interviewing as well.

Research

Do some preliminary research on your topic using published sources. You need to be familiar with the topic to prepare your questions, to have ideas about what further details to ask for during the interview, and to understand particular references the person makes.

Preparing Interview Questions

You will want to prepare a list of topics to be covered, or general questions to ask. But most of the questions you ask will be in response to something the narrator says.

Open-ended questions

Open-ended questions are best to introduce topics, and to get full answers instead of "yes" or "no" responses. Questions that begin with phrases such as "What was it like when . . ." or "Tell me about the time that . . ." allow the narrator freedom in constructing their own answer and emphasis.

Plan ahead for the first open-ended question you will ask, after you have covered preliminary biographical questions. You want this question to inspire a relatively long answer, and help the narrator get going. For important questions, you may need to rephrase it and ask it again, maybe even several times, to get as thorough an answer as you need.

For oral history interviews, it is important for judgments or emotional responses to come from the narrator and not from the interviewer. Although the interviewer will have some empathy, it is better not to ask questions such as "You must have been thrilled when that happened, weren't you?" The interviewer lets the narrator take the stage, refrains from putting words in their mouth, and does not show off their own knowledge.

Follow-up questions

Generally, most of the questions you ask will be follow-up questions in response to what you have heard.

If the narrator gives a short more factual account, the interviewer might respond by asking "What did you think when x happened. . ." or "What did it feel like when . . ." Frequently, someone will skip around while speaking rather than recount events in the order the interviewer believes is most logical. Some of the follow-up questions will be to back-track and fill in, or to confirm the order of a sequence.

At certain points, the interviewer will need to ask for clarification. Clarifying follow-up questions could be along the lines of "Now which brother was that?" or "So you didn't know what was happening until . . .?" or simply "Could you explain that in more detail?"

If the person mentions something that is no longer in use or not common knowledge, ask for a definition or description, even if you think you know. “Can you explain how that was used?” or “What did it look like?” might change your assumption or be important for someone else listening to the recording later.

The interviewer needs to ask as many follow-up questions as necessary to finish one topic before introducing the next.

A Surprise comes up! Now what?

Interviewers need to be flexible in exploring topics they didn’t anticipate, without losing sight of their purpose and original questions. It’s possible that some unexpected information will require some further research afterwards, or even some follow-up questions at a later date.

Decisions on recording the interview

Recording the interview is ideal when possible, in order to focus your attention on the narrator and be able to listen to exactly what they had to say as many times as you need. You will need an exterior microphone to get good sound quality for transcribing. Use your equipment ahead of time to become familiar with it.

Photography

It’s a good idea to take a couple of still photos of the narrator, especially in their own surroundings. Of course, videotaping the interview is ideal!

Asking about historical photos and artifacts

Depending on your topic, you may want to ask the narrator (when you arrange the interview) whether they have old photos or artifacts to share with you. Photos and family objects can contain many memories! It can be very useful to have some material like this, not only for you to view and photograph, but also to support the narrator’s account. It might be easier for the person to talk while they are looking at something from the past. However, it is best not to structure the interview around photos and objects, but to look at them later in the process. The commentary you get may be more fragmentary.

Preparing Forms

For most projects, two forms will be needed: a personal information form about the interview subject, and a release form.

A personal information form (or life history form) is a written record of the narrator’s basic information, including their name, address, telephone number, birthdate, and birthplace. The form might include family information, such as names, birth dates, and dates of death for parents, siblings, spouses, and children. Depending on the project, it could include a list of places the person lived, schools they attended, jobs they held, or relevant organizational affiliations.

A release form notifies the narrator how the interviews will be used, and makes it official to avoid misunderstandings. The narrator has to sign the form to grant their permission to the interviewer to use the information for the purposes they have specified. The interviewer also signs the form as a party to the

agreement. For a school project, the release form may need to be approved in advance, and parents/guardians may need to sign for the student.

Plan What to Do with Your Oral History Material Afterwards

The oral history interview you conduct will become a part of your own larger project, but may be useful in the future for someone else's research on a related topic. Consider whether you will plan for preservation of your interview and the accompanying information in its original form, independent of the project you apply it to. The interview may be of lasting value, for instance, if your class has organized to compile a collection, if it was with a significant individual, or is on a topic that is not well documented.

Oral history accounts are sometimes preserved by historical societies, libraries, or archives. You may want to approach your school library or your town's historical society to see whether the class's collection of interviews would be significant to them. If so, you will need to prepare a well-documented and organized collection of the original source materials, and consider in what form they can best be preserved. Maybe you will build a website to create online access to the collection of interviews, but depending on their significance, you might still need to think about storage of the originals.

At the Interview

Allow for some time to set up for the interview. Be sure to test the equipment when you arrive, and have it set up so that you don't have to worry about it during the interview. You want to focus on your narrator, and not be distracted by fiddling with equipment.

Recording the interview

Be sure to record in a quiet place, with doors closed and a sign on the other side of the doors saying "Quiet please—Recording in Progress!" . Listen for a moment to see if there is anything you need to do to minimize sounds in the background. You need to be aware of ambient sound, and keep from tapping your pencil or pushing your chair in and out.

Review with the narrator the basic information you gave them earlier about your purpose, and what access others could have to the material.

Label and number recordings as you go along. And, just in case a label or notes go missing, begin each recording with a statement of your names, the date and the place of the interview.

Begin the interview with simpler questions, to establish basic biographical information. You will want to establish some comfort with the interview process before asking more probing or difficult questions. When it is time to conclude, wrap up with some lighter talk to give the narrator a chance to make their way back to the present, or to adjust from an intense memory that they may not normally talk about.

Give affirmation to your narrator, but without speaking too much more than necessary—lots of nodding and smiling won't interfere with listening later on. You will not be happy afterwards, while listening and transcribing the interview, if you hear yourself interrupting the person or saying 'uh huh' every other minute.

The Art of Listening

While interviewing, it is critical to be an active listener, to support the narrator in telling their story and encourage them to say more. Be sure to keep eye contact, and not fiddle with your equipment and notebook too much. Ask for details when you need to, and remember that it's important to demonstrate your interest in what they have to say. Take cues from the narrator—do they need to think for a minute to decide how to answer? Is o, be patient, and wait—it is not a problem to have a bit of silence on a recording, but it might be counterproductive to intrude on their thought process. Do they respond well to a series of questions asking for further details—or not need a lot of prompting? Are they getting tired?

After the Interview

Field Notes

Make some field notes right away, before details fade from your memory, such as information that did not appear on the personal information form. Note down your observations that will be useful for understanding the interview later on. Is there anything that wouldn't be clear from the tape itself, for instance, to explain something the person was looking at during an audio recording?

Organizing the Interview Material

Label and file everything in a way that someone else could understand. Make copies of digital files, tapes, or original notes if the interview was not recorded. Store the originals separately and work from copies.

When you listen to the recorded interviews, keep a running list of the topics covered using the time counter to create an index or log. You can use the index later to zero in on a single excerpt or quote, or perhaps to decide which portions of the interview to transcribe.

Loaned Material

If the narrator has loaned you any clippings or photos, copy them immediately and return the originals.

Follow-up with the Narrator

Send a thank-you note and a copy of the interview for their personal use. According to your plan, you might also send a copy of your transcription after it is prepared, for their review.

Transcribing an Interview

"We stayed up alllllll night long (groan)."

OR

"We stayed up all night long!!"

When the voice and intonation of an interview are left out, to transcribe the words onto a printed page, some of the meaning goes too. In transcribing an interview, it is necessary to record carefully what was said, without correcting the person's speech or leaving out errors that they correct themselves. The point of a transcription is to be a faithful version of that primary source.

Analyzing and Interpreting Oral History: A Few Basic Points

Our human nature is to tell about our experiences as narratives, for instance, to structure our account with a beginning, middle and end. We might include details or mentally connect episodes that make it work better as a story, or even turn the people involved into heroes and villains.

When viewing or listening to a recorded interview, or when reading a transcript of an interview, keep in mind that the account is one person's interpretation of events. The reader or researcher needs to analyze the account for its point of view, just as with written sources, while also allowing for the workings or lapses of memory.

In addition, the interview is an event with its own context—the account will be affected by the relationship between the interviewer and the narrator, the frame of mind of the narrator that day, and the environment of the interview.

An analysis of a single interview will take all these factors into consideration. The interviewer, and often a reader of an interview, often will have done the research already to have a basic understanding of the historical context for the content of the interview. However, there may be details or new information in an interview that would need looking up to complete an analysis.

Critical Reading of an interview

A critical analysis of a source is a part of historical method that considers the content of a source in terms of its context. Rather than taking statements in a source as truth, a critical reading is a process of inquiry into the background and point of view that shaped these statements. (A critical reading is not a matter of criticizing the narrator!)

For an oral history interview, it is especially important to think through the following points of context that would affect what the narrator chose to say.*

- Who is the narrator, and why might they have a particular point of view on their subject?
- Who is the interviewer, and what kind of relationship is there between narrator and interviewer?
- How did the narrator structure their account, and what does this say about their point of view?
- What was the purpose of the interview?
- What were the circumstances of the interview?

Identifying common themes

When working with a collection of oral histories, a comparison of accounts becomes part of the process. A researcher might compare excerpts from various accounts dealing with one place, or event or date. In addition, a reader/researcher might identify certain themes that reoccur in different accounts and make a comparison along those lines. Sometimes online archives of oral history interviews are set up to be able to search according to themes.

Building a composite story of a shared experience

Often an oral historian will compare interviews to construct a fuller account of an event or situation. These comparisons are not just for verification, but to find different emphases and points of focus to draw from.

One interview can be used for different purposes by different researchers

One reason oral historians pay attention to storage of the original materials is that others may use them for a different research project. For instance, one person going through the Densho archive of accounts of Japanese American incarceration might focus on education that children received while in the camps, while someone else might focus on relationships between men and women.

*The set of questions is adapted from Linda Shopes, "Making Sense of Oral History," *History Matters*.

<http://historymatters.gmu.edu/mse/oral/>

Sample Forms:

A Planning Checklist

Person to be interviewed: _____

Location: _____

Appointment Date and Time: _____

Contact Info: _____

- ☐ Appointment confirmed

Equipment and materials needed:

- ☐ microphone with extra batteries
- ☐ extension cord
- ☐ recording device/computer
- ☐ camera with extra batteries
- ☐ notebook and pencil
- ☐ prepared questions
- ☐ other: _____
- ☐ Narrator Information Form
- ☐ Release Form

Follow up:

- ☐ thank you note sent
- ☐ working copy made of original digital file or written notes
- ☐ submission and confirmation, if needed, of written transcript
- ☐ storage and cataloging of materials, as appropriate

Sharing the Info:

- ☐ copy of the interview sent to narrator for their personal use
- ☐

Notes

Field Notes

Start time: _____ **End time:** _____

Others present: _____

Description of interview location:

Conditions that day, or changes to the plan:

Materials viewed: _____

Equipment notes: _____

Other notes:

You can adapt these sample Densho forms for your purposes.

NARRATOR INFORMATION FORM

First Name:

Middle Name:

Last Name: _____

Nickname (if any): _____

Maiden Name (if any): _____

Interview Display Name (How you would like your name to appear with your interview):

Personal copy of interview (circle one): DVD VHS

Street Address: _____

City: _____ State: _____ Zip: _____

Telephone: (_____) _____

E-mail: _____

Date of Birth: _____

Place of Birth: _____

Country of Birth: _____

Name at Birth: _____

Gender: M F

Generational Identifier: [Issei, 1st generation American, etc.]:

Ethnicity: _____

Nationality: _____

Religion (at time of interview): _____

Sample Interview Release Form

Full name: _____

Phone: () _____

Address: _____

City _____ State _____ Zip _____

Thank you for agreeing to be interviewed by _____.

The goal of this project is to document _____
_____ for research, education, and historic preservation. Potential uses of the interviews (in whole or in part) include, but are not limited to, incorporation in the following: educational projects or curriculum, video documentaries, online computer websites, educational publications and exhibits. In addition, interviews may be made available to other entities with similar educational or historical purposes.

It is also your understanding that you will not receive compensation for the use of your name and interview(s), but your consideration is that this valuable material will benefit students and the interested public now and in the future. In appreciation, _____ will mail you a copy of your interview(s) for your personal use.

Thank you again for your participation.

Interview Date(s): _____

Read and agreed to this _____ **day of** _____, **20** _____

(Signature) _____

Resources

Sources:

Moyer, Judith. "Step-by-Step Guide to Oral History" http://dohistory.org/on_your_own/toolkit/oralHistory.html

"Practical Advice: Getting Started-- What is Oral History?" Oral History Society.

<http://www.ohs.org.uk/advice/index.php>

Shopes, Linda. "What is Oral History?" Getting Started: Making Sense of Oral History. *History Matters: The U.S. Survey Course on the Web*. February 2002. <http://historymatters.gmu.edu/mse/oral/>

"Tutorial: Using and Interpreting Oral History Interviews," Columbia River Basin Ethnic History Archive.

http://www.vancouver.wsu.edu/crbeha/tutorials/int_oh.htm

Related Subject:

"Folklife And Fieldwork: A Layman's Introduction To Field Techniques," American Folklife Center, Library Of Congress. First Edition Prepared By Peter Bartis, 1979; Revised 2002. <http://www.loc.gov/folklife/fieldwork/>

Useful Websites:

Library of Congress Preservation "Caring for Your Collections" <http://www.doingoralhistory.org>

Indiana University, Oral History Research Center <http://www.indiana.edu/~ohrc/index.html>

Oral History Association home page at Dickinson College <http://www.dickinson.edu/oha/>

Handout #6 – Student Notes on Causes of Conflict

Thinking back on the accounts of immigrant experiences you read, work in small groups to identify several different conflicts from those accounts. Each account touched on at least one conflict experienced by a larger immigrant group. Discuss and make some notes on your thoughts about probably causes and groups involved (stakeholders).

Examples of Conflict related to Immigration:

1. _____

Causes in terms of needs, resources and beliefs:

Communication that escalated or contributed to resolution:

Likely stakeholders:

2. _____

Causes in terms of needs, resources and beliefs:

Communication that escalated or contributed to resolution:

Likely stakeholders:

3. _____

Causes in terms of needs, resources and beliefs:

Communication:

Likely stakeholders:

Handout #7 – Assignment: Causes of Conflict Position Paper and Presentation

Students are encouraged to choose a topic for their paper from the immigration timeline presented in class, but may select another topic with teacher approval. Within this topic--whether it is a historical event, piece of legislation, specific immigrant group, or ongoing situation --the first step is to identify and define a central conflict for analysis. The second step is to identify stakeholders involved in the conflict, including a focus on a particular immigrant community. A graphic organizer, checklist, and rubric are provided here for reference while working on this paper.

Due Dates

Session 7 - Write down the event or topic on immigration you will use in the Causes of Conflict assignment, and where you plan to get information to complete the assignment.

Session 13, 14 or 15 – Share your position and analysis in a five minute presentation. You are encouraged to bring in visual aids such as poster boards or editorial cartoons.

Session 15 – Turn in your position paper, from five to ten pages in length. See **Checklist for the Paper** for details on what the paper should include.

As you research your topic, use the following questions as a guideline for information on the particular immigrant community you are concerned with.

1. What was the situation in the country of origin when members of this group began to leave? What was the state of the economy, the conditions in agriculture, the political situation?
2. What were some of the specific reasons that people chose to leave their country? Were they forced out, and/or were they lured toward a better life elsewhere? What family, work, and education considerations were important?
3. What did the immigrants think they would encounter when they arrived in the US, and why? What did they actually encounter? What kind of work did they find? How were they received? Where did they live? Did they have options?
4. How have things changed over time for people from this country of origin? Are later generations still perceived to be foreigners, or are they accepted into the mainstream?
5. Who has benefited from the immigration of these people to the United States? How have they benefited? Who has suffered, or believes they are threatened by this immigrant group? Why?
6. 8. In what ways have government policies helped or hindered the immigrants?
7. How have family lives been changed or challenged by immigration?
8. What are current issues facing immigrants from this population?

Handout #7, cont. Graphic Organizer for Conflict Analysis

Use this to help you organize your thoughts and research while working on your position paper.

Conflict:		
Causal Factors of the Conflict: <ol style="list-style-type: none"> Describe the factor and circle whether it is economic or historical. Name the source of the evidence; explain how the evidence supports this factor as a cause of the conflict. 		
Factor 1:	Source:	Source:
Needs, resources, beliefs?	Evidence:	Evidence:
Historical or Economic?		
Factor 2:	Source:	Source:
Needs, resources, beliefs?	Evidence:	Evidence:
Historical or Economic?		
Factor 3:	Source:	Source:
Needs, resources, beliefs?	Evidence:	Evidence:
Historical or Economic?		
Position on which is the major factor:		
Supporting Reason #1:	Source:	Evidence:
Supporting Reason #2:	Source:	Evidence:
Supporting Reason #3:	Source:	Evidence:

Handout #7, continued. Student Checklist for the Paper

Inquiry and Information Gathering

- ☐ I selected a conflict.
- ☐ I identified the setting and time of the conflict.
- ☐ I identified all the major sides (stakeholders) involved in the conflict. I will refer to each “side” as a stakeholder in my research paper.
- ☐ I researched the economic and historical factors that helped cause the conflict.
- ☐ I researched the conflict from both the economic and historical perspectives of the stakeholders.
I used the following chart to identify EACH stakeholder’s perspective on the conflict and to fill in the graphic organizer.

Economic Factors for each Stakeholder	Historical Factors for Each Stakeholder
<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Natural resources• Human migration effects• Characteristics of each economic system• Problems of scarcity• Specialization and comparative advantage• Role of supply and demand• Role of government(s)	<ul style="list-style-type: none">• Cultural Differences• Effects of technological changes• Comparison of political systems• Impact of historical events• Constraints of physical environment

- ☐ I researched background, policies, and perspectives of each stakeholder ...
 - I reviewed a variety of credible sources.
 - I found relevant, reliable, and valid information on each stakeholder’s point of view.
 - I identified connections between each stakeholder’s point of view and the policies they implemented in the conflict.
- ☐ I listed key issues involved in the conflict from the point of view of all the major stakeholders, using data and other evidence from my research.
- ☐ I looked for the factor that played the biggest role in causing the conflict.
- ☐ I used and documented at least one primary source and several secondary sources.
- ☐ I collected evidence of my research (hard copies, notes, paraphrased summaries, charts, questions, underlining).
- ☐ I examined sources to ensure that they are valid, reliable, and credible research sources (double-check statistics, look for bias, etc.).
- ☐ I identified facts and opinions.
- ☐ I created an annotated bibliography documenting each source (including title, author, publisher, date) and a 2–3 sentence description of the credibility, reliability, value, and usefulness of the information in each source.

Group Process

- ☐ I participated in a class discussion with other students researching the same conflict.
 - I voiced original ideas.
 - I cited primary sources.
 - I demonstrated content knowledge.
 - I used specific evidence to make a persuasive argument.
 - I listened critically and built on the ideas of others.
 - I asked clarifying questions.

- I challenged the ideas of others without criticizing people.
- I negotiated and compromised.

- ☐ I used ideas from class discussions to develop my own thesis/perspective for my research paper.
- ☐ With my group I developed a timeline of the conflict's significant events.
- ☐ If I did not actively participate in the forum, I evaluated the relationship of arguments to the stakeholders' perspectives, the economic factors, and the historical factors.
- ☐ I took notes on key points of peers' presentations.

Preparation for Writing

- ☐ I analyzed the key points presented in the class discussion and formulated a position on the conflict.
- ☐ I organized information from notes, data, and other evidence to develop my position.
- ☐ I organized my thinking in class.

Writing & Presenting

- ☐ I wrote a draft of my persuasive position paper, which included:
 - background information on the conflict.
 - a clear timeline of events leading up to and throughout the conflict.
 - a clear thesis statement explaining why one factor was the most important in causing the conflict.
 - an evaluation of the major stakeholders' perspectives/points of view:
 - two or more references were made regarding economic factors for each stakeholder.
 - two or more references were made regarding historical factors for each stakeholder.
 - a convincing explanation of why one factor should be considered the most important cause of the conflict.
 - accurate supporting details from at least one primary source and two secondary sources in my writing.
 - making connections between the sources I researched and the conflict.
- ☐ I revised my paper to make my ideas clearer, better organized, more detailed, more accurate, and more convincing.
- ☐ I edited my work to improve grammar, punctuation, spelling, and capitalization.
- ☐ I used APA (American Psychological Association) or MLA (Modern Language Association) style to give reference to any readings or sources I used within the body of the paper.
- ☐ I included the annotated bibliography to clearly document the sources of my ideas.
- ☐ I revised and edited my work and turned in my final essay.

Handout #7, continued. Position Paper Rubric

	4 Excellent	3 Proficient	2 Partial	1 Minimal	Score
Compare and evaluate competing historical narratives, analyze multiple perspectives, and challenge arguments of historical inevitability.	Provides a plausible argument for why one factor (or factors) played the biggest role in causing the conflict with three (or more) reasons explicitly supported by evidence for each factor discussed.	Provides a plausible argument for why one factor (or factors) played the biggest role in causing the conflict with two reasons explicitly supported by evidence.	Provides a plausible argument for why one factor (or factors) played the biggest role in causing the conflict with one reason explicitly supported by evidence. Argument may contain some inaccuracies.	Provides an argument for why one factor played the biggest role in causing the conflict with only partial support or without support. OR refers to a general category of factors as most important without specifying which one (or ones). Account may contain several inaccuracies.	
Using the concepts of scarcity, choice, and incentives, explain the use of a contemporary resource. Compare and analyze major ideas in different places, times, and cultures, and how those ideas have brought about continuity, change, or conflict.	Identifies and explicitly explains how four (or more) factors helped cause the conflict. (needs to include at least one economic factor)*	Identifies and explicitly explains how three factors helped cause the conflict. (needs to include at least one economic factor)*	Identifies and explicitly explains how two factors helped cause the conflict. OR Demonstrates accurately how three factors helped cause the conflict without including an economic factor.*	Demonstrates how one factor helped cause the conflict. OR mentions factors but does not explain how they resulted in the conflict.	
Identify multiple perspectives; compare and contrast; use multiple sources; determine relevant information from artifacts and/or primary sources.	Explicitly cites and accurately restates or paraphrases, and accurately interprets relevant information from two or more artifacts and/or primary sources.	Explicitly cites and accurately restates or paraphrases relevant information from two specific artifacts and/or primary sources. May contain some inaccuracies.	Explicitly cites and accurately restates or paraphrases relevant information from one specific artifact or source. May contain some inaccuracies.	Uses only anecdotal information to support ideas, comparisons, and claims. OR does not explicitly cite or state relevant information from primary sources.	

Handout #8–Immigration Timeline: A Few Significant Events

1848	Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo ends the Mexican-American War. The U.S. acquires Colorado, Arizona, New Mexico, Texas, California, and parts of Utah and Nevada from Mexico for \$15 million. Mexican residents of the newly acquired territory have the choice to remain.
1868	The Burlingame Treaty with China is ratified, giving the right of unrestricted immigration of Chinese citizens to the United States.
1882	The Chinese Exclusion Act is passed, the first law to restrict immigration on the basis of race and national origin. The Act suspended all immigration of Chinese laborers for ten years and forbade any court to admit Chinese people for citizenship.
1885-86	Anti-Chinese riots flare up in Seattle and Tacoma, most Chinese residents are expelled.
Late 19th century	During a period of enormous waves of immigrants arriving, immigration came to be seen as a threat, and Congress worked to pass more and more restrictions on "undesirable classes."
1898	Spanish American War. Cuba and the Philippines revolt against Spanish rule. The U.S. intervenes, and gains ownership of the former Spanish colonies of the Philippines, Puerto Rico and Guam.
1907	The Gentleman's Agreement between the U.S. and Japan greatly restricted immigration from Japan.
1910	The Mexican Revolution creates disruption that causes thousands of Mexicans to come to the United States. Between 1910 and 1930, nearly a million Mexican people come to look for work.
1917	The Immigration Act of 1917 prohibited immigration from the "Asiatic barred zone."
1920	By 1920 nearly 14 million out of the 105 million people living in the United States were foreigners.
1924	Quota Act: A discriminatory quota system is created, favoring immigrants from Europe and excluding people who were not eligible for citizenship, i.e. Asians. Immigration from a particular nation was limited to 3% of that nationality already in the U.S.
1930s	During the Great Depression, large numbers of Mexicans and Mexican Americans are deported.
1942	The incarceration of Japanese Americans begins.
1942-64	The Bracero Program provides temporary residence in the U.S. for Mexican farmworkers and other laborers, without an option to remain in the U.S.
1965	The Immigration and Naturalization Act abolishes the old quota system, and sets a limit of 20,000 from each country. For the first time, people from Asian nations have access like those from Europe and the Western Hemisphere. Priority for visas is granted to individuals based on family reunification, needed skills, and refugee status.

Sources:

Johnson, Kevin. "A History of Racial Exclusion in the U.S. Immigration Laws" <http://academic.udayton.edu/race/02rights/immigr09.htm>
 Perreira, Krista, "Immigration Timeline," <http://www.unc.edu/~perreira/198timeline.html#The%20Colonial%20Era>
 Vellos, Diana. "A History of Immigration Law Regarding People of Color." <http://academic.udayton.edu/race/02rights/immigr01.htm>

Handout #9: Immigration from Mexico to the Pacific Northwest

Mexican and Mexican Americans have contributed to the development of the Pacific Northwest since the 1774 Spanish exploration of the Olympic Peninsula, when Spain claimed the Pacific Northwest. The Spanish captain Juan Perez led an expedition of primarily Mexican men, from Mexico to the coast of the future Washington State. The first settlement--other than Native American--in Washington State was established in 1792 at Neah Bay, by Mexican crewmembers from four Spanish expeditions. In 1819, Spain gave up its claim to the Pacific Northwest (and sold Florida) to the U.S. by signing the Adams-Onís Treaty.

From the 1850s through the 1890s, Mexican people moved to the Pacific Northwest to work in mining and ranching. Mexican mule packers developed the region's first system of commercial transportation, and were involved in transporting mining ore and other materials, as they had in Mexico, California and the Southwest. This system continued until the late 1870s, when the railroad network was established. Mexican *vaqueros* (the original cowboys) who were highly skilled with horses and cattle also moved to the Pacific Northwest to work in ranching, especially in Oregon and Idaho.

In the early 20th century, a combination of political turmoil in Mexico during the Mexican Revolution (1910-1917), and labor shortages in the U.S. drew many people from Mexico to the U.S. In the Pacific Northwest, as well as the larger American west, people from Mexico contributed to the further expansion of railroads and to agricultural development. Many Northwest farms recruited in the Southwest and in Mexico for workers. During WWII, the need for labor increased dramatically while many American men were involved in the military, and Japanese Americans who had been involved in farming were incarcerated. Many more Mexican migrant workers moved to the agricultural regions of Washington during this war.

To supplement Mexican American workers in the 1940s, the U.S. government created the *bracero* program to bring in contract workers from Mexico on a temporary basis, and ratified it with Mexico. Mexican workers came to the U.S. from 1942-64 through this program. In Washington State, *bracero* laborers worked in agriculture and for the railroads for a shorter period, from 1942-1947.

After World War II in central Washington, Mexicans and Mexican Americans concentrated in the Yakima Valley but also worked in the Wenatchee Valley, the Skagit Valley, the Pasco and Walla Walla areas, harvesting a variety of fruit and vegetables. Also after WWII, some migrant workers began to settle and work in one place. Many more migrant workers in the Northwest made the transition out of the fields during the 1960s. More Mexican Americans began to operate small businesses, go to college and work in a full variety of professions. As children of migrant workers went into other work, the demand for new migrant workers from Mexico continued.

Since the 1970s, many more migrant workers have come to Washington from Mexico, some legally and some undocumented. As further generations of Mexican Americans left the fields to pursue other work, more people from Mexico have moved to work in both agricultural and urban areas of Washington.

Sources:

"Latino History of Washington State," by Gonzalo Guzman, August 27, 2006. HistoryLink.org essay 7901.

http://www.historylink.org/essays/output.cfm?file_id=7901

"Mexican Americans in the Columbia Basin: Historical Overview" by Mario Compean. Columbia River Basin Ethnic History Archives. <http://www.vancouver.wsu.edu/crbeha/ma/ma.htm>

Handout # 10: Labor Issues among Mexican Workers in the U.S.

Since the 19th century, employers in the U.S. have looked to Mexican workers as a source of low wage labor, especially for agricultural work. A lot of agricultural work requires additional labor to harvest crops for only a relatively short period of time during the year. Grocery stores are full of fruit and vegetables grown through the hard work of farmers, and picked through the hard work of migrant laborers, who travel seasonally to harvest one crop after the next.

Bumper crops one year can be followed by a year of unfavorable weather and ruined crops--conditions that demand a lot of flexibility on the farm. Aside from these swings of circumstance, the larger U.S. economy has its own cycles of expansion and tightening. At times, many new temporary laborers are desperately needed, followed by times when jobs are scarce and workers feel there is too much competition for the available jobs. All too often in American history, when workers feel the pinch of the economy, they imagine it would help to be rid of the competition from immigrant workers. For example, during the Great Depression of the 1930s, many Mexican immigrants and U.S. citizens of Mexican ancestry were forced by the U.S. government to leave the country and move to Mexico. More than 500,000 people were deported; according to other sources, about a million people left for Mexico through a combination of deportation and leaving "voluntarily" after being threatened. Unfortunately, during hard times, Americans have sometimes ignored the rights of U.S. citizens who they think look like undesirable foreigners.

The Bracero Program, 1942-1964

During the labor shortages of World War II, an agreement was made between the U.S. and Mexico to allow Mexican workers to come to the U.S. while needed, and then require them to return to Mexico. This program was an effort to reduce the perceived problem of these laborers remaining the U.S. after the immediate need for their work was over. During the 1940s and 1950s, it is estimated that about one million Mexican workers worked in U.S. agriculture through this program. By the time it was disbanded in 1964, approximately 4.5 million jobs had been held by Mexican workers as braceros (temporary laborer, literally "arm").¹



"Weeding sugar beets for \$2.00 an hour"

From the early 20th century, most workers in America's fruit and vegetable fields were migrants who moved around the country following the harvest. Initially, growers hired Japanese immigrants. By the 1920s, Mexicans and Filipino field workers replaced the Japanese. They and their children worked long hours picking crops for very little money.

National Archives, Records of the Environmental Protection Agency (412-DA-11420)

¹ "Close to Slavery: " Southern Poverty Law Center.

People working in the U.S. who do not have the protection of citizenship are all too easily exploited, even more so when they do not speak English or are economically disadvantaged. Although the legislation that established the *bracero* program granted legal protections to the workers, they were routinely shortchanged and taken advantage of. Employers applied to bring these workers in, and workers could not leave the job for another employer while in the U.S. Workers knew that if they made demands or complained about conditions, they could be returned to their own country and not be rehired in the future. In 1956, the U.S. Department of Labor officer Lee G. Williams used the term “legalized slavery” to explain the consequences of the program.² Due to the difficult working conditions and lack of rights, many Mexican workers preferred to immigrate to the U.S. illegally.

Farmworkers Organize for Better Working Conditions

After the *bracero* program was disbanded in 1964, and legal immigration from Mexico became easier after the Immigration Reform Act of 1965, changes began for agricultural workers in the U.S. Farmworkers in California began to organize to demand better wages and working conditions.

A history of the United Farm Workers organization describes the working conditions of the time as follows:

“Grape pickers in 1965 were making an average of \$.90/hour, plus ten cents per “lug” (basket) picked. State laws regarding working standards were simply ignored by growers. At one farm the boss made the workers all drink from the same cup “a beer can” in the field; at another ranch workers were forced to pay a quarter per cup. No ranches had portable field toilets. Workers’ temporary housing was strictly segregated by race, and they paid two dollars or more per day for unheated metal shacks-often infested with mosquitoes-with no indoor plumbing or cooking facilities.

Farm labor contractors played favorites with workers, selecting friends first, sometimes accepting bribes. Child labor was rampant, and many workers were injured or died in easily preventable accidents. The average life expectancy of a farm worker was 49 years.”¹

In 1962, a son of farmworkers in California named Cesar Chavez began an organization known as the National Farm Workers Association. Chavez spent three years travelling the agricultural areas of central California to talk with farmworkers and create an organization that could advocate for better working conditions. Dolores Huerta, a co-founder of the organization, had already worked with another group of agricultural workers (Agricultural Workers Organizing Committee), made up of many Filipino workers as well as Chicanos, African American and white workers. During the summer of 1965, a strike of farmworkers took place in the California farm town of Delano. The workers demanded \$1.25 per hour to pick the grape harvest, and began a strike when they did not receive it. The two organizations of agricultural workers joined together, and several thousand workers left the fields, putting the grape crop at risk. Since the *bracero* program had ended, it was harder to bring in temporary workers to replace those on strike. Growers then met the wage demands, but this time the workers demanded a union as well. This struggle continued for several years, during which time Chavez called for public support for the workers by boycotting grapes. Millions of consumers responded and stopped buying grapes.

² “Close to Slavery: “Southern Poverty Law Center.

In the non-violent tradition of Mahatma Gandhi and Dr. Martin Luther King, Jr., Cesar Chavez led marches and fasted to call attention to the efforts of the farmworkers. The two organizations representing farmworkers merged to become the United Farm Workers (UFW), and by 1970, grape growers accepted union contracts with the UFW. Workers were successful in receiving higher wages, and organizing services such as health clinics, and community centers. For the past 40 years, Chavez has been revered as one of the great 20th century civil rights leaders.

In Washington State, news of the Chicano movement begun by Cesar Chaves and Dolores Huerta reached Yakima Valley. Tomás Villanueva and Guadalupe Gamboa were early organizers who drove to California in 1966 to meet with Chavez. On their return, they began community and labor organizing efforts in central Washington. By 1972, a Farm Workers Clinic was established in the Yakima Valley to aid migrant workers.

Sources:

Southern Poverty Law Center, www.splc.org.

The Rise of the United Farm Workers, http://www.ufw.org/_page.php?menu=research&inc=history/03.html

“The War Against Illegal Aliens, aka Mexican Immigrants” Kevin Johnson, University of Dayton Law School

“Overview of the United Farm Workers in Washington State,” Harry Bridges Center for Labor Studies, University of Washington, <http://depts.washington.edu/pcls/ufw/history.htm>. Includes video excerpts of oral history interviews with Washington residents involved in organizing migrant farm workers.

Discussion Questions:

Why is there continually a need for more migrant laborers from Mexico?

Why were some American workers involved in pushing out Mexican workers? Did they want the jobs that Mexican workers had been doing?

What purpose did the bracero program serve? Why were bracero workers not able to request better pay or better working conditions?

Why were braceros tied to one employer? What was the concern over allowing them to leave an employer and take another job?

Is the basic idea of a program for temporary foreign workers (also known as guest workers) a good one? If so, is it possible to structure the program to eliminate the abuses of the bracero program?

How did migrant farmworkers begin to make demands for better working conditions? What are some of the reasons it is difficult for farmworkers to organize for better conditions?

Handout #11 – Historical Overview of Japanese Immigration to the U.S.

1860s to 1941: Japanese Immigrants Settle in Hawaii and on the Mainland West Coast

Japanese immigrants, like most immigrants to the United States, left their homes in the hope of opportunities to work for a better life for their families. A few laborers traveled to Hawaii and California in the 1860s. Most *issei* (Japanese for “first generation”) came to the United States between 1885 and 1924. By the beginning of the 20th century, there were about 80,000 *issei* in Hawaii and 72,000 on the mainland, mostly on the West Coast. Some intended to return home after making their fortune, but many stayed and put down roots. In this way, the *issei* opened a new chapter in the story of immigrants of many backgrounds contributing to America’s development.

Japanese immigrants encountered racism and discrimination in the U.S., just as earlier Chinese immigrants had experienced. The legal discrimination that would have the most dire effect on the *issei* was the 1870 Naturalization Act. This law declared all Asian immigrants “aliens ineligible for citizenship.” They could never vote or have other protections that citizens enjoyed.

The early *issei* were brought by labor contracting firms who supplied workers to factory and farm owners. Japanese immigrants worked in agriculture, fishing, mining, and railroad construction. Labor unions practiced racial exclusion and did not allow Asian immigrants to join. This meant Japanese laborers had no one to represent their interests on issues such as wages, hours, and benefits. Some white workers argued that Japanese immigrant laborers maintained a lower standard of living, allowing them to work for less money than white laborers.

Other organized labor unions helped to establish anti-Japanese organizations such as the Asiatic Exclusion League (founded in 1905) and the Japanese Exclusion League of California (founded in 1920). These groups wanted all immigration from Japan to end, and some argued that immigrants should be expelled from the United States. Farmers also resented competition from the Japanese immigrants. Exclusionist groups successfully pushed for laws to deny Asian immigrants the right to own land. These laws in western states were known as Alien Land Laws.

Terms for Japanese American Generations

Issei first generation, or immigrants from Japan in the U.S.

Nisei second generation, or children born in the U.S. to immigrants from Japan

Sansei third generation, or grandchildren born in the U.S. to immigrants from Japan

A Few Early Legal Restrictions on Japanese Americans

1870 Naturalization Act

1910-20s Alien Land Laws

1907 -08 Gentlemen’s Agreement

Japantown, or Nihonmachi:

A Japanese American ethnic neighborhood in a West Coast city such as Los Angeles, San Francisco, or Seattle.

“Yellow Peril”

A racial slur for Asian Americans—primarily those of Japanese and Chinese heritage—and the supposed threat created by growth in their communities.

A typical anti-Asian article from the San Francisco Chronicle, dated April 2, 1905.

Full headline: "Japs Bringing Frightful Disease. Danger Now is in the School. Unwise Law Gives Diseased Asiatic Place as Pupil. Many Come in on Each Ship."

Densho Digital Archive,
denshopd-i69-00026

JAPS BRING FRIGHTFUL DISEASE



Densho Digital Archive, 2008

Many *issei* were succeeding slowly within the changing economy of the western states, despite the odds against them. Unfortunately, Caucasian hostility grew, and anti-Asian propaganda was normal for the day. Racist newspapers like *The San Francisco Chronicle*, owned by William Randolph Hearst, wrote frightening articles about “the yellow peril” threatening “white man’s country.” Typical *San Francisco Chronicle* headlines were:

JAPANESE A MENACE TO AMERICAN WOMEN
THE YELLOW PERIL-HOW JAPANESE CROWD OUT THE WHITE RACE
BROWN MEN AN EVIL IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS
CRIME AND POVERTY GO HAND IN HAND WITH ASIATIC LABOR

Japan was concerned with its prestige as an international power and paid a great deal of attention to how its immigrants were treated in the United States and other countries. In 1906, the hostility and discrimination against Japanese immigrants in California caused an international incident that almost led to war with Japan. Japan objected when the San Francisco School Board announced it would segregate the schools and send Japanese American students to separate schools for students of Asian descent. To resolve the situation, President Theodore Roosevelt negotiated an agreement with the anti-Japanese groups in which San Francisco agreed not to segregate the schools if further immigration from Japan was stopped.

This international crisis led to the so-called Gentlemen’s Agreement, a series of understandings signed by the United States and Japan in 1907 and 1908. Under this agreement, laborers from Japan could no longer come to the mainland U.S. In a compromise that allowed Japan to sign the agreements, Japanese women were allowed to immigrate. *Issei* men traveled back to Japan to find wives, and many “picture brides” came to the United States. The Japanese immigrants put down roots, began families, and established communities up and down the West Coast. But discrimination continued, and Asian exclusion groups agitated for the Immigration Act of 1924, which stopped all immigration from Japan to the United States.

In the 1920s and 1930s, Japanese Americans on the West Coast ran successful produce farms and small businesses in “Japantown” neighborhoods. These were almost the only opportunities available to them, after their earlier decades as migrant laborers. Their children, the *nisei* (“second generation”), were born as U.S. citizens by birthright. They attended school, spoke English, and grew up with other American children. *Issei* farmers worked around the Alien Land Laws by buying land in their citizen children’s names. Japanese American farmers produced food for many other peoples’ tables. With their skills and hard labor, they were able to grow 10% of the total value of California’s harvest on only 1% of California’s agricultural land. The Japanese Americans’ economic success and growing communities caused fear and resentment that would severely affect them when war was declared with Japan in 1942.

Discussion Questions:

What labor needs in the U.S. and Hawaii first brought Japanese immigrants? (Remember that Hawaii was not a state until much later.)

Why was it difficult for Japanese workers to organize for better conditions? How were their rights restricted?

How did the situation for Japanese immigrants change as a result of objections from Japan? Why was treatment of Japanese immigrants important to the Japanese government? In negotiation between the Japan and U.S., why was the opportunity for Japanese women to immigrate important to the Japanese government?

Handout #12 – Oral History Excerpts, Japanese-American Accounts of Immigration

Densho Digital Archive

Densho Visual History Collection

Title: Shigeko Sese Uno Interview

Narrator: Shigeko Sese Uno

Interviewers: Beth Kawahara (primary), Alice Ito (secondary)

Location: Seattle, Washington

Date: September 18, 1998

Densho ID: denshovh-ushigeko-01

<Begin Segment 1>

Nisei female born 1915 in Seattle, Washington's International District. At an early age became active in the Japanese Baptist Church. Parents owned and operated a dairy plant called White River Dairy. Was a student at the Baptist Missionary Training School in Chicago, Illinois. Took a group of young women on an eye-opening trip to Japan right before the war started. Incarcerated with her family in Puyallup Assembly Center with a newborn baby, moving to Minidoka incarceration camp before relocating to the East Coast. Returned to Seattle in 1947 and became the first Asian American and first woman to work at the Rainier Heat and Power Company, then a key property owner and landlord in the International District. She was the first woman president of the Japanese American Citizens League, and played a lead role in the redress movement.

BK: Today is September 18, 1998. And representing the Densho project is Alice Ito and myself, Beth Kawahara. And we're very pleased to be here today with Shigeko Sese Uno. So Shigeko, could you start by telling us a little bit about your father, his life in Japan, how he got over here to America?

SU: All right. My father's name, Eichi Sese, lived in Tottori. He was the oldest son of a farmer. But I guess he didn't like farming. And also the Russo-Japanese War was going on, and he didn't want to be drafted into the Japanese army, either. So a group of his friends -- and so he decided to come to America. But that was a goal. Tottori is on the Japan seaside, the other side of Honshu. So they had to walk over, no transportation. They walked over the mountains that divided Honshu, and came into the seaport. Could have been Hiroshima. They jumped on the first boat they thought was destined for America. But when they landed, it was in Mexico. And so they realized they're in Mexico. And they traveled all the way over the border. They sneaked in. Someone, took the attention of the customs officer, whatever you, immigration people. And so they were able to slip in. And they found their way up to Seattle. He's never told me about any of the visits in other California cities or Oregon, but anyway, their destination was Seattle. And that's how they got here.

BK: And on their trip northward, did they just take odds, odds and ends of jobs, or...?

SU: Well, I have asked him, and the only thing he would say, he did mention, was having a job in Mexico, digging graves. I guess they did that. But the rest of the trip he has never mentioned. And it's too bad. We never thought of asking our father for details, and...

BK: And so once he was here in Seattle, did he stay and establish a business at that time?

SU: No. When he landed he worked at various jobs, working in a restaurant, not as a cook, but just a helper, I think. Worked in a hotel, cleaning. And he said that some day, sometimes he would have three jobs a day, earn enough money. So he went back to Japan so he could legally come back to America, and also get married to my mother. My mother was a daughter of a Zen Buddhist priest, so she was raised in the Buddhist temple. But they also happened to be next door to my father's farm, so they knew each other. And they got married in Japan. And my mother and father came to Seattle, I imagine about the first part of, well, around 1910, something like that, because I was born 1915 in the International District.

BK: Where exactly was that in the International District?

SU: Where...

BK: That you were born? Where was your first home that you remember?

SU: Oh, it was on Seventh Avenue South, between Main and Washington. And I remember that home because I fell off of the second floor window. [Laughs]

BK: Excuse me. You fell off the second-floor window when you were just a little baby?

SU: No. I was able to walk. But this house was a long house -- what you do call it? -- different families lived. And it was on a hill. Seventh Avenue is a hill between Main and Washington. And my mother tells me that I was looking out of the window while she was vacuuming the living room. All of a sudden I wasn't there. She looked below, and there I was, two stories down. We lived in the upstairs.

BK: You're always an active person, then, even at that young age?

SU: So...

BK: And subsequently did you have other brothers?

SU: Yes. I had a brother, Masa, that was born 1917, and another brother, Tosh, 1918, another brother, George, born in 1920, and the last one, Kaoru, 1922.

<End Segment 1> - Copyright © 1998 Densho. All Rights Reserved.

Densho Digital Archive
National Japanese American Historical Society Collection
Title: Harvey Watanabe Interview
Narrator: Harvey Watanabe
Interviewers: Marvin Uratsu (primary), Gary Otake (secondary)
Location: Seattle, Washington
Date: December 12, 1997
Densho ID: denshovh-wharvey-02

<Begin Segment 3>

Nisei male. Born February 1919 in Exeter, California. Spent prewar childhood in Visalia, California. Drafted prior to World War II. Served in an activated National Guard unit at Fort Lewis, Washington. When World War II broke out, he and all the other Nisei servicemen at Fort Lewis were sent inland. About twenty, Harvey included, went to Fort Hayes, Columbus, Ohio. Recruited for the Military Intelligence Service and trained at the Military Intelligence Language School at Camp Savage, Minnesota. Sent overseas to serve in the Allied Translator and Interpreter Section (ATIS) of General MacArthur's headquarters in Australia, Manila and Japan. Assisted in negotiating the surrender of Japanese troops in Manila. Managed the Dai Ichi Hotel in Tokyo for headquarters staff. Later served in the Korean War. Resettled in Seattle, Washington and worked for the Boeing Company.

MU: So, after living up here like that, he went to California and that's where you were born?

HW: Yes, my mother was a picture bride and came into San Francisco.

MU: Can you tell us a little bit about how the picture bride arrangement works?

HW: Well, picture bride arrangements work by supporters of each side. And they would then send pictures over and exchange pictures. If that was then suitable then they would be married, although they weren't together. And that would then allow the bride to come over.

MU: We've heard some horror stories about -- on that arrangement. But, in your family's case, everything worked out all right?

HW: I think, I think there were some little shenanigans pulled, because, you see, my uncle who was not married at the time brought my mother back with him. He was visiting in Japan and brought her back.

MU: What was the significance of that?

HW: Well, you see, the way I figured out is my father had "wetbacked" across the Canadian, U.S.-Canadian border, so he couldn't use, they couldn't use his name. Because there is some mix-up -- my sister looked into it, and she had some questions. And it just struck a light in my mind here, what my father had been telling me.

MU: Yeah.

HW: Yeah.

MU: Well that's good. Then, possibly your mother came over as your uncle's bride?

HW: Yeah.

MU: Well, that's interesting. Thanks for sharing that bit of private information.

HW: I think that's possible, yeah...

MU: But, apparently your father was determined to come to America...

HW: Yes.

MU: ...if he did this "wetback."

HW: I found out about that later during my teenage years. Mentioned to me one day, he says, "I want to ask you a question." I says, "Sure, what is it?" He says, "I have some property in Japan and if I die, it's supposed to go to you." He said, "Do you want the property?" I said, "I don't have any use for it, because I'm not planning to go back to Japan." And previous to that, as a nine-year-old I had visited Japan for a few months. I met my cousin over there and another cousin was over here. He had migrated to the U.S., the older cousin. And so I told my father, "I have no use for it, so why don't we give it to my cousin?" So he went, we went to the consul and...

MU: Had that arranged?

HW: ...made the arrangement. And so all the property there was -- in Japan, was -- my cousin fell heir to it, yeah. So that's when he first let me know that he had no intention of going back to Japan. I mean...

MU: Burning the bridges, right there.

HW: Yeah, he was burning the bridges, yeah, uh-huh. And this was in the middle '30s, during the Depression.

MU: Well, a lot of the *Isseis* -- I think at about that time -- were wondering which way to go.

HW: Yes.

MU: Go back to Japan, or stay here. And your father apparently made up his mind early that he wanted to stay here.

HW: Well, I think, I think wanting to and staying here are two different things, you see. I mean, you know, because of the situation, political situation -- not legalistic, but still political -- they could've rounded up everybody and kicked 'em out. So, my father always mentioned that, he says, "You're an American citizen, and I'm not. But if anything happens between U.S. and Japan, I'm staying here. And I want you to remember you're an American citizen." You know, he said that to me many times.

"Anti-Japanese League Forming," *San Francisco Chronicle*, March 8, 1905. Densho Digital Archive, denshopd-i69-00015.

ANTI-JAPANESE LEAGUE FORMING

Alameda Citizens, Aroused to the Danger, Will Take Steps to Shut Out the Brown Men.

Alameda, March 7.--The great influx of Japanese into Alameda has aroused a number of citizens to a sense of danger and has caused the launching of an anti-Japanese League, which is now being organized. Prominent in this movement are John Robinson, the grain man, of Encinal avenue; George Foster of the well-known contracting firm of Foster & Son, and A.T. Dean of the Park Hotel.

Robinson first agitated the question. He has spent considerable time in Hawaii, and declares that the Japanese there have ruined the country when it comes to a white laborer's standpoint, and that any but a Japanese small merchant cannot live in a large part of the islands.

"I am opposed to the Japanese immigration," Foster said to-day, "just as I am opposed to the coming in of any race that injures our workingmen. The Japanese is worse than the Chinese in this, for while the Chinese for the most part takes up work that a white man will not do, the Japanese enters into active competition and drives the white man out.

"Take here in Alameda. Where there used to be a comfortable German gardener, for instance, with a nice little home, now you find a Japanese who is not doing a thing for the country and is not building up a home. Instead he is living in some shanty with dozens of others. The Japanese, as everybody knows, has run every white shoemaker out of Alameda."

The large increase in the Japanese population of Alameda for some time past has excited considerable comment. It is estimated that now some 850 Japanese make their home here, a number about double that of a year ago. So great has the demand for Japanese quarters become that William B. McCann has thought it profitable to begin the erection of two houses, which, at the rate the present Japanese quarters are peopled, will house nearly 200 adults.

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Densho Digital Archive.



Picture brides being processed, Angel Island, California, c. 1911. Densho Digital Archive, denshopd-i41-00003.

Discussion Questions for Oral History Excerpts:

How did these immigrants enter the U.S.? For those who entered illegally, why do you think they did so? Did either of them mention consequences for having done so?

What was the family situation for each immigrant, and how was it affected by their move?

As part of the lengthy transition of immigration, there is a decision to move to the U.S., and often after some years and some hardships, there comes the decision of whether to stay in the U.S. or return. One account mentions that many *issei* had to consider whether to return or stay. Why did so many consider returning, and how did this person (Mr Harvey Watanabe) describe their decision to stay?

Handout #13 – Conflict and the Japanese American Experience: A Focus on Incarceration

The 1941 Attack on Pearl Harbor and its Aftermath

Disaster struck on December 7, 1941, when Japan attacked U.S. military bases in Pearl Harbor, Hawaii. Over 3,500 servicemen were killed or wounded. The next day, the U.S. declared war on Japan and entered World War II. The surprise bombing of Pearl Harbor shocked and enraged Americans, who feared that Japan would attack the West Coast of the U.S. next.

Angry Americans didn't think to distinguish between the Japanese military and law-abiding Japanese Americans, who were citizens and legal immigrants who had lived for several decades on the West Coast. Japanese Americans looked like the enemy, and after Pearl Harbor people distrusted anyone with a Japanese face and name. Because the *issei* were not allowed to be citizens, they were all immediately classified as enemy aliens. FBI agents searched thousands of Japanese Americans' homes and took the fathers away to Justice Department detention camps without any explanation or criminal charge.

Newspapers printed false stories about Japanese Americans spying and sabotaging military bases. In fact, not a single Japanese American in the United States, Hawaii, or Alaska was ever charged with espionage or sabotage. Anti-Asian farmers, labor unions, and businessmen saw ways to profit by sending away their Japanese American competitors. They urged officials to remove everyone of Japanese descent from the coast.

Japanese Americans had no political power for countering this wartime hysteria. How could they protect themselves? The older generation did not have the right to vote because they could not be citizens. Most of their children were too young to vote. Local politicians did not stand up for the Japanese Americans, and federal government officials did nothing to stop the increasing anger at this powerless community.

Many military heads, political leaders, and journalists insisted that everyone of Japanese heritage was potentially dangerous. They argued that Japanese Americans were by nature less loyal than other Americans, because they had racial and cultural ties to Japan. Without evidence of suspicious activity, Army officials told President Franklin D. Roosevelt it was a military necessity to remove every person of Japanese heritage from the west coast.

Meanwhile, military commanders in Hawaii said the 160,000 people of Japanese heritage on the islands could be trusted. Japanese Hawaiians were not removed to camps, even though the islands were more vulnerable to Japanese attack. In fact, reports that Roosevelt received from the FBI, Navy, and other federal agencies contradicted the Army's claims. Those investigations concluded Japanese Americans were no more dangerous than any other group.

"Oh, we were shocked after Pearl Harbor. I was embarrassed to go to school. The family was in turmoil that December. We didn't know what the government or the people around us were going to do to us. We were scared."

--16-year-old Japanese American boy, Seattle



The Japanese military attacked the U.S. naval base at Pearl Harbor, Hawaii, December 7, 1941. The surprise attack set off U.S. involvement in World War II.

"We're charged with wanting to get rid of the Japs for selfish reasons. We might as well be honest. We do. It's a question of whether the white man lives on the Pacific Coast or the brown man. .. If all the Japs were removed tomorrow, we'd never miss them. . . because the white farmers can take over."

--Saturday Evening Post article, May 1942

President Roosevelt Decides to Remove Japanese Americans in 1942: Executive Order 9066

On February 19, 1942, President Roosevelt sided with General DeWitt, the Western Defense Commander, and signed Executive Order 9066. This order gave military commanders the extraordinary power to exclude any person from any area of the country. The legislative branch joined the executive branch when Congress passed a law to fine and imprison any civilian who violated orders from the military. (Normally, civilians do not have to comply with military orders.) Next, General DeWitt issued over 100 military orders that affected only Japanese Americans living in west coast states. The United States was also at war with Germany and Italy, but the orders did not apply to German and Italian Americans.

Very few people at the time objected to the forced removal and incarceration of 120,000 Japanese immigrants and their children. Among the groups that did say it was unfair were religious groups such as the Friends (also known as Quakers). Lawyers dedicated to civil liberties later argued the cases of the few Japanese Americans who demanded their constitutional rights in the courts. Some individuals on their own tried to help their Japanese American neighbors by watching over their property, visiting them in the camps, and sending them needed supplies.



Densho Digital Archive, 2008

A Japanese American family wears numbered I.D. tags and waits to board a ferry that will take them from Bainbridge Island, Washington, to the Manzanar incarceration camp in California, March 30, 1942. Densho Digital Archive, denshopd-i34-00080

All Japanese Americans had their freedom of movement restricted. At first, they were required to obey an 8:00 p.m. curfew, not allowed to take money out of the bank, and not allowed to travel beyond a short distance from home. Then in March 1942, General DeWitt ordered the army to move 120,000 Japanese Americans into temporary detention camps, called "assembly centers," set up at race tracks and fairgrounds. Families had only a week or two to sell or entrust to others their houses, farms, businesses, pets, and personal belongings. No one can accurately calculate the value of the property they lost.

General John L. DeWitt, from 1941-43 was responsible for the defense of the western U.S. From the Arlington National Cemetery website:

"Between March 1941 and September 1943, he commanded the Western Defense Area (the Western portion of the United States). During his tenure, a measure was undertaken in the Western states and provinces by the United States and Canada whereby a denial of constitutional rights to Japanese-Americans who were compelled to leave their homes. The Evacuation of these citizens was motivated by excessive fears in some of the military, a near-panic state in some parts of the civilian populace on the West Coast and the greed of some special-interest groups who were in a position to profit from the property losses of these citizens."

<http://www.arlingtoncemetery.net/jldewitt.htm>

Society of Friends--A Christian sect that rejects ordained ministers and is opposed to war. Members refer to one another as Friends, and are often called Quakers by the outside world.

"My older brothers were running the business. Then the war broke out and they lost everything. We turned over the house, the furniture, to people who never did send money. That morning Mother washed all the dishes, put them away, made the beds, and my doll was still sitting on the couch. And we took our suitcase and we went out."

—11-year-old Japanese American girl, 1942

Even though two-thirds of the incarcerated Japanese Americans were U.S. citizens, racist beliefs made it possible to ignore their legal rights. General DeWitt said, "The Japanese race is an enemy race and while many second and third generation Japanese born on United States soil, possessed of United States citizenship, have become 'Americanized,' the racial strains are undiluted." Even infants, children, the elderly, and sick were sent to the camps, though they could not be considered a security threat.

A few months after being placed in the "assembly center," everyone was moved to more permanent incarceration camps in remote locations away from the coast. The Japanese Americans lived in barracks surrounded by barbed wire fences and manned guard towers. The United States was fighting to defend democracy, but through these four years of mass incarceration, it suspended many basic constitutional principles:

- right to liberty, property, and due process of the law
- freedom from unreasonable search and seizure
- equal protection under the law
- presumption of innocence
- the right to demand release from unjust imprisonment (habeas corpus)
- right to a speedy trial, to hear the accusations and evidence, to have a lawyer

The American public did not question the decision to remove Japanese Americans from the west coast, or turned a blind eye to these events. Military leaders were given expansive power and influence. Some church groups did object to the injustice. U.S. Attorney General Francis Biddle questioned the constitutionality of the measures, but he was overruled by the president.

In schools set up inside the camps, Japanese American students were taught about the U.S. Constitution, the American system of justice, and the importance of patriotism. Some students and teachers wondered quietly how these lessons could be taught without discussion of their own situation, being unjustly deprived of their liberty.

Remember these Constitutional Principles?

Due process: standards of fairness that U.S. national and local governments must abide by in carrying out laws and legal proceedings.

Unreasonable search and seizure: search of a person or property without probable cause, and without a warrant identifying the person or place to be searched and the property to be seized.

Presumption of innocence: a person at trial cannot be considered guilty until this is proven by the prosecution.

Habeas corpus: protection of individuals against unjustified arrest and imprisonment.

"When I think about it, the assignment that we should be teaching 'love of country' to students who had been uprooted from their homes, transferred from the green Northwest to the Idaho desert, plunked down in primitive conditions and kept behind barbed wire..., who were we to teach them 'love of country'?"

—Caucasian teacher in Minidoka Incarceration Camp

U.S. Supreme Court Upholds Mass Incarceration of Japanese Americans: The 1943 Decision in *Korematsu v. United States*

In 1942, all but a few Japanese Americans in western states followed the government orders that restricted their liberties. The vast majority followed the orders forcing them to leave their homes and businesses and live under armed guard in incarceration camps. The few individuals who challenged the U.S. government's violation of their constitutional rights risked being labeled disloyal or unpatriotic—a risky status at that time. Fred Korematsu was convicted of violating the military orders when he did not go to the assembly center.

Korematsu's case reached the U.S. Supreme Court in 1943. The government lawyers argued that detention was a military necessity, according to General DeWitt's claims. In a 6-to-3 decision in the case of *Korematsu v. United States*, the Supreme Court justices sided with the President and Congress. With this decision, all three branches of government had endorsed the mass incarceration.

Justice Murphy was in the minority who disagreed with the ruling. In his dissenting opinion he said the court must respect the judgment of the military, but that individuals could not be deprived of their constitutional rights without evidence:

Such exclusion goes over the very brink of constitutional power and falls into the ugly abyss of racism. ...It is essential that there be definite limits to military discretion... Individuals must not be left impoverished of their constitutional rights on a plea of military necessity that has neither substance nor support.

Justice Roberts explained why he disagreed with the majority in his dissenting opinion:

I think the indisputable facts exhibit a clear violation of Constitutional rights. ...it is the case of convicting a citizen as a punishment for not submitting to imprisonment in a concentration camp, based on his ancestry, and solely because of his ancestry, without evidence or inquiry concerning his loyalty and good disposition towards the United States.

In the 1970s, it was discovered that the government's lawyers knew they had presented false evidence in 1943 to the Supreme Court. They had tried to conceal General DeWitt's racism and made-up claims of Japanese American disloyalty. A federal district court in 1984 erased Korematsu's conviction for violating the exclusion order. Unfortunately, the Supreme Court's 1944 endorsement of the incarceration itself was not overturned.

"These camps have been definitely an imprisonment under armed guard with orders 'shoot to kill.' In order to be imprisoned, these people should have been given a fair trial in order that they may defend their loyalty at court in a democratic way."

—Fred Korematsu

Dissenting opinion in a U.S.
Supreme Court case:

A Supreme Court justice who disagrees with a majority ruling in a case writes a dissenting opinion as part of the record to explain their opinion. The dissenting opinion might give reason to other justices to reconsider their opinion, or can be referred to on later occasions.

Japanese Americans published their own newspapers inside the camps. This October 10, 1944, issue of the *Gila News-Courier*, from the Gila River camp in Arizona, reports that the Supreme Court will hear Fred Korematsu's and another case about the constitutionality of the internment.



GILA NEWS-COURIER
GILA RIVERS • ARIZONA

VOL. III No. 177 Tuesday, October 10, 1944

PFC. HIGA
Relates War Experiences

Japanese American soldiers in the U.S. Army are fighting, not to kill or to win glory, but to insure a place in this country for all persons of Japanese ancestry. Nisei soldiers are valiant fighters because they have that purpose in mind. The greatest support that civilians can give to these fighting men is to keep writing letters to them in English or in Japanese.

This, in brief, was the message brought from Italy to Rivers' residents Sunday as Pfc. Thomas Higa, wounded veteran of the Italian battle, delivered his two and one-half hour speech at the Butte amphitheater Sunday afternoon and again at the Canal auditorium that evening.

Higa, who arrived here Saturday, left for Poston yesterday.

The Hawaii born, Japan educated, United States soldier Higa, speaking in forceful Japanese, gave an account of his experiences as a member of the 100th Battalion, which left Hawaii on June 5, 1942, left New York harbor on August 20, 1943, and saw first action on September 29 at Salerno.

Pfc. Higa discounted rumors that boys who enter the Army learn to gamble and dissipate in general, and that the Nisei battalion had to spearhead most

SUPREME COURT TO HEAR NISEI CASES THIS WEEK

The United States Supreme Court will hear the Korematsu and Endo cases on Wednesday and Thursday from present indications. The first case on the calendar will be the Korematsu case which will decide the question whether the mass evacuation from the Pacific Coast of all persons of Japanese parentage was constitutional or not. The arguments are expected to start on Wednesday afternoon.

The Endo case which will define the authority of the War Relocation Authority over citizens of Japanese ancestry who are now living in the relocation centers will be argued right after, most likely on Thursday morning.

Wayne Collins of the Northern California branch of the American Civil Liberties Union is expected to argue the Korematsu case. James Purcell of San Francisco is expected to argue the Endo case. Charles Horskey of Washington, D.C., ACLU member, most likely will be allotted some time to argue both cases.

These two test cases, according to the statement of Roger K. Baldwin, director of the ACLU, are the two most important cases pertaining to civil liberties to arise during World War I and World War II.

HOSPITAL PLANS ANNIVERSARY DAY

The second anniversary of the opening of the Rivers hospital will be on October 24 at which time there will be an open house, announced Dr. Grace Lawson.

All residents are invited to the open house which will be from 2 o'clock in the afternoon and the garden party following which will be at the hospital lawn.

of the attacks. Higa stated that of the 1,315 soldiers not a single person started gambling in the Army; everyone who gambled there had gambled as a civilian.

He stated that in the Army there is no such thing as racial discrimination against Nisei. All soldiers take equal risks. When the first Nisei soldiers waded up to the Sa-

(continued to page 2)

USO DRIVE
Rivers Asked To Raise \$900

Arizona's USO drive starts next week with Pinal County's quota set at \$15,000, of which Rivers is asked to raise \$900.

Leslie J. Ross and Paul Loucks, representatives of the county USO Fund Committee were here today discussing Rivers' quota and details of the drive.

The Community Councils will be asked to determine whether they prefer to combine the USO drive and Community Chest drive as was done last year.

Funds for USO go to member organizations such as Salvation Army, YMCA, War Prisoner Relief, etc., while local community chest funds go to national agencies represented on the project such as Nurses Aides, Boy and Girl Scouts, YPA, YMCA, and YWCA.

CHUSHINGURA
JAPANESE FILM TONIGHT

"Chushingura," the Japanese film, will be shown tonight in Butte, and tomorrow night in Canal from 7.

The purpose of showing the film is to raise money for the year's end gift for the hospital workers.

Tickets are being sold by the block managers in their respective blocks.

The projection area in the amphitheater is not a reserved section but a section for those who are working during the evening to sit, announced Tosh Goto of the CAS.

Persons other than workers are asked to cooperate with the CAS by not entering the projection area.

Congress and the President Approve Redress to Japanese Americans: The Civil Liberties Act of 1988

About thirty years after being released from incarceration camps, Japanese Americans started calling for the U.S. government to admit it had wrongly imprisoned them. Groups around the country organized and demanded justice. In response, Congress formed the Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians (CWRIC) to investigate the government's actions towards Japanese Americans.

This commission conducted hearings around the country to investigate what had happened years earlier. They heard testimony from over 750 witnesses, and examined over 10,000 documents. For many Japanese Americans who testified, it was the first time they had talked about the trauma of the camps, and many broke down in tears. For years they had carried the shame of being imprisoned by their government through no fault of their own.

The commission's 1983 report entitled *Personal Justice Denied* found that military necessity was not the cause for the mass imprisonment after all. Instead it concluded: "the broad historical causes which shaped these decisions were race prejudice, war hysteria, and a failure of political leadership."

The commission had uncovered intelligence reports that showed there was no spying or sabotage by Japanese Americans and that they were loyal to the United States. They also found that Japanese Americans had suffered great material losses and emotional damage. The commission recommended that the government give an apology and monetary redress, or compensation, for the injustices it had committed.



Densho Digital Archive, 2008

President Ronald Reagan signed the Civil Liberties Act of 1988, which apologized for the injustice of the World War II incarceration and authorized funding for reparations and education, August 10, 1988.

Densho Digital Archive: denshopd-p10-00006

Redress and reparations: two terms used to refer to Japanese American efforts to get compensation from the U.S. government for being wrongfully detained in incarceration camps during World War II. While often used as synonyms, "redress" can imply an apology; "reparations" specifically refers to monetary compensation.

"At the University of Wisconsin, people would say, 'Where are you from? I never told them I was in camp. I was too ashamed to tell them that. But after the commission hearings, well, since everybody knew about it, then I was able to ...describe to them what the situation was and what conditions we lived under... It kind of opened it all up for me.'"

— Japanese American redress activist

Those opposed to the recommendations argued that many Americans made sacrifices during World War II and that it wasn't appropriate to compensate a group. They also argued that it set a bad example to try and right a wrong that happened so long ago. Yet thousands of Japanese Americans and others successfully demanded redress, defined in the Constitution as the setting right of what is wrong, relief from wrong or injury, and compensation or satisfaction from a wrong or injury.

Congress passed and President Ronald Reagan signed the Civil Liberties Act of 1988, which required payment and apology to survivors of the incarceration. At a ceremony two years later, President George H. Bush presented the first apologies, along with reparation payments of \$20,000, made first to the oldest survivors. Most of the immigrant generation, who had lost everything they worked for when forced into the camps, did not live long enough to know the government had admitted doing them wrong. The letter of apology, signed by President George H. Bush, included the lines:

"A monetary sum and words alone cannot restore lost years or erase painful memories.... We can never fully right the wrongs of the past. But we can take a clear stand for justice and recognize that serious injustices were done to Japanese Americans during World War II."

Handout #14 – Excerpts from Interviews on Japanese American Incarceration

Densho Digital Archive

Densho Visual History Collection

Title: Frank S. Fujii Interview

Narrator: Frank S. Fujii

Interviewers: Larry Hashima (primary), Beth Kawahara (secondary)

Location: Seattle, Washington

Date: September 3 and 5, 1997

Densho ID: denshovh-ffrank-01

<Begin Segment 25>

Personal information: Nisei male. Born 1930 in Seattle, Washington. Grew up in Jackson Street neighborhood in Seattle, Washington. Incarcerated at Puyallup Assembly Center, Washington, and Tule Lake incarceration camp, California. Resettled in Seattle. Former teacher and varsity basketball coach at Seattle's Franklin High School and administrator at Seattle Central Community College.

Interview:

LH: Well, going back again sort of right before you left, I mean, your father actually, eventually was reunited with you and your mother and your brother in Tule Lake. What was that like?

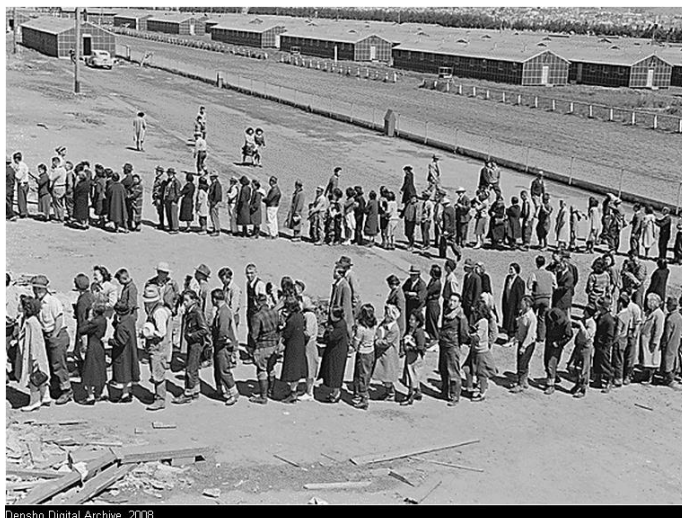
FF: Yeah, I think when the Justice Department okayed his release from Santa Fe, New Mexico to Tule Lake and I said, "Dad's coming back, man." And then I told Seibo, who was still in camp, "He's coming back." And so we knew what day -- they didn't tell us what time. So waiting for a truck to drop him off, and we waited and waited -- and I remember it was in the afternoon, and it was a hot day, and the truck dropped him off, and he had to get off the back, and I grabbed his luggage and I brought it inside. And, now, I didn't see him from '41 December 7th 'til, '44 something, in '44. So that's a few years, and I think when I've grown up so much... I, my body's changed, my looks changed and I'm more a man. I mean, I've grown about 5-6 inches. And so as he looked around the family, Seibo nods and his, my dad's grandson and he looks at Mom. And then some guests that knew him and some people in Tule, Seattle folks that knew him and I think... who else was in camp at that still, Seibo, me, Mom and Kinko. They were all gone in a sense, but the whole scenario was the lot of his peer group, who Dad sort of remembered and didn't, because I think he was, he was too tired that day. But the bad scenario was, as he went around the room, he nodding his head and kinda greeting everybody by looking at them, and kind of saying, "I think I know you, but, hi, how are you." But then he points to me, of all people, and he says, "Who's this boy?" And, you know, that, that really shook me. But I, I never forgot that, because I felt loss at that time. And I think that mental part of it all, that's what, I think the effect of camp does to you. It isn't the

other monetary kind of things that get to you. 'Cause you could always sort of adjust. But the loss of a family tie. It was tough.

And, but I was glad. I was glad he was there. In fact, I tried to be this nice guy to Dad. I said, "Dad, I heard you played *shogi* a lot," and, you know, it's that Japanese chess game. And I said, "If you teach me, I'll play with you," 'cause, you know, I want him to have something to do. And he tried to teach me - the dummy son, "I can't teach him this." But I tried, I really tried, and my brother Seibo knew how to play. He tried to say, "You're too dumb for this, you know, how could -- Dad won't have fun playing with you." So Dad found some older gentlemen to play with, so that was good. But it was hard. I think I lost that, that tie, and ever since then it's been, it was downhill. 'Cause he lost his pride. And to see him come back to Seattle poor. And so... but I wish he would have been -- let's see... he passed away in '66 and he was in a nursing home, and we moved into this house in '65 and wanted him to come see the place. But mentally he wasn't able to deal with that. 'Cause I wanted him to be proud that I had this nice home, and wanted him to appreciate it and think that if it wasn't for him, to be proud of me. But I think he just... well, he couldn't. Then when Mom passed away in '77... well, she was in a nursing home, but one Thanksgiving I thought, "Maybe she could come over." And she was going to. I had a Volkswagen VW bus, so I thought, "Oh perfect. My brothers could lift her and put her in the bus and bring her over to this house." And I thought, "Oh, that would be great." But she canceled out, and I thought, "Oh gosh, I wanted to surprise her and let her know that her son's doing okay," and so I was, that was another tough part.

I think for some reason I probably took it the toughest of all the kids. I was so angry at that Keiro nursing home that I think when you lose your father or one of the parents first and then the second. The first one isn't too tough, but the second one becomes tougher, because it's the finality of no parents at all. And guess what, I was at, on the parking lot after I found out, waiting for the doctor to arrive. And I went to, the Buddhist bus was parked there. And I was angrier than heck and Susie my daughter was with me. And I was angry at the world that this had happened, and I punched right into the side of the bus and I must have hit right in between the flanges so that just a big dent, dent. Okay? I said, "Gee, did I do that? 'Cause it don't hurt my hand, I must have hit it perfect, right?" So I went in to see the Buddhist bus driver at Keiro and asked him, "Is that your bus out there? 'Cause I think I got a dent in it," you know. He came out and said, "That's not you, how could you, your car isn't that high." And I said, "No, no my..." "Your hand? What are you doing up there?" And I didn't realize that when you're angry, I had done that. But you know he couldn't believe me. He didn't believe I did that and I said, "I did it with my hand. My daughter could tell you. Whatever the damage I'll pay for it." And then he says, "No, it's okay." And it was sort of a humorous thing and yet I was angry, and that's what happens when you lose your final parents. But that part, I said to myself, boy, I needed to release, I needed to release. So, I think to see your parents in a nursing home like that and both falter in it, it was tough. I think, you know, you don't want to deal with that and yet I'm glad I feel that way. I think it's because I cared for them so much and I wish I could have done more. But like the baby of the family you can't, you know, wealthy enough to take care of them, or you got your own life to lead. But they always managed to take care of me always so... but we all survived.

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Assembly center new arrivals standing in lines, April 29, 1942, Tanforan Assembly Center, California. Densho Digital Archive.

Densho Digital Archive
Densho Visual History Collection
Title: Kara Kondo Interview
Narrator: Kara Kondo
Interviewers: Alice Ito (primary), Gail Nomura (secondary)
Location: Seattle, Washington
Date: December 7 & 8, 2002
Densho ID: denshovh-kkara-01

<Begin Segment 26>

Personal information: Nisei female. Born 1916 in the Yakima valley, Washington, and spent childhood in Wapato, Washington. Following the bombing of Pearl Harbor, removed to the North Portland Assembly Center, Oregon, and then to the Heart Mountain incarceration camp, Wyoming. Was on the staff of the camp newspaper, the *Heart Mountain Sentinel*. Left camp for Chicago, Illinois, and lived in Pennsylvania, Kentucky and Missouri before returning to Yakima, Washington. Became involved in political organization postwar, such as the League of Women Voters. Testified before the Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians during the redress movement, and became actively involved in groups addressing environmental issues. Ms. Kondo passed away in 2005.

Interview:

AI: Well, I think you had mentioned that it was early June when you and your family were finally actually physically going to leave.

KK: Yes.

AI: Could you tell us about those last days?

KK: Yes. It, it had such a feeling of unreality. The contingent of the military that came from, from Fort Lewis to evacuate us, to get our final papers in order and to actually put us on the train, were very kind. They were helpful, and we worked with them for about, close to a week. And they're the ones that had to see that we got on the train. There were two, we had two trains. One left on, I think it was June the 4th, and the other, the 5th. But I think I went on the first one. And to accompany us from Wapato to Portland was another group that stayed on the -- came to escort us to Portland. And I remember that I was, when we approached there I was helping. I helped with name interpretation and pronunciation and with the, with the GIs that were helping us move. And so I was outside helping them with the names of people who were supposed to get on the train, and I heard a scuffle and pretty soon someone was being kicked off, one of the soldiers that were to accompany us was being thrown off the train. And it was very frightening to think, "Oh my goodness. What's going to happen to us?" And those who had been there said, "Don't worry. Nothing is going to happen to you. They had a little leave time in between and they got drunk. And so they were, but we told them that, gave them explicit instructions that nothing was going to happen to you."

So these are the kinds of things that occurred, but I can never, I can always picture the sun was setting and the crowd was gathering where the people -- some of your friends -- and there were hundreds of people there. Some were there to say goodbye, others came just for the curiosity. And it just had sort of a circus feeling about it. And people were looking for their friends to say goodbye to, and, but finally we got on the train. I remember pronouncing the last name and I got help going up the train. And I said, "Thank you for your help." He said, "Forget it. Thank you." And it was such an odd feeling, it just... as we pulled out I can remember my father holding onto the arm of the seat, hard seat. The blinds had been drawn, but you could, before they did that you could see the shadow of Mt. Adams and the sun behind it. And looking at his face I could just feel that he was saying goodbye to the place that he'd known so well. Pictures like that just really, when you think about it, were very sad. But it was... it was such a -- it's hard to explain the kind of feeling, the atmosphere of that time.

But... and we went, traveled through the night with the shades drawn and got to Portland livestock center, our evacuation center about, really about dawn. And I stayed until the last person got in the, into the compound and heard the gate clang behind me. And I think -- when people ask what my memory was about evacuation -- I think I'll always remember the sound of the gate clanging behind you and knowing that you were finally under, you had barbed wires around you, and you were really being interned.

Well, is there anything else you would like to know as pre-evacuation?

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Densho Digital Archive, 2008

Family inside barrack, Minidoka incarceration camp, Idaho, c. 1943. Densho Digital Archive.

Handout #15: Mass Deportations of Mexican-Americans and Mexican Workers in the U.S.

For more than a century, Mexican Americans have experienced the suspicion that they are living in the U.S.A. as foreigners and might be in this country illegally. Actually, many Mexican American families have been U.S. citizens for several generations; some are descendants of people who have lived in the American Southwest for a couple of centuries. However, when some other Americans feel threatened, they have not recognized the differences between their fellow Americans of Mexican descent and Mexican nationals. At times in U.S. history, anti-Mexican sentiment has resulted in detentions and even mass deportations of people to Mexico, conducted without regard to the constitutional rights of many U.S. citizens who were included.

When the U.S. border was re-established after the 1848 Mexican-American war, people living on both sides continued to go back and forth, as they were accustomed to doing. The border situation changed in 1924, when the Border Patrol was established and paperwork became required to cross legally. Also in 1924, immigration quotas passed that favored Europeans and excluded most people from Asia, yet did not limit people from the western hemisphere. Any number of people from Mexico with the required paperwork could be admitted, along with people from Canada, Central and South America. On the other hand, those in the U.S. without the newly required documentation were now fugitives.

By the 1920s, there were several hundred thousand Mexican Americans, in addition to legal Mexican residents of the U.S. There were some unsuccessful efforts to ban further immigration from Mexico during the 1920s, but Congress did pass legislation to criminalize residency without documentation.

The stock market crash in 1929 and Great Depression of the 1930s was a period of great economic hardship, leaving many Americans without jobs or basic necessities. Mexican Americans, plus Mexican workers in the southwest and in Midwestern cities, found themselves in especially desperate circumstances. The government started up some initial efforts for public assistance, and many Americans did not believe that Mexican Americans or Mexicans should be eligible. Tragically, many public officials decided a way to save resources was to send Mexican legal and illegal residents back to Mexico, and began a large-scale effort of repatriation. 'Repatriation,' however, is not a term that applies to the many Mexican-Americans who were U.S. citizens, yet were included in mass deportations anyway.

Between 1929 and 1936, an estimated 600,000 Mexican nationals and their children (many of whom were U.S. citizens) were sent back to Mexico. Many of them felt the need to leave, since they had no way to support themselves in the U.S., and were suffering from increasingly hostile discrimination. Yet Mexico was in the midst of a depression also.

Under the administration of President Herbert Hoover, repatriation efforts were supported nationally. Secretary of Labor William Doak coordinated with local officials in different states. Together, they strategized forced deportations to have maximum impact for intimidating others into leaving through their own devices. The deportations were planned to transport people to central Mexico, or remote areas, to make it harder to get back to the U.S. border, if anyone wanted to. The methods are described as follows by F. Arturo Rosales:

“Officials knew that it would be impossible to corral all of the undocumented Mexicans, even with beefed up police manpower. So they devised a strategy to intimidate aliens into leaving on their own by coordinating well-publicized raids and rounding up hundreds of Mexicans, regardless of whether or not they carried documents. They discovered that only a small percentage of the Mexicans were undocumented. The next step was to coordinate the voluntary repatriation of southern California Mexicans—i.e., those who were not deportable under the 1929 act. In 1931, Charles P. Visel [Director of the Los Angeles Citizens Committee for Coordination of Unemployment Relief] traveled to Mexico, hoping to arrange with Mexican officials a policy that would allow the homeland to absorb thousands of Mexicans whom county officials and Visel hoped to repatriate. . . .

Mexico promised to take responsibility for the repatriates once they crossed. Repatriation on the American side, however, was more efficient than the measures taken south of the border. Bottlenecks resulted, which left thousands of Mexicans marooned in border towns with little to eat and nowhere to sleep. The repatriation effort, with its zeal and quickness, demonstrated that many Americans saw undocumented or destitute Mexicans as a commodity that could be thrown out once their labor was no longer needed. The promises made by Mexican officials to help those returning home did not materialize.”³

More than half of these deportations from the U.S. were from the state of Texas.

“In the last quarter of 1931 repatriation reached massive proportions; the roads leading to the Texas-Mexico border became congested with returning repatriates. Mexican border towns were also crowded as thousands of returning Mexicans awaited transportation to the interior of Mexico.”⁴

During this time of economic stress of the 1930s, the deportation campaign was an abuse of many people’s rights. Those being ‘repatriated’ were rounded up without allowing for them to make arrangements for their property, or collect pay still due to them. Some families were separated; others were sent to Mexico with young children and elders who were not in the best of health. Many children who were removed from their schools in the U.S. only spoke English, and had difficulty attending school in Mexico. Mexican Americans who were deported were denied their basic rights as U.S. citizens.

In 1954, another round of mass deportations was organized under President Dwight Eisenhower targeting illegal immigrants from Mexico. This time there wasn’t a crisis on the scale of the Great Depression that triggered it. This effort of the Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS) led by General Joseph Swing was given the official name of “Operation Wetback,” which is now a shocking use of this derogatory term. While this program was aimed at illegal immigrants, legal residents and Americans of Mexican descent were subjected to harassment and rejected by employers. Police and

³ Testimonio: A Documentary History of the Mexican American Struggle for Civil Rights
F. Arturo Rosales (2000) from The Latino American Experience
<http://lae.greenwood.com/doc.aspx?i=9&type=all#textml>

⁴ Robert R. McKay *Handbook of Texas Online*, s.v. " , " <http://www.tshaonline.org/handbook/online/articles/MM/pqmyk.html>
(accessed May 6, 2008).

federal agents swarmed Mexican American neighborhoods, and in urban areas, questioned people on the street who they thought were 'Mexican-looking.' From 1953-54, the INS deported approximately two million undocumented immigrants from Mexico, and then smaller numbers in 1955-56.⁵ "Operation Wetback" ended in 1956, with many complaints from within the U.S. and from Mexico of its police-state methods.⁶

In the past ten years, a few community organizations and California State Senator Joseph Dunn sought an apology to Mexican Americans who were deported during the 1930s. After several unsuccessful attempts, state legislation passed in 2006, and the State of California apologized to survivors and their families.⁷

Sources:

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⁵ Dictionary of Latino Civil Rights History, "Operation Wetback" F. Arturo Rosales (2006)

⁶ Operation Wetback Mexican Immigrant Labor History, <http://www.pbs.org/kpbs/theborder/history/timeline/17.html>

⁷ U.S. Mexicans Haunted by Repatriation" by Linda Pressly, BBC Radio 4's Crossing Continents. http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/programmes/crossing_continents/6191862.stm

Handout #16--Primary Source Material on 1930s Mass Deportation

Private groups in many parts of the U.S. organized locally for deportation of Mexicans and Mexican Americans during the 1930s. One such organization was the American Legion in East Chicago, Indiana. The following letter was written by Paul Kelly of the American Legion, to Secretary of Labor William Doak to request his support in their work “to rid this community of Mexicans.”

This community, in the heart of the great industrial region in northwestern Indiana, has a problem, which if settled, would solve many questions vitally affecting each and every one of us here. We have a population, at present, of about 3500 Mexican nationals here in East Chicago comprising some seven hundred odd families. Our social service (charitable) organizations are now caring for the bulk of this Mexican population, few of them now being self-supporting. There are now about 1500 of these aliens willing and ready to go back to old Mexico, but lack the funds necessary for transporting them to the border. Our charitable organizations face an exhaustion of funds with which to feed, house, clothe, and care for indigents and do not have any funds available now for the transportation of aliens to the borders of our country. Prospects for funds in the near future to carry on this charitable work look very dim—the county is faced with a money shortage; in fact, many of the bills for poor relief are paid with “script” payable at tax collecting time in May and November, 1935. Our cities also face a shortage of money, partly due to the immense drain on their resources and partly due to funds tied up in closed banking institutions. Our existing charitable organizations likewise must depend on subscriptions raised from those of us who are fortunate enough to be employed, and receiving pay, and also from subscriptions and donations by the industries of this city.

Here is our problem—to rid this community of Mexicans. The solution, as we understand it, can be had for those who have been here less than three years and are willing to sign an affidavit, or statement, that they will never return to the United States, but we would still have a great many of them remaining here. We also understand that the Mexican government has deported vast numbers of Chinese from Mexico and is endeavoring to populate the areas from which the Chinese are being deported with Mexican nationals who return from other countries so that there would be no diplomatic entanglements to complicate our problem. We understand that the Mexican government is anxious to repatriate all Mexicans who desire to return to their native country and will provide transportation from the border to the place of colonization in Mexico. There are perhaps a thousand Mexicans here who could be deported by that method. To deport the remainder of them is another story.

Our theory is that those railroads who were given their rights-of-way by the United States government when their railroads were built, might be willing to concede a point and run a solid train of these Mexicans to the border, or if need be, several solid trains of them to the border. Certainly some arrangements could be made to feed them on their trip to the Rio Grande by agencies here, but the problem of railroad fare is the momentous one to us, and the latter problem is one that we cannot solve, hence our appeal to you.

If we were able to transport all of the Mexicans who are willing to return to their native country, there would be few, if any remaining here. They cannot withstand the rigors of our severe winter seasons, many of them are afflicted with syphilis, more of them are afflicted with tuberculosis, and they certainly present a difficult social problem.

Many of the Mexicans who are now residing here work two or three days a week, some of them more, many of them less, and if an opportunity was given these folks to return to Mexico, they most certainly would grasp that opportunity. By them leaving, our unemployment problem here in this city, and in fact of almost the entire of Lake County, would be solved.

Paul Kelly to William P. Doak, Secretary of Labor, March 4, 1932, American Legion Repatriation File, East Chicago Historical Society.

Source:

“Testimonio: A Documentary History of the Mexican American Struggle for Civil Rights”

F. Arturo Rosales (2000) from *The Latino American Experience*

<http://lae.greenwood.com/doc.aspx?i=9&type=all#textml>

Oral History Excerpts on the 1930s Mass Deportation

From the article “Unconstitutional Deportation of Mexican Americans in the 1930s”

They were Americans not just by birth but also were culturally American. Mexico was at best an ancestral home. Nevertheless, Mexican and Mexican American families were desperate for work. Thus, many were coerced into migrating to Mexico by offers of cheap one-way train tickets. Other Mexican American families became so desperate that they went on their own in old trucks and cars to remote areas of Mexico. The Mexican government also enticed families with invitations to develop the Mexican hinterland (Balderrama & Valenciana, 2004a; Balderrama & Rodríguez, 1995). These experiences have been poignantly told in oral history interviews such as the following:

We, along with ten other families left from San Pedro [San Pedro, California], in trucks, to here [Punta San Ysidro, Baja California, Mexico]. There was no road from Ensenada. There was nothing here. (Balderrama & Valenciana, 2004a)

Especially important for educators is the experience of elementary and secondary school age children who were expelled to a land which they had never known and frequently encountered living conditions more harsh than their American home (Balderrama & Rodríguez, 1995). The interviewee below explains the way that women had to cart water to do everyday tasks which had previously been done in a house with running water and a washing machine:

In the center of this meson [inn] there was a noria which is a long well. To get the water out of the noria you had to turn the handle around and around to raise the bucket. That's the way I used to pump the water out so I could do my washing. It was a tough life and it was twelve trips back and forth to carry the water. That was about five blocks that I had to go. I never did learn to carry water on my head. I carried it Chinese style. Later when we moved to the ranch it was the same situation. There wasn't dirt but sand that I had to walk over and that was really hard. (Martinez-Southard, 1971)

Many were accustomed to urban life and were suddenly thrust into a largely rural environment where there was no running water such as the situation described above. Many children were forced into child labor for survival and school became a luxury that their families could not afford.

We had to walk approximately fifteen to twenty miles to school. I resented the way we were taken from the United States and taken to Mexico and we had to struggle to live in a place where we had nothing. (Balderrama & Valenciana, 2004b)

Children who had already begun school in the United States had their education severely interrupted:

This was a setback for us. I could have gone to school, my family, my brothers and sisters and I had a better life here. I only went to school for 2½ years. We were living with my grandmother and aunt and they didn't want us living there anymore. (Valenciana, 2003a)

Source:

Valenciana, Christina. "Unconstitutional Deportation of Mexican Americans in the 1930s: Family History and Oral History," *Multicultural Education*, Spring 2006. http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_qa3935/is_200601/ai_n17184253
Also available from ERIC,
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Handout #17—Excerpts from Immigration: The Demographic and Economic Facts, a report published by the Cato Institute and the National Immigration Forum

1. Summary of Important Facts about Immigration

These are the most important demographic and economic facts pertaining to policy decisions about the numbers of immigrants that will be admitted by law into the United States:

The Quantities of Immigration

- The total number of immigrants per year (including illegal immigrants and refugees) nowadays is somewhat less than it was in the peak years at the beginning of the 20th century when U.S. population was less than half as large as it now is.
- The rate of immigration relative to population size now is low rather than high. Immigration as a proportion of population is about a third of what it was in the peak years.
- The foreign-born population of the United States is 8.5 percent of the total population (as of 1990). The proportions in the United States during the period from before 1850 to 1940 were higher--always above 13 percent during the entire period from 1860 to 1930--and the proportions since the 1940s were lower. The present proportion--8.5 percent--also may be compared to the 1990s' proportions of 22.7 percent in Australia; 16 percent in Canada; 6.3 percent in France; 7.3 percent in Germany; 3.9 percent in Great Britain; and 5.7 percent in Sweden.
- Though the volume of illegal immigration is inherently difficult to estimate, a solid body of research, using a variety of ingenious methods, has now arrived at a consensus: the number of illegals in the United States is perhaps 3.2 million, pushed downward by the amnesty of 1987-1988, not very different from a decade before. Many of these persons are transitory. The million-plus persons who registered for the amnesty verify that the total was and is nowhere near the estimates that often have been given in public discussion.
- The rate of illegal immigration is agreed by all experts to be about 250,000 to 300,000 per year.
- More than half of illegal aliens enter legally and overstay their visas and permits. "Less than half of illegal immigrants cross the nation's borders clandestinely. The majority enter legally and overstay their visas" (Fix and Passel 1994, 4).

The Economic Characteristics of Immigrants

- New immigrants are more concentrated than are natives in the youthful labor-force ages when people contribute more to the public coffer than they draw from it; natives are more concentrated in the childhood and elderly periods of economic dependence when the net flows are from the public to the individual. Of all the facts about immigration relevant to its economic effects, this is the most important, and the one which is most consistent in all countries, in all decades and centuries.

- ♦ Taken altogether, immigrants on average have perhaps a year less education than natives--much the same relationship as has been observed back to the 19th century... .

- ♦ Immigrants have increased markedly as a proportion of members of the scientific and engineering labor force (especially at the highest level of education). Immigrants also have increased rapidly as proportions of the pools of U.S. scientists and engineers. Scientific professionals are especially valuable for promoting the increased productivity and growth of the economy.

- ♦ Immigrants, even those from countries that are much poorer and have lower average life expectancies than the United States, are healthier than U.S. natives of the same age and sex. New immigrants have better records with respect to infant mortality and health than do U.S. natives and immigrants who have been in the United States longer.

- ♦ New immigrants are unusually mobile geographically and occupationally, in large part because of their youth. Such mobility increases the flexibility of the economy and mitigates tight labor markets.

The Effects of Immigrants in the Labor Market

- ♦ Immigrants do not cause native unemployment, even among low-paid or minority groups. A spate of respected recent studies, using a variety of methods, agrees that "there is no empirical evidence documenting that the displacement effect [of natives from jobs] is numerically important" (Borjas 1990, 92). The explanation is that new entrants not only take jobs, they make jobs. The jobs they create with their purchasing power, and with the new businesses which they start, are at least as numerous as the jobs which immigrants fill.

- ♦ Re wage effects, one recent summary concludes, "Immigration has no discernible effect on wages overall...Wage growth and decline appear to be unrelated to immigration—a finding that holds for both unskilled and skilled workers" (Fix and Passel 1994, 48). My interpretation of the literature is slightly different: a minor negative effect.

Welfare Use and Taxes Paid

- ♦ Immigrants who enter legally through regular quotas are not permitted to receive public assistance for three years, and they may be deported if they obtain such assistance (though few are). Refugees, however, are entitled to such assistance immediately upon entry, which (together with their needy circumstances) accounts for their high rate of welfare use soon after arrival.

- ♦ If refugees are excluded from the assessment, and only nonrefugees are considered, the rate of welfare use for new immigrants who entered between 1980 and 1990 is considerably below the rate for natives ages 15 and above.

Social Security and Medicare are by far the most expensive transfer payments by the government. The cost of supporting elderly natives is vastly greater than for immigrants. This is because immigrants typically arrive when they are young and healthy, and the appropriate lifetime analysis shows that this provides a large windfall to the national treasury. (Current data alone also show a similar effect because

of the contemporary age distribution of the immigrant population.) Also, older recent immigrants do not qualify for Social Security for many years after arrival.

- ♦ As of the 1970s, immigrants contributed more to the public coffers in taxes than they drew out in welfare services. The most recent available data (for 1975) show that each year, an average immigrant family put about \$2,500 (1995 dollars) into the pockets of natives from this excess of taxes over public costs.
- ♦ Illegal aliens contribute about as much to the public coffers in taxes as they receive in benefits. New data suggest that the undocumented pay about 46 percent as much in taxes as do natives, but use about 45 percent as much in services.

Public Opinion about Immigrants and Immigration

- ♦ The most recent polls of U.S. residents' opinions show that most persons want less immigration. This is consistent with the consensus of all polls since the first such surveys in the 1940s. There does not seem to be a long-run trend in public opinion opposing immigration.
- ♦ A poll of the most respected economists found a consensus that both legal and illegal immigrants are beneficial economically.

No data are presented in this pamphlet concerning racial or ethnic composition or the country of origin of immigrants because these characteristics are not relevant for any policy decisions that are related to the economic consequences of immigration.

[The Cato Institute is a non-profit public policy research foundation headquartered in Washington, D.C. The Institute is named for [Cato's Letters](#), a series of libertarian pamphlets that helped lay the philosophical foundation for the American Revolution.

Cato's Mission: The Cato Institute seeks to broaden the parameters of public policy debate to allow consideration of the traditional American principles of limited government, individual liberty, free markets and peace.]

Handout #18 – Assignment for Editorial Board Meeting Simulation

For this exercise, you will meet in groups of about four students to consider several opinion articles for publication. As members of a newspaper's editorial board, you write editorials on the positions of your newspaper as an institution. You also select outside opinion articles for publication, to present a range of opinion beyond that of the board itself. Your organization is committed to presenting a variety of opinions, but also has high standards for running op-eds.

During the meeting, you will consider several op-eds on an immigration topic. Each group member will take the part of the writer for one article, and will be a board member for the remainder of the meeting. Your group will decide whether to publish the op-eds, using the graphic organizer handout. It is not necessary to choose only one op-ed; you might decide to publish all, some, or none of the articles.

1. As homework, prepare by recording your notes on each article for discussion at the board meeting. Note which op-ed you have 'written,' and what information you need to check on, to be ready for answering questions. You may want to look for sources that back up any factual information that is included.
2. Your newspaper is committed to publishing a variety of viewpoints, but holds op-ed writers to a high standard. The board's decision on publishing will not be based on whether you agree with the opinion expressed. It will be based on whether the writer provides clear reasoning, solid evidence, and adequate context for their position. The article should not be heavily biased, use loaded words, or be insulting in stating an opinion.
3. The board begins the meeting by sharing their individual comments on the op-ed, and taking note of their differences. Board members can take a couple of minutes to ask questions of the writer, for any clarification or substantiation of their article. Come to a decision on publishing it and record your reasons on the handout. Move on to the next op-ed, and review each in the same way.
4. For the upcoming presentation to the class, plan how to report on each of the op-eds you considered. One spokesperson will give a brief summary of the issue addressed by your op-eds. Another spokesperson(s) will report to the class on the position taken by the writers, how they met or did not meet the criteria for publication, and the reasons for your board's decision whether or not to publish the articles.

An **editorial** is an article in a newspaper written to express the opinion of an editor, editorial board, or publisher of that newspaper. These opinion articles appear without the name of the writer, as they represent the views of the organization rather than an individual.

An **op-ed** is an opinion article that appears on the page across from the editorials. An op-ed represents the opinion of the individual writer, and can be a guest writer that has been invited or has proposed the article to the paper's editorial board. Op-eds can also be written by columnists.

An **editorial board** of a newspaper meets regularly for discussion of issues of public concern, meets with people who present viewpoints on those issues, and determines whether the newspaper will take a position on the issue and publish it in an editorial. A member or members of the board will write the article.

Some newspapers have information on their websites about their editorial boards, and their process for publishing op-eds. Some examples are included here for your reference.

Handout #18, cont. Assignment for Editorial Board Meeting Simulation

For Your Reference:

How does an editorial board work?

From the L.A. Times website, "About the Editorial Board"

<http://www.latimes.com/news/opinion/la-op-edboardbios23oct23,0,4130157.htmlstory>

On the editorial page, the newspaper sets aside its objective news-gathering role to join its readers in a dialogue about important issues of the day - to exhort, explain, deplore, mourn, applaud or champion, as the case may be.

What exactly *is* an editorial? The simple answer is: an unsigned article expressing the newspaper's opinion on a matter of public interest. It's the one place in the newspaper where The Times tells you what it thinks as an institution.

Speaking on the newspaper's behalf is the editorial board, consisting of nine writers and three editors, with a variety of viewpoints and expertise. We meet three times a week for an hour or so, bat around ideas and arguments, examine them for flaws, push them in new directions, (sometimes) discard them entirely and (ideally) mold them into coherence. We often have visitors from the worlds of politics, governance, academia and business.

Board members interview sources much like our newsroom colleagues, though we aren't as likely to use quotes. We go wherever our interests lead us - skid row, Sacramento, Shanghai - but we're not entirely free to write whatever we want. The editorial board imposes a few institutional constraints, by design.

One is what is known in the law as *stare decisis*. Our past positions on any given topic help guide our present view. It would be intellectually inconsistent, not to say politically opportunistic, to favor term limits when one party is in office but oppose them when another governs. (For the record, we don't like term limits for anyone.)

The writing of editorials is a team effort; they aren't columns reflecting any one person's viewpoint. A member of the board (editors included) can't write an editorial endorsing a position in the absence of consensus among the group. That is not to say we are a full democracy. Editors have a bigger say, especially in wielding a veto, and report directly to the publisher, who has an even bigger say.

How is the op-ed section put together?

From the New York Times website:

"And Now a Word from Op-Ed," David Shipley, Feb 1, 2004.

<http://www.nytimes.com/2004/02/01/opinion/01SHIP.html?ex=1210478400&en=43ca6b0b4c05ef22&ei=5070>

According to an editorial introducing the page, Op-Ed was created to provide a forum for writers with "no institutional connection with The Times" — writers whose views would "very frequently be completely divergent from our own."

To understand Op-Ed, it helps to understand how the page fits into The Times. The paper is divided into two worlds: news and editorial. News is big. With the exception of advertising, it is responsible for just about everything you read in The Times: the national, foreign and metropolitan reports, the Book Review, the magazine and so on. Editorial is tiny. Everything it produces appears on the page you're reading now and the one to its left.

In addition to Op-Ed, these two pages are home to editorials, letters and the columns. Each plays a different role. The editorials are the responsibility of the publisher and the editorial board — they speak for the editorial page and not, under any circumstances, for the news side of the paper. The letters office publishes readers' responses to news articles, editorials and essays that have appeared in The Times. The seven regular staff columnists represent themselves.

And Op-Ed? It's sometimes easiest to define it in the negative. Op-Ed is different from the editorial page in that it does not represent the views of anyone in the editorial division, even its own editors. It is different from letters in that it is not a venue to debate articles that have appeared in The Times. It is different from the columnists in that, well, the columnists do their own thing. (They are the responsibility of the publisher and editorial page editor. Our involvement with them is pretty much limited to filling the extra space when they go on vacation.)

These differences are important because Op-Ed, in some measure, is shaped by its neighbors. The Op-Ed editors tend to look for articles that cover subjects and make arguments that have not been articulated elsewhere in the editorial space. If the editorial page, for example, has a forceful, long-held view on a certain topic, we are more inclined to publish an Op-Ed that disagrees with that view. If you open the newspaper and find the editorial page and Op-Ed in lock step agreement or consistently writing on the same subject day after day, then we aren't doing our job.

Our decisions about which essays to publish aren't governed by a need for editorial variety alone. Among other things, we look for timeliness, ingenuity, strength of argument, freshness of opinion, clear writing and newsworthiness. Personal experiences and first-person narrative can be great, particularly when they're in service to a larger idea. So is humor, when it's funny. Does it help to be famous? Not really. In fact, the bar of acceptance gets nudged a little higher for people who have the means to get their message out in other ways — elected officials, heads of

state, corporate titans. It's incumbent on them to say something forthright and unexpected. Op-Ed real estate is too valuable to be taken up with press releases.

Are there guidelines for submitting an article? You bet. Shoot for about 750 words — though it's worth remembering that some terrific and influential Op-Ed pieces have been as short as 300 words. Move quickly; the news does. Eschew, um, I mean, stay away from Olympian language and bureaucratic jargon (infrastructure, inputs, outlays). Write the article the way you'd like to write it — not the way you think The Times wants you to write it. Make one argument thoroughly, point by point; the more detail the better. If you try to do too much, you can wind up with an article that, in striving to say everything, ends up saying nothing.

How can I get an op-ed piece published?

Excerpt from “Newspapers: The Black and White on Getting into Print”
Global Development Research Center, <http://www.gdrc.org/ngo/media/015.html>

1. Op-Ed Pieces

Submitting articles to the op-ed section of local or national newspapers is probably the best means available to our community to influence the perceptions of the media and the general public. If you follow these basic procedural and substantive guidelines, it is more likely that your thoughts will be published and reach your intended audience. . . .

On Substance

Get to the point quickly. Do not take up too much space in the beginning of the article introducing your subject. Your main thesis should be stated at the outset and then elaborated upon rather than the reverse.

Stay within established intellectual parameters. If you include ideas considered to be on the “fringe” of acceptable debate, such as conspiracy theories and the like, the editor will not read any further and will automatically reject your piece.

If you wish to introduce a new concept or state a fact which is not widely known, you must explain it logically and prove its validity in a convincing manner. Such points must be fully presented, not assumed or woven into the language.

Be topical. Do not use up a lot of space rehashing historical arguments unless they are new to your intended readers and impact directly upon the current frame of debate. Otherwise, historical references should be made only in passing.

Stay on cutting edge. Dramatic changes occur in the world every week and sometimes even on a daily basis, and current frameworks of discussion vary accordingly. Train your eye to the future and not to the past; keep your ideas one step ahead of the news rather than one step behind it.

Be careful with adjectives, as their overuse is often interpreted as emotional or propagandistic. Even if you are not objective, try to write so that your conclusions appear to be arrived at objectively.

Handout #18, cont. Assignment for Editorial Board Meeting Simulation – Graphic Organizer

Each student will need three copies, or one for each editorial.

Group:	Issue:
Title of the Article:	
Writer's summary of the issue:	
Position taken by the writer:	
Reasoning to support their position:	
Key Points or Evidence:	
Use of terminology or biased language:	
Framing, or context given for the issue:	
Recommendation on publishing:	
Reason for recommendation:	

Handout #18, cont. Assignment for Editorial Board Meeting Simulation – Meeting Assessment

Group Project Rubric

Name _____ Date of Evaluation: _____

Evaluate the group as a unit with this section of the evaluation tool, and write the score in the score box.

Category	4 Excellent	3 Proficient	2 Partial	1 Minimal	Score
Distribution of Group Tasks	Work was shared fairly according to the abilities and interests of the members	We divided up and completed the work equally	Everyone had a job to do but some jobs were incomplete	Some group members did not complete any of the work	
Communication among group members	We talked all the time and shared our work for group feedback	We usually asked each other for help and showed our work to each other	We talked about what we were doing	We only talked when we needed to, but received little feedback	
Individual Participation	Everyone did a great job, I would work with these people again	We all seemed to find our place and do what was needed	Each person did some work and tried to do a fair share	A few people tried very hard, but most didn't do much	
Listening to other points of view	Everyone listened to each other a lot, and used what we heard to improve our work and the whole project	We listened while others talked, we learned different viewpoints, and used some of that information	We usually listened to each other and tried to use what they said in the project	We usually listened to what others were saying but some either did not share ideas or argued	
Rate your experience of this group project	It was a valuable and realistic way to learn. My group was great.	I liked learning this way and would probably try it again	I learned that group work can sometimes be helpful	I would rather work alone	

Handout #18, cont. - Editorial Board Meeting Assessment

Our group discussed opinion articles on the immigration topic _____ -

My opinion on this topic before the assignment was: _____

I was able to evaluate the opinion articles on the basis of their reasoning and evidence (and not on the basis of whether I agreed with the opinion) by:

As a result of our group discussion, I changed my mind on whether an article (or articles) should be published, because:

The articles I agreed with were: _____ and I agreed with them because:

My understanding of the issue is different as a result of this assignment, in this way:

My opinion now on this topic is:

Handout #19 – Opinion Articles for Editorial Board Meeting

Topic 1: Are Immigrants an Economic Threat and Competition for Jobs?

Boot, Max. "Immigrants are a boon, not a curse," *Los Angeles Times*. December 3, 2007.
<http://www.latimes.com/news/opinion/la-oe-boot3dec03,0,7320527.story?coll=la-opinion-righttrail>

Dobbs, Lou. "Big media hide truth about immigration," *Lou Dobbs Tonight*, CNN.com.
April 25, 2007. <http://www.cnn.com/2007/US/04/24/Dobbs.April25/index.html>

Shah, Anup. "Immigration," *Global Issues*. May 26, 2008.
<http://www.globalissues.org/HumanRights/racism/immigration.asp>

Topic 2: Border Security—Will a Fence Do the Job?

"Border fence waivers show feds' arrogance," *San Antonio Express-News*. April 3, 2008.
<http://www.mysanantonio.com/opinion/editorials/stories/MYSA040408.01O.Fence1ed.25ff92c.html>

Swarns, Rachel L. "U.S. Cites Rise in Violence Along Border With Mexico," February 11, 2006.
<http://weneedafence.blogspot.com/2006/02/rising-violence-along-mexican-border.html>

"Court should halt rush to complete fence on border," *Mercury News Editorial*, April 9, 2008.
http://www.mercurynews.com/opinion/ci_8860844

Topic 3: Are immigrants a threat to American culture and a cohesive society?

King, Steve. "Illegal immigration threatens America's future." *Sioux City Journal*.
http://www.siouxcityjournal.com/articles/2005/09/18/news_opinion/editorial/f22c81c1714f30f68625707f0002bc8f.txt

Naison, Mark W. "If History Is a Guide, The Immigration Debate Is Going to Get Ugly Very Fast."
History News Network, George Mason University. May 22, 2006. <http://hnn.us/articles/25364.html>

Robinson, Nathanael. "Spanish Spoken Here." March 24, 2006. *History News Network*, George Mason University
<http://hnn.us/blogs/comments/23256.html>

Topic 4: Should undocumented residents benefit from education and other public services?

"Our view on immigration and education: Harsh and counterproductive" *U.S.A. Today*

“Immigration and Welfare,” *Wall Street Journal* May 24, 2007
<http://www.opinionjournal.com/editorial/feature.html?id=110010116>

“The Costs to Local Taxpayers for Illegal or ‘Guest’ Workers,” 2006. Federation for Immigration Reform.
http://www.fairus.org/site/PageServer?pagename=research_localcosts

Topic 5: Detentions of undocumented residents

Solomon, Alisa. “Kids in Captivity” February 26th, 2002. *Village Voice*.
<http://www.villagevoice.com/news/0209,solomon,32643,1.html>

Pearson, Erica. “Out Of Sight But Not Out Of Mind,” *Gotham Gazette*. June 2002.
<http://www.gothamgazette.com/citizen/june02/original-detention.shtml>

“Dying in Detention,” *New York Times*. June 11, 2008
<http://www.nytimes.com/2008/06/11/opinion/11wed2.html?ref=todayspaper>

Topic 6: How can we best legislate for immigration reform?

Daniels, Roger. “An Old New Immigration Policy, Flaws and All.” *Chronicle of Higher Education*, February 6, 2004. Re registry, amnesty, and temporary agricultural workers policy

Dillin, John. “How Eisenhower Solved Illegal Border Crossings from Mexico,” *Christian Science Monitor* July 6, 2006. <http://www.csmonitor.com/2006/0706/p09s01-coop.htm>

Preston, Julia. “New Tactics to Control Immigration are Unveiled,” *New York Times*, Feb. 23, 2008.
<http://www.nytimes.com/2008/02/23/washington/23immig.html>

Excerpt from *Close To Slavery: Guestworker Programs in the United States*, a report by the Southern Poverty Law Center

Executive Summary

In his 2007 State of the Union Address, President Bush called for legislation creating a “legal and orderly path for foreign workers to enter our country to work on a temporary basis.” Doing so, the president said, would mean “they won’t have to try to sneak in.” Such a program has been central to Bush’s past immigration reform proposals. Similarly, recent congressional proposals have included provisions that would bring potentially millions of new “guest” workers to the United States.

What Bush did not say was that the United States already has a guestworker program for unskilled laborers — one that is largely hidden from view because the workers are typically socially and geographically isolated. Before we expand this system in the name of immigration reform, we should carefully examine how it operates.

Under the current system, called the H-2 program, employers brought about 121,000 guestworkers into the United States in 2005 — approximately 32,000 for agricultural work and another 89,000 for jobs in forestry, seafood processing, landscaping, construction and other non-agricultural industries.

These workers, though, are not treated like “guests.” Rather, they are systematically exploited and abused. Unlike U.S. citizens, guestworkers do not enjoy the most fundamental protection of a competitive labor market — the ability to change jobs if they are mistreated. Instead, they are bound to the employers who “import” them. If guestworkers complain about abuses, they face deportation, blacklisting or other retaliation.

Federal law and U.S. Department of Labor regulations provide some basic protections to H-2 guestworkers — but they exist mainly on paper. Government enforcement of their rights is almost non-existent. Private attorneys typically won’t take up their cause.

Bound to a single employer and without access to legal resources, guestworkers are:

- routinely cheated out of wages;
- forced to mortgage their futures to obtain low-wage, temporary jobs;
- held virtually captive by employers or labor brokers who seize their documents;
- forced to live in squalid conditions; and,
- denied medical benefits for on-the-job injuries.

House Ways and Means Committee Chairman Charles Rangel recently put it this way: “This guest-worker program’s the closest thing I’ve ever seen to slavery.”²

Congressman Rangel’s conclusion is not mere hyperbole — and not the first time such a comparison has been made. Former Department of Labor official Lee G. Williams described the old “*bracero*” program — the guestworker program that brought thousands of Mexican nationals to work in the United States during and after World War II — as a system of “legalized slavery.”³ In practice, there is little difference between the *bracero* program and the current H-2 guestworker program.

The H-2 guestworker system also can be viewed as a modern-day system of indentured servitude. But unlike European indentured servants of old, today’s guestworkers have no prospect of becoming U.S. citizens. When their work visas expire, they must leave the United States. They are, in effect, the disposable workers of the U.S. economy.

This report is based on interviews with thousands of guestworkers, a review of the research on guest-worker programs, scores of legal cases and the experiences of legal experts from around the country. The abuses described here are too common to blame on a few “bad apple” employers. They are the foreseeable outcomes of a system that treats foreign workers as commodities to be imported as needed without affording them adequate legal safeguards or the protections of the free market.

The H-2 guestworker program is inherently abusive and should not be expanded in the name of immigration reform. If the current program is allowed to continue at all, it should be completely overhauled. Recommendations for doing so appear at the end of this report.

² U.S. Representative Charles Rangel, speaking on CNN’s Lou Dobbs Tonight, Jan. 23, 2007

³ Quoted in Majka, Theo J. and Patrick H. Mooney, *Farmers’ and Farm Workers Movements* (Twayne Publishers 1995) 52.

Topic 7. How much of a problem IS illegal immigration?

The Great Immigration Panic, *New York Times* June 3, 2008
<http://www.nytimes.com/2008/06/03/opinion/03tue1.html>

Malkin, Michelle. "Immigration threat eludes Wall Street Journal." April 22, 2002. *Bnet*.
http://findarticles.com/p/articles/mi_m1571/is_14_18/ai_84971451

"Our Border Brigades: The nativist right is wrong," *The Wall Street Journal*. January 27, 2004.
<http://www.opinionjournal.com/editorial/feature.html?id=110004610>

Handout #20—Reflection on Causes of Conflict Presentations

Writing Exercise:

Write a one- to two-page reflection after giving your presentation on your position paper, and listening to your fellow student presentations. Below are suggested questions to guide your reflection.

- What are some of the things you learned from other students' presentations in terms of content?
- What connections did you notice between the different conflicts that were discussed?
- Was there a type of conflict that seemed to come up over and over again in different forms, and if so, how would you explain it?
- How useful was the analysis according to needs, resources and beliefs? Did you see any similar patterns from one conflict to another in these terms?
- What did you notice about the kinds of communication that escalated conflict?
- What did you learn about possibilities for communicating to resolve social conflict?
- What conflicts that you heard about are you most concerned about, if any?
- From listening to your fellow students, what did you learn about how to state a position persuasively in a presentation, and support it? How (not by who) was this done most successfully?
- What would you do differently, if anything, when preparing to give a persuasive presentation again?
- What would you research further to increase your understanding?