

# 1 EXECUTIVE ORDER 9066: HISTORY AND LEGACY

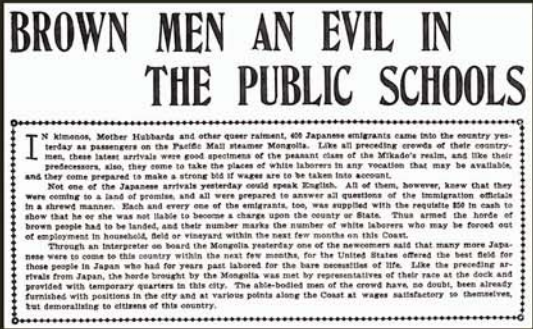
During Word War II, the U.S. government incarcerated nearly 120,000 people of Japanese ancestry, including American citizens and lawful permanent residents, in desolate sites in the interior of the United States.

There is no one story of the impact that these actions had on Japanese Americans. There are myriad stories. They are complex and nuanced. No single exhibit can do them justice. What can be said is that the consequences of these actions were deeply felt and continue to be so today, 75 years later.

Through this exhibit, we introduce you to some of these stories.

## PRE-WWII

Even prior to the bombing of Pearl Harbor, Japanese Americans were subjected to discrimination. In the press, Japanese immigrants were depicted as morally degenerate and criminal. Additionally, in 1922 the United States Supreme Court ruled in the *Ozawa* case, reaffirming the ban on Japanese immigrants from becoming naturalized U.S. citizens. (This ban would last until 1952.)



Courtesy of the San Francisco Chronicle



San Francisco residents read newspapers the day after Pearl Harbor.

Tensions between the United States and Japan grew in the 1930's. In anticipation of a possible war, the U.S. government began surveillance in the Japanese American community. Although these investigations determined that Japanese Americans would present minimal security risks, the government prepared lists of Japanese community leaders to be rounded up and imprisoned in the event of war.

### November 1941

A U.S. Intelligence report known as the “Munson Report” commissioned by President Roosevelt concluded that the great majority of Japanese Americans were loyal and did not pose a threat to national security in the event of war with Japan.

### December 7, 1941

Japan bombs U.S. ships and planes at the Pearl Harbor military base in Hawaii. Over 3,500 servicemen are wounded or killed. Martial law is declared in Hawaii. The FBI begins arresting Japanese immigrants identified as community leaders: priests, Japanese language teachers, newspaper publishers, and heads of organizations. Within 48 hours, 1,291 are arrested. Most of these men would be incarcerated for the duration of the war, separated from their families.



### December 11, 1941

The Western Defense Command is established with Lt. Gen. John L. DeWitt as the commander.

**“A Jap’s a Jap. It makes no difference whether he is an American citizen or not.”**

— Lt. Gen. John L. DeWitt

### December 15, 1941

Without any evidence of sabotage, Secretary of the Navy Frank Knox announces to the press, “I think the most effective Fifth Column work of the entire war was done in Hawaii...”



**Despite the findings of the Munson Report and of other government officials that the Japanese Americans posed no significant threat, as the United States entered World War II, a widespread fear grew that people of Japanese descent could pose a security threat to the country.**

## WORDS MATTER

The precise use of words is essential when discussing this chapter of U.S. history. In this exhibit, we use terminology from the *Power of Words Handbook: A Guide to Language About Japanese Americans in World War II*, published in 2013 by the Japanese American Citizens League (and available online).

The commonly used word “Internment” has a legal definition that refers to the confinement or impounding of enemy aliens in a time of war (*Merriam-Webster Dictionary*, 2011). Most of the several tens of thousands of people of Japanese ancestry that were held in WRA camps during World War II were American citizens; thus the term “internment” does not apply to them, and as to them this exhibit will use the more accurate term “incarcerated.” Where other terms reflect the federal government’s WWII strategy of using euphemistic terms to mask the true nature of what was being done, those terms will appear in quotation marks.





## 2 EXECUTIVE ORDER 9066 AND PUBLIC PROCLAMATION No. 1



On February 19, 1942, President Roosevelt signed Executive Order 9066 authorizing military authorities to exclude civilians from any area without trial or hearing. The order did not specify Japanese Americans -- but they were the only ethnic minority citizens to be incarcerated as a result.

On March 2, 1942, Public Proclamation No. 1 began to appear on telephone poles and buildings. This was the first official notice Japanese Americans had of their immediate removal from the West Coast. The notices stated that they had six or seven days to prepare, and were to take only what they could carry. They were not told where they would be taken. People rushed to sell or store, in one week, property and belongings acquired over a lifetime. Some families tucked their valuables away in their attic or basement and locked the door, hoping to return soon.

A curfew also went into effect in the western halves of Washington State, California, Oregon, and parts of Arizona - all those of Japanese ancestry were to remain at home from 8 p.m. to 6 a.m.

“It is difficult to describe the feeling of despair and humiliation experienced by all of us as we watched the Caucasians coming to look over our possessions and offering such nominal amounts knowing we had no recourse but to accept whatever they were offering because we did not know what the future held for us.”

— Yasuko Ito



The economic and emotional toll associated with the uprooting of Japanese Americans from their homes and businesses was enormous.

The cost was especially high for the Issei (first-generation immigrants), who had worked most of their lives to establish financial security for themselves and their children.



Oakland, California  
March 13, 1942

In 1943, government photographs documented destruction by vandals of Japanese American property stored at the Nichiren Buddhist Church in Los Angeles.

“The catastrophe before my eyes was a hopeless mass of deliberate destruction. Everything was a conglomeration of unrecoverable damaged things. Nothing was untouched.”

— Mrs. Cecil Itano





### 3 THE “EVACUATION”

On the appointed “evacuation” day, thousands of Japanese Americans gathered at designated locations, with the numbered identification tags that had been issued tied to their coats. Watched by curious onlookers, they were met by armed soldiers and transported in buses, private cars, and trains to sixteen temporary “assembly centers” in California, Washington, Oregon and Arizona.



“As a result of the interview, my family name was reduced to No. 13660. I was given several tags bearing the family number, and was then dismissed.... Baggage was piled on the sidewalk the full length of the block. Greyhound buses were lined alongside the curb.”

— Mine Okubo, Tanforan Assembly Center, San Bruno

“We were hearded onto the train just like cattle and swine. I think the Japanese left in a very quiet mood, for we were powerless. We had to do what the government ordered.”

— Misuyo Nakamura, Santa Anita Assembly Center, Los Angeles, and Jerome Relocation Center, Arkansas



“Although we were not informed of our destination, it was rumored that we were heading for Missoula, Montana. There were many leaders of the Japanese community aboard our train.... The view outside was blocked by shades on the windows, and we were watched constantly by sentries with bayoneted rifles who stood on either end of the coach. The door to the lavatory was kept open in order to prevent our escape or suicide.... There were fears that we were being taken to be executed.”

— Yoshiaki Fukuda, Konkko church minister in San Francisco, apprehended December 7, 1941





# 4 LIFE IN THE CAMPS

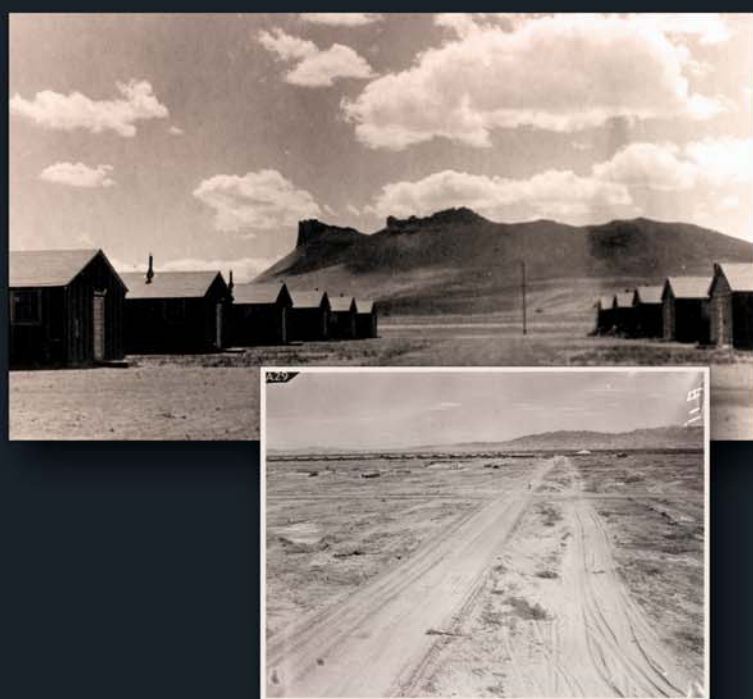
May 1942

The incarcerated begin transfer to permanent War Relocation Authority ("WRA") incarceration facilities or "camps." They totaled ten: Manzanar, Poston, Gila River, Topaz, Granada, Heart Mountain, Minidoka, Tule Lake, Jerome, and Rohwer.

In early 1942, Henry McLeMORE, a Hearst syndicated columnist, called for sending the Japanese "to a deep point in the interior. I don't mean a nice part of the interior either. **Herd 'em up, pack 'em off and give 'em the inside room in the badlands.**"

"Meanest dust storms... and not a blade of grass. And the springs are so cruel; when those people arrived there they couldn't keep the tarpaper on the shacks."

— Dorothea Lange, at Manzanar



Tule Lake Concentration Camp, California

"The next morning, the first morning in Manzanar, when I woke up and saw what Manzanar looked like, I just cried. And then I saw the mountain, the high Sierra Mountain, just like my native country's mountain, and I just cried, that's all. I couldn't think about anything."

— Yuri Tateishi, Manzanar Relocation Center



"Nothing to do. Lines for breakfast, lines for lunch, lines for supper, lines for mail, lines for the canteen, lines for laundry tubs, lines for toilets. The most common activity is waiting."

— Linda Gordon



"We've been able to get these people in all their destitute, terrible condition to build a new life for themselves."

— Ralph P. Merritt, Director of Manzanar

"Dad was never the same. His confidence was really shaken. He could not provide for his family. The incarceration destroyed our family."

— Kayoko Ikuma



"Maintaining personal cleanliness was difficult due to **chronic shortage of soap and hot water. No decent provision for washing diapers. Dust. Mud. Ugliness. Terrible food**—definitely not Japanese—doled onto plates from large garbage cans."

— Linda Gordon, From *Impounded: Dorothea Lange and the Censored Images of Japanese American Internment*





# 5 VARIED RESPONSES TO THE INCARCERATION WITHIN THE JAPANESE AMERICAN COMMUNITY

*“My sister and I were angry that our country would deprive us of our civil rights in so cavalier a manner, but we had been raised to respect and trust those in authority. To us resistance or confrontation, such as we know them today, was unthinkable and of course would have had no support from the American public. We naively believed at the time that cooperating with the government edict was the best way to help our country.”*

— Yoshiko Uchida

## THE “LOYALTY OATH” AND THE “NO-NO BOYS”

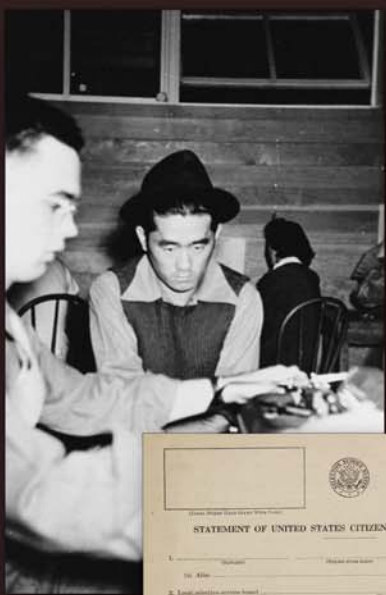
The WRA recognized that Japanese Americans eventually would have to reenter society. Thus, the WRA enacted a policy of granting short-term or indefinite leave for college or work to Japanese Americans who were U.S. citizens (Nisei) and who could find sponsors. Additionally, thousands of Nisei men enlisted in the military. To help administer the military draft and work release program, the U.S. Army and the WRA produced “loyalty questionnaires” for all WRA incarcerated seventeen years of age and older. In February 1943, the WRA launched the questionnaire in a misguided attempt to segregate the “loyal” and “disloyal.”

**Question 27: “Are you willing to serve in the armed forces on combat duty?”**

**Question 28: “Will you swear unqualified allegiance to the United States and forswear allegiance to the Japanese emperor?”**

“Yes” answers to these questions made incarceratedees eligible for service in the U.S. Army, and some became eligible for release and resettlement in areas outside of the West Coast exclusion zones.

Though the vast majority eventually answered the key loyalty questions affirmatively, a significant minority either refused to answer, gave qualified answers, or answered negatively – about 12,000 of the 78,000 people over the age of 17 to whom the questionnaire was distributed. People who answered in any of these manners were considered “disloyal” and were ultimately segregated at Tule Lake. Though not all of them technically answered “no” to questions 27 and 28, the adult male portion of what the WRA called “segregees” became synonymous with the “no-no boys” in the years after the war.



The “Loyalty Questionnaire,” 1943.



## SERVICE BY JAPANESE AMERICANS IN THE US ARMY

In January 1943, the War Department announced the formation of a segregated unit of Japanese American soldiers, and called for volunteers in Hawaii (where Japanese Americans were not incarcerated) and from among the men incarcerated in the camps. In March of that year 10,000 Japanese American men volunteered for the armed services from Hawaii and 1,200 volunteered from out of the camps.

Bette and Kuichi Takei, photographed in August of 1943 (Image courtesy of Carl Takei)



*“Over the years, many have asked us – Why? Why were you willing and ready to give up your life? I told my son it was a matter of honor. I told him about my father’s farewell message when I left home to put on the uniform of my country. My father was not a man of eloquence but he said, ‘Whatever you do, do not dishonor the family, and do not dishonor the country.’ To have done any less than we did in battle would have dishonored our families and our country.”*

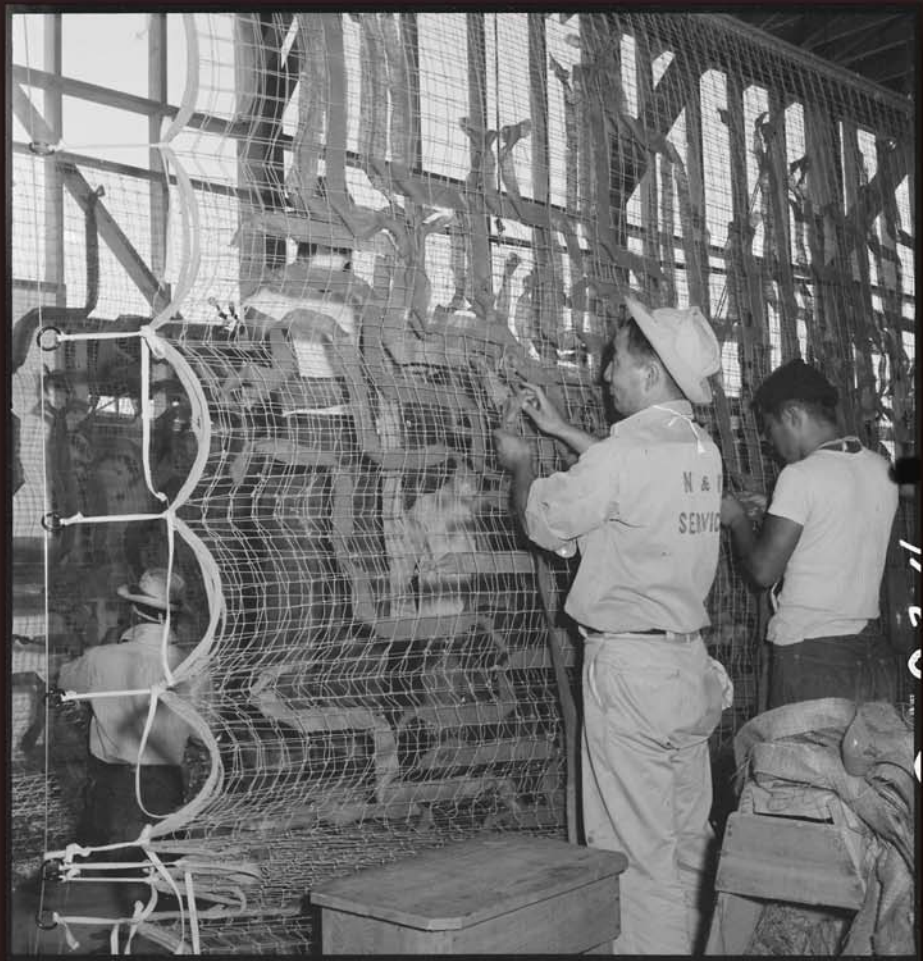
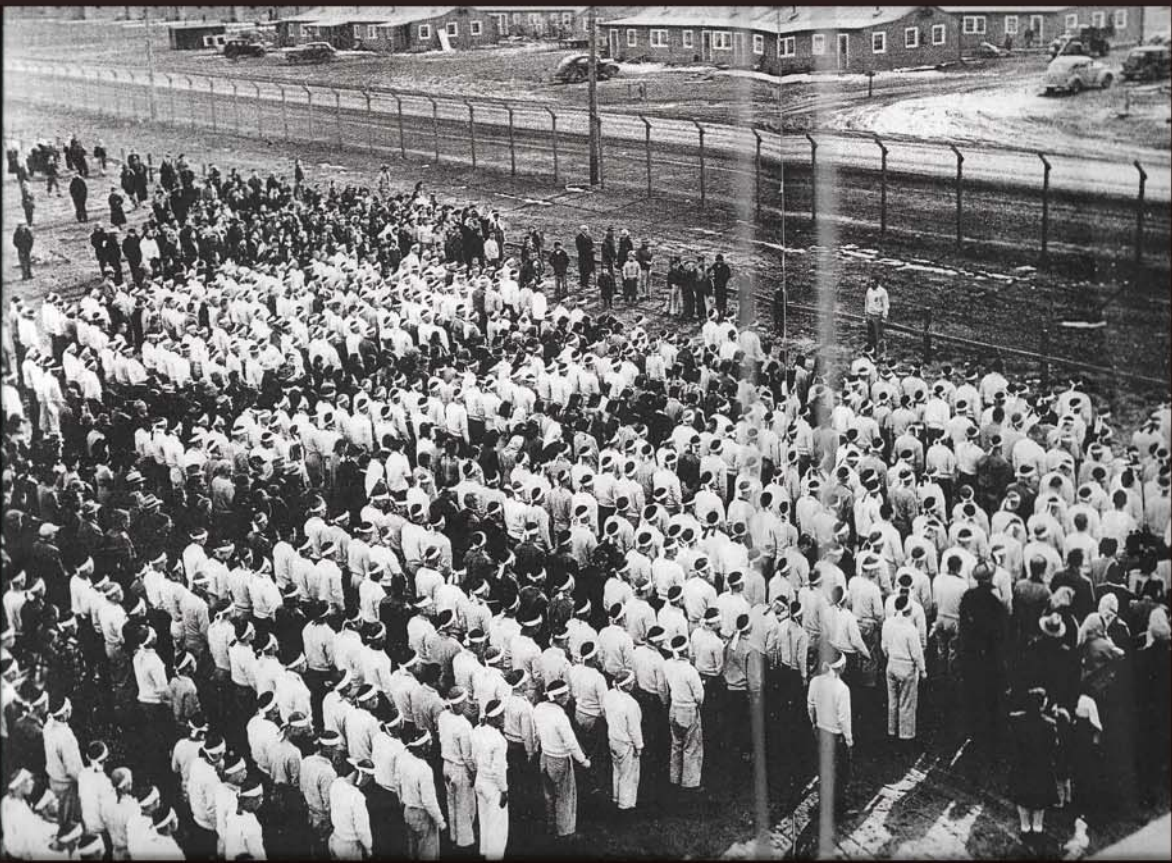
— DANIEL K. INOUE

From keynote speech, 50th anniversary of the Regimental Combat Team in Hawaii, March 24, 1993

## TULE LAKE

As inmates at other camps were encouraged to leave, conditions at Tule Lake deteriorated. The loyalty segregation program had swelled its population to almost 18,500 - far above capacity. A “man-proof” barbed-wire fence was built along its perimeter and the number of towers for armed-guards grew from 6 to 28. Military police patrolled the camp in armored cars.

Imposition of martial law and the isolation of elected leaders in a stockade led to protests and the rise of pro-Japan nationalist fervor. Short-wave radio transmissions claimed that Japan was winning the war. Rumors and misinformation were confused as truth and led to thousands renouncing their U.S. citizenship. In a show of strength, hundreds of young men marched every morning.



## STRIKES

There were riots, sit-down strikes, work stoppages and other episodes of unrest at the camps, much of it to protest the deplorable living conditions there. Manzanar inmates were hired to manufacture camouflage nets for the War Department.

The nets were first made at Santa Anita, where a work force that numbered close to a thousand produced hundreds of nets a week that were used in gun embankments and on Allied tanks. Security concerns aside, the Geneva Conventions stipulated that Japanese nationals could not be forced to do war work. So young Nisei were pressured to fill the ranks. They were told that working in the net factors was their patriotic duty.

In June 1942, a Santa Anita worker walked off the job, telling bosses he was hungry. When he was ordered back to work, his coworkers joined him in a spontaneous strike. They complained about the food, the dust, the fumes, and the long hours.



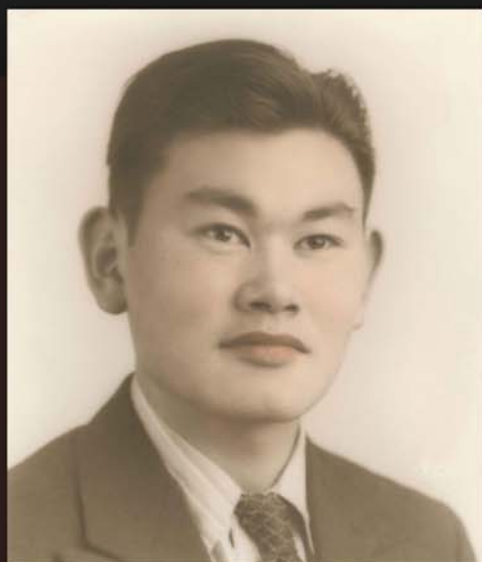
# 6 LEGAL CHALLENGES

## FRED T. KOREMATSU

Fred Toyosaburo Korematsu was born in Oakland, California, in 1919. Because of his Japanese ancestry, Korematsu's efforts to enlist in the U.S. National Guard and U.S. Coast Guard were re-buffed, and he was also suddenly fired from his welder job at the Oakland docks. Korematsu chose to defy Executive Order 9066 and to carry on his life as an American citizen. On May 30, 1942, he was arrested and jailed. While in jail, Ernest Besig, the director of the San Francisco office of the American Civil Liberties Union, asked Korematsu if he was willing to become the test case to challenge the constitutionality of the government's imprisonment of Japanese Americans. On September 8, 1942, Korematsu was convicted in federal court for violating the military orders issued under Executive Order 9066.

Believing the conviction unconstitutional, Korematsu appealed his case to the U.S. Supreme Court. In December 1944, the Court ruled against him in a 6 to 3 decision, declaring that the incarceration was not caused by racism, and was justified by the Army's claims of "military necessity." In one of the three strong dissents, Justice Robert Jackson wrote: *"the Court for all time has validated the principle of racial discrimination ... The principle then lies about like a loaded weapon, ready for the hand of any authority that can bring forward a plausible claim of an urgent need."* In another dissent, Justice Frank Murphy wrote: *"Racial discrimination in any form and in any degree has no justifiable part whatever in our democratic way of life."*

Decades later, University of California San Diego political science professor Peter Irons, together with researcher Aiko Herzig-Yoshinaga, stumbled upon secret archived Justice Department documents, including memos written in 1943 and 1944 by Edward Ennis, the U.S. Justice Department attorney who supervised the drafting of the government's Supreme Court brief in the Korematsu case.



Ennis' memo referenced reports by J. Edgar Hoover's FBI, the FCC, the Office of Naval Intelligence and other authoritative intelligence agencies denying that Japanese Americans had committed any wrongdoing and found that the Army's claim of military necessity was not justified. These official reports had been intentionally suppressed and had never been presented to the U.S. Supreme Court. It was on this basis — governmental misconduct — that a legal team of pro-bono attorneys, including the Asian Law Caucus, successfully reopened Korematsu's case in 1983, resulting in the overturning of his criminal conviction for defying the incarceration.

On November 10, 1983, Judge Marilyn Hall Patel of the U.S. District Court for the Northern District of California in San Francisco formally overturned Korematsu's conviction. Judge Patel wrote: *In times of international hostility and antagonism, our institutions, legislative, executive, and judicial, must be prepared to exercise their authority to protect all citizens from the petty fears and prejudices that are so easily aroused."* Although Judge Patel's ruling cleared Korematsu's conviction, the U.S. Supreme Court's 1944 ruling still stands.



## GORDON HIRABAYASHI

Hirabayashi was born in Seattle. In 1942, Hirabayashi decided to defy the curfew which had been imposed on Japanese Americans, choosing instead to turn himself in to the FBI. He invited prosecution in part to be able to appeal the verdict and the constitutionality of the curfew. After he was convicted of curfew violation, Hirabayashi appealed his conviction all the way to the U.S. Supreme Court, with the backing of the ACLU.

In 1943, the Supreme Court unanimously ruled against him in *Hirabayashi v. United States*, although three Justices filed separate opinions that concurred with the Court's decision only with certain reservations. Hirabayashi later spent a year in federal prison at McNeil Island Penitentiary for refusing induction into the armed forces, contending that a questionnaire sent to Japanese Americans demanding renunciation of allegiance to the emperor of Japan was racially discriminatory because other ethnic groups were not asked about allegiance to foreign leaders. In 1983, Hirabayashi also received a call from Peter Irons, who had uncovered documents that clearly showed evidence of government misconduct in 1942 — evidence that the government knew there was no military reason for the exclusion order but withheld that information from the United States Supreme Court.

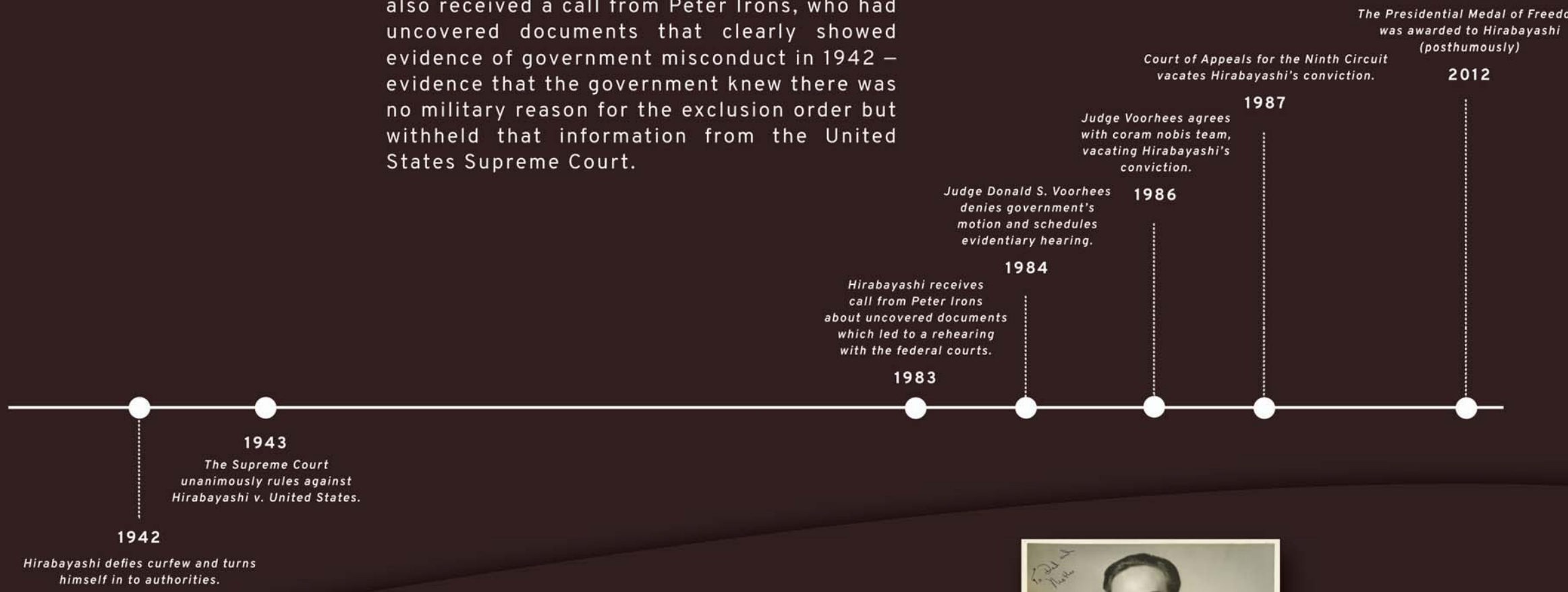
With this new information, Hirabayashi's case was reheard by the federal courts. In Seattle, in a 1984 hearing, Judge Donald S. Voorhees denied the government's motion and scheduled an evidentiary hearing for the following year. In 1986, Judge Voorhees issued a written opinion, essentially agreeing with the coram nobis team and vacating Hirabayashi's conviction for violating the evacuation order. Both sides appealed and in 1987 the Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit affirmed Judge Voorhees on the evacuation order conviction, and vacated Hirabayashi's conviction on the curfew violation as well.

"I have written hundreds of judicial opinions, but I think *Hirabayashi* is the only one I ever wrote that I was sure from the beginning was absolutely right—legally, intellectually, and morally."

-Judge Mary M. Schroeder



(University of Washington Libraries, Special Collections)



## MINORU YASUI

Minoru Yasui was born in 1916 in Hood River, Oregon. He graduated from the University of Oregon in 1937, and then University of Oregon law school in 1939. Yasui also was a member of the United States Army's Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC) program at the university, earning a commission after graduation in 1937. Yasui worked at the Japanese Consulate in Chicago, Illinois, from 1940, until his resignation on December 8, 1941. He then returned to Hood River.

In order to test the constitutionality of the curfew on Japanese Americans, on March 28, 1942, Yasui deliberately broke the curfew in Portland, Oregon, presenting himself at a police station after 11:00 pm. After the notice was given for the Japanese to evacuate, Yasui notified the authorities that he had no intentions of complying, and went to his family's home in Hood River. This violated another law restricting travel of Japanese Americans, and authorities arrested him in Hood River. Yasui's was the first case challenging the curfew to make it to court. His trial was held at the Federal Courthouse in Portland on June 12, 1942. The trial judge, James Alger Fee, determined that the curfew could only apply to aliens, as martial law had not been imposed by the government. However, Fee found that Yasui had forfeited his citizenship by working for the Japanese government, so that the curfew did apply to him. Yasui appealed his conviction to the United States Court of Appeals for the Ninth Circuit. After arguments in the case were filed, the Ninth Circuit certified two questions to the Supreme Court.



On June 21, 1943, the Supreme Court issued its decision in the case along with the *Hirabayashi v. United States* case. Citing *Hirabayashi*, Chief Justice Stone wrote the opinion of the court, and determined that the curfew and exclusion orders were valid, even as applied to citizens of the United States. The Supreme Court remanded the case to the district court to determine the sentence. Judge Fee reduced Yasui's sentence to 15 days, with the time already served, and Yasui was sent back to the incarceration camp, Minidoka.

On February 1, 1983, Yasui petitioned the Oregon federal district court for a writ of error coram nobis. The court dismissed the original indictment and conviction against Yasui, as well as the petition for the writ on request by the government. Yasui, then appealed the decision to dismiss the petition, but the Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals dismissed the appeal on procedural grounds as moot because Yasui had died.





# 7 THE END OF THE INCARCERATION AND BEYOND



## MITSUYE ENDO

Before Pearl Harbor, Mitsuye Endo worked for the California Department of Motor Vehicles as a typist. In April, 1942, Endo was fired along with other Japanese American government workers and was ordered to comply with the “evacuation” orders resulting from Executive Order 9066. Endo, with the help of her lawyer, James Purcell, filed a writ of habeas corpus challenging the legality of her removal to an incarceration camp.

Judge Michael Roche first heard cases relating to Mitsuye Endo in mid-July, 1942. James Purcell argued that habeas corpus could only be suspended by an act of Congress. Judge Roche stalled his final decision until mid-1943. Roche expressed his desire to wait until the Supreme Court had ruled on the earlier *Hirabayashi* and *Yasui* cases, Purcell supported the delay, as U.S. forces were suffering great losses in 1942. During this year-long delay, Endo was detained at Tanforan, then at Tule Lake, CA, and later Topaz, UT.

Ultimately, Judge Roche ruled that Endo was not entitled to a writ of habeas corpus. Endo appealed this decision, with Purcell’s assistance. In December 1944, the Supreme Court ruled that Endo could not be held in a WRA incarceration camp against her will. Anticipating the Supreme Court ruling in the Endo case, two weeks prior to the ruling Public Proclamation 21 was issued, allowing most Japanese Americans to leave the incarceration camps and live anywhere. The government offered Endo the option of leaving at this point, but she refused because she did not want to jeopardize her case.



Kadju Nishimura (left) and her husband, Kumataro, in front of their post-war housing project home in Seattle, Washington.

President Truman signs the Japanese American Evacuation Claims Act. Approximately \$38 million was paid from this act, only a small fraction of the estimated loss in income and property.

1948

The Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians issues its report, *Personal Justice Denied*, on February 24 and its Recommendations, on June 16. The Recommendations call for a presidential apology and a \$20,000 payment to each of the approximately 60,000 surviving persons “excluded” from their places of residence pursuant to Executive Order 9066.

1983

Acting on the recommendations of the Commission, Congress passes the Civil Liberties Act of 1988 and President Ronald Reagan signs it into law.

It acknowledges that the incarceration of more than 110,000 individuals of Japanese descent was unjust, and offers an apology and reparation payments of \$20,000 to each person incarcerated.

1988

1980

The Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians is established calling for a congressional committee to investigate the detention program and the constitutionality of Executive Order 9066.



Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians (CWRIC) Redress Hearings

January 2, 1945

After the Supreme Court rules in the Endo case, the War Department announces that the exclusion orders are rescinded. Upon release, the majority of those who had been incarcerated were given only \$25 and one-way transportation.

Many of the freed Japanese Americans returned to find that their homes, farms and belongings left behind had been stolen or vandalized. Even Japanese American veterans returning home in their uniforms endured racial insults.

October 9, 1991

Three years later, letters of formal apology and checks from the United States government were issued to each of the living survivors of internment.

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

— President George H.W. Bush

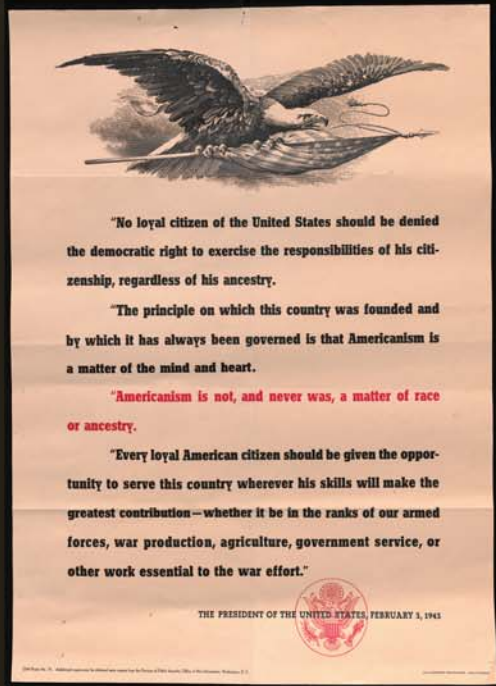


Framed apology letter from President George H.W. Bush, which has hung on the Takei family’s wall since 1990. They explain: “The apology for the wartime mass incarceration, from the President of the United States, is the family’s most treasured possession, providing a material connection to our civil rights history in America.”

On May 24, 2011, the U.S. Acting Solicitor General, Neal Katyal, delivered the keynote speech at the Department of Justice’s Great Hall marking Asian American and Pacific Islander Heritage Month. Developing comments he had posted officially on May 20, 2011, Katyal issued the Justice Department’s first public confession of its 1942 ethics lapse. He cited the *Hirabayashi* and *Korematsu* cases as blots on the reputation of the Office of the Solicitor General - whom the Supreme Court explicitly considers as deserving of “special credence” when arguing cases - and as “an important reminder” of the need for absolute candor in arguing the United States government’s position on every case.



# 8 LESSONS OF EXECUTIVE ORDER 9066



“The principle on which this country was founded and by which it has always been governed is that Americanism is a matter of the mind and heart.”

“AMERICANISM IS NOT, AND NEVER WAS, A MATTER OF RACE OR ANCESTRY.”

— President Franklin D. Roosevelt

While these words of President Roosevelt from 1943 were utilized to exhort service by Japanese Americans in the military during WWII, and to encourage acceptance of those who served, their essential truth remains.

Japanese Americans exemplified “American-ness,” bravely serving their country as members of 100th Infantry Battalion and the 442<sup>nd</sup> Regimental Combat team. The roughly 14,000 men who served became the most highly decorated unit for its size and time in combat in the history of the United States Military, earning 18,143 awards.



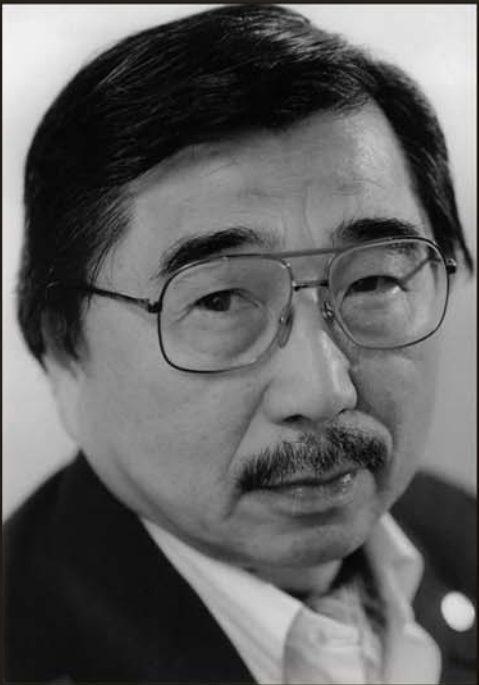
Standing in court at the 1983 hearing on the writ of coram nobis, Fred Korematsu said:

“I would like to see the government admit that they were wrong and do something about it so this will never happen again to any American citizen of any race, creed, or color.”



Supreme Court Justice Antonin Scalia speaking to University of Hawaii law students, Feb. 3, 2014:

“But you are *kidding yourself* if you think the same thing will not happen again. Inter arma enim silent leges ... ***In times of war, the laws fall silent.*** That’s what was going on — the panic about the war and the invasion of the Pacific and whatnot. That’s what happens. It was wrong, but I would not be surprised to see it happen again — in time of war. ***It’s no justification but it is the reality.***”



“There was a time when I felt that the Constitution failed me, . . . But with the reversal in the courts and in public statements from the government, I feel that our country has proven that the Constitution is worth upholding. The U.S. government admitted it made a mistake. A country that can do that is a strong country. I have more faith and allegiance to the Constitution than I ever had before.

I would also say that if you believe in something, if you think the Constitution is a good one, and if you think the Constitution protects you, you better make sure that the Constitution is actively operating... in other words 'constant vigilance.' Otherwise, it's a scrap of paper. We had the Constitution to protect us in 1942. It didn't because the will of the people weren't behind it.”

— Gordon Hirabayashi



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