

ASIAN-PACIFIC-AMERICAN HERITAGE WEEK - 1994

PREFACE

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ASIAN-PACIFIC-AMERICAN HERITAGE MONTH

INTRODUCTION

America was created and shaped by successive waves of immigrants, and has often been regarded as the "melting pot of the world." First, there was a great wave of European exploration and colonization. Colonists later brought shiploads of Africans to

work on Southern plantations. Next, the Chinese were brought to work on the Pacific Railroad, and Japanese, Filipinos, and Koreans came to work on Hawaiian sugar plantations. The New Immigration Act of 1965, which replaced restrictive country quotas with more permissive hemispheric quotas, brought many different groups from around the world. A last great wave of Asian immigration saw Southeast Asian refugees arrive after the fall of Vietnam in 1975. With different histories, cultures, languages, and identities, Chinese, Japanese, Filipinos, Asian Indians, Koreans, Southeast Asians, and Pacific Islanders are grouped together as Asian-Pacific-Americans. But just how people of diverse cultures, from many lands, occupations, environments, and religions could be "melted" together into one culture has been disputed (9:3). Because of a predominantly English heritage in the colonial period, the United States often has evaluated its varied citizenries' neighborliness and social inclusion (assimilation) by a single standard: White, Anglo-Saxon, middle-class Protestant (12:3) (26:viii).

PURPOSE

The purpose of this report is to provide a brief history of Asian-Pacific-American immigration; the impact of Asian Pacific Americans on business, education, and the political process; and contributions of Asian-Pacific-Americans to the Department of Defense. For purposes of uniformity, categories of Asian-Pacific-Americans are reported according to those used in the 1990 United States Census, and are not intended to exclude the contributions or diminish the importance of any group.

GROWTH OF THE ASIAN-PACIFIC-AMERICAN POPULATION

The Asian-Pacific-American population has grown dramatically in the last two decades. Asian-Pacific-Americans are the fastest-growing ethnic minority group in the United States (3:4A). Currently half of all immigrants entering America are Asian (30:5). According to the 1990 census, the number of persons of Asian and Pacific Islander descent almost doubled between 1980 and 1990, from 3.7 million to 7.2 million (Table 1). The Chinese (23 percent) represent the largest group of Asian-Pacific-Americans, followed by Filipinos (19 percent), Japanese (12 percent), Koreans (11 percent), and Asian Indians (11 percent) (Table 2). The Asian-Pacific-American population is projected to grow to over 40 million by the year 2050 (Table 3).

Throughout history Asian men have far outnumbered women. However, there has been a shift in gender of Asian-Pacific-Americans immigrating. In 1992 there were 155 Filipino women for every 100 Filipino men immigrating. For Koreans and Japanese, women outnumbered men 145 to 100. For Chinese immigrants, women outnumbered men 122 to 100. The shift in gender can be explained due to new laws encouraging nurses to immigrate, marriages of Asian women to servicemen, and women finding easier access to low paying service jobs in hotels or nursing homes (33:8A).

Asians have constituted a majority of Hawaii's population for nearly a century. Three hundred thousand Chinese live in New York City--the largest Chinese community outside of China. About one-fourth of San Francisco's population is Asian. In California, Asian-Pacific-Americans represent nine percent of the state's population, surpassing the Black population.

HISTORY OF IMMIGRATION BY ASIAN-PACIFIC-AMERICANS

Asian-Pacific-Americans have been here for over 150 years; however, little is known about them or their history (30:6). "Pushed" out of their country by economic depression and "pulled" by hopes and dreams of fortune, emigration to America by Asians and Pacific Islanders was seen as an opportunity for a better life. Needed as an "industrial reserve army," they were viewed and treated as outsiders.

CHINESE IMMIGRATION

China is one of the oldest cultures in recorded history. For centuries it was a feudal society bound by traditional roles and responsibilities according to age, sex, birth order, and class within society (23:361). Less than one hundred and fifty years ago, there was almost no contact between China and the West. The Chinese were forbidden to teach their language to a foreigner or to send books abroad (29:66). The first Chinese arrived in the United States in 1847 when they were brought by a missionary for schooling in Massachusetts, and with the push by America to open up China to trade, the year 1848 saw the arrival of silk merchants and the first true immigrants, two men and a woman, to work in mining areas (16:106). By 1851, after news of the gold rush had reached economically depressed Canton in south China, tales of riches brought twenty-five thousand Chinese to California. The Chinese had developed mining throughout Southeast Asia (23:366), and they named America "Gam Saan," or Gold Mountain (30:31). America also needed access to cheap labor for the Central Pacific Railroad, and the economic conditions in China made for a frail but mutual alliance between the two countries.

Most of the Chinese who came were poor male villagers (23:363). Known as "sojourners," they left their wives and children with the idea of making enough money to return to China. To Americans, the Chinese appeared alien, due more to cultural differences than racial characteristics (23:366). Compounding the problem, Chinese sojourners maintained a psychological and social separateness from American society by maintaining the values, norms, and attitudes of their homeland, and men still dressed according to Chinese custom with long queues (braids), felt slippers, cotton blouses, and little round hats (23:363).

Opposition began as Chinese gold miners, mining locations Americans considered worthless, made them profitable. Because men far outnumbered women, Chinese seized opportunities as cooks, launderers, and household servants. Charges were made by Whites that the Chinese depressed wages and lowered the standard of

living. This backlash, along with the lawless setting of the frontier, resulted in violence against the Chinese.

Government intervention concerning hostility to Chinese immigration began with a treaty with China in 1868 giving Chinese in the United States the privileges of travel or residence as citizens of nations with most favored status, but excluded the right of naturalization. The Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882 barred any heavy immigration of Chinese. From 1908 to 1930, 72,796 Chinese departed while 48,482 arrived in America (23:362).

Chinese Immigration to Hawaii

In 1865, Hawaii sent Dr. William Hillebrand, Royal Commissioner of Immigration, to bring back cheap labor for sugar plantations. Two vessels transported 500 workers, each with a five-year contract to Hawaii. The percentage of Chinese in Hawaii rose from one-tenth of one percent in 1853 to twenty-two percent in 1884 (29:73). The increased Chinese presence in Hawaii became a political issue, and during the 1880s, Japanese were substituted for Chinese. Later, the number of Japanese would be seen as a threat and replaced with Filipinos.

During the early 1900s, the Chinese were able to move off the plantation by saving part of their net monthly wage of \$14.60 (29:75). However, legal impediments were contrived to block the advance of Asians to middle occupations. In 1903, Hawaii implemented a law that stipulated only citizens or persons eligible to become citizens (not Asians) were to be employed as mechanics or laborers on work carried on "by this Territory" (29:76).

Chinese Reaction to Growing Hostility

Because of growing White dissension, sojourners either returned home or, for the vast majority of Chinese, withdrew residentially and economically, establishing "Chinatowns" in larger cities. Metropolitan areas afforded the anonymity the Chinese were looking for (16:108). The "Chinatown" in San Francisco was for many years the most powerful network for Chinese in America (23:369), and was the home for many activities, illegal in America but acceptable in China. San Francisco was also headquarters for merchant associations known as "tongs." To some, the tongs served for the betterment of merchants and business people. To others, tongs were criminal organizations which exerted a tyrannical force over the Chinese (16:109).

During the 1930s and 1940s there was an exodus from "Chinatowns" (23:372). The younger and better educated landed positions in mainstream America. Many Chinese restaurants and laundries had to close their doors (9:199), and because the defense industry needed manpower, Chinese were recruited to work in the defense industry. The barriers to employment opportunities were broken.

Two important political changes in the 1960s have positively affected the Chinese in America (9:203). First, the New Immigration Act of 1965 replaced restrictive country quotas with more permissive hemispheric quotas. Second, the Equal Opportunity Act opened opportunities for Chinese beyond the traditional businesses of restaurants and laundries. Compared to the pre-1945 era, there has been great improvement in Chinese assimilation in America. Only since the mid-1960s has the integration of Chinese into American society begun to resemble that of other immigrant groups of generations earlier (9:7).

JAPANESE

Japanese have been a presence in the continental United States for more than a century, but some Japanese, slaves held by several Indian tribes, were in the Northwest even before the arrival of the first Whites (16:122). From 1636 to around 1860, Japanese were forbidden to emigrate (24:230). The Tokugawa shogunate imposed an embargo on emigration in the 17th century, and because of fear of the corrupting influence of the West, had effectively sealed off the borders. But the arrival of Admiral Perry in 1853, and the signing of a peace treaty between the United States and Japan, reversed for a short time Japan's emigration policy. Laws forbidding emigration were reinstated when Japan feared that the export of labor would lower their prestige among nations of the world (16:131). Emigration laws were later relaxed again only because of severe economic conditions and crop failures in southern Japan (16:131). From 1886 until 1924 there was considerable Japanese emigration to Hawaii (238,758) and the United States (196,543) (23:382).

Japanese in Hawaii

Sugar is believed to have been first milled in Hawaii as early as 1802; however, it was not until the 1840s that it became a major crop (21:4). Native Hawaiians were hired first to do the growing, harvesting, and milling of sugar, but there eventually became an

acute shortage of Hawaiian laborers. Compounding the problem was the Hawaiian emigration to California during the gold rush and thousands of Hawaiians dying from diseases brought to the Islands by foreigners (SAME:5). Recognizing the need for cheap labor for sugar plantations, the Hawaiian ambassador to Japan persuaded the government to allow 180 contract laborers to sign up for work.

The Japanese found conditions on the sugar plantation harsh. They worked from dawn to dusk, unaccustomed to the scorching hot Hawaiian sun. Because they did not understand orders given in English, workers were often bullwhipped (21:9). After the Japanese government learned of these conditions, Special Commissioner Katsunosuke Inouye was sent to Hawaii to investigate charges of cruelty to Japanese workers. Japan threatened to stop sending workers unless something was done to stop this abuse. Frightened by the possibility of termination of the labor source and hoping to satisfy Japan's concern for Japanese workers in Hawaii, the Hawaiian government entered into an agreement with Japan making Japanese immigrants wards of the Hawaiian government, and the planters its agents. Waiting to see if the agreement with Hawaii stopped Japanese worker abuse, Japan did not allow further emigration until 1886. Between 1886 and 1894, 26 sailings brought 29,069 Japanese immigrants (21:22). Another 30,000 Japanese immigrants were brought in during the two years after Hawaii's annexation in 1898.

After the Organic Act was passed in 1900, giving Japanese laborers more freedom, there were many small strikes for increased wages and better working conditions. Dissatisfied and unhappy, over 40,000 left Hawaii for employment in the United States (21:27). This, and an outbreak of bubonic plague among the immigrants of Honolulu, caused a critical labor shortage. Sugar planters then turned to the Filipinos as a source of cheap labor.

Japanese in the United States

In 1880, two years before the passage of the Chinese Exclusion Act, fewer than 200 Japanese lived in the United States. A decade later, Japanese immigrated at an annual rate of 1,000. From 1899 to 1903, another 60,000 entered the United States, largely because of the acute labor shortage in California (12:268). The exclusion of the Chinese had left many menial and unskilled jobs without takers. The Japanese population at this time was concentrated largely on the Pacific Coast, with the center at San Francisco (16:133). They were rural farmers from southern Honshu and Kyushu,

and unlike the Chinese who migrated to urban living, the Japanese preferred rural farming. The early Japanese farmers and farm organizations laid the groundwork for future Japanese immigrants by providing capital and agriculture expertise. Like the Chinese, the Japanese received few loans from banks, so a Japanese rotating credit association, one of many variations, would accept subscriber deposits and give loans to the most needy Japanese workers who wanted to purchase land. The cooperation between the association and the workers was built on trust and honor, and the rate of default was rare.

As with the Chinese, the Japanese welcome began to fade as their numbers began to rise. Unlike the Chinese, however, the Japanese did not disperse. America began to stereotype Asians into two categories: the Chinese, humble and "inferior" who could be tolerated; and the Japanese who were cunning and aggressive and required domination to keep them in place (23:382).

In 1907, President Theodore Roosevelt negotiated a "Gentlemen's Agreement" that called for Japan to issue passports to Japanese coming to the continental United States only if they were coming to join a parent, husband, child, or to return to a former home or farm (23:383). This agreement greatly diminished Japanese emigration to America. Between 1930 and 1940 the number returning to Japan exceeded new immigrants to the United States. This trend continued up to the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor. Many Japanese parents sent their children to Japan to be educated, and by 1942 it was estimated that more than 25,000 Asian-Americans had been educated in Japan (23:388).

Japanese Internment During World War II

Up to World War II, both Chinese and Japanese were subject to discrimination under American law. During World War II, employment opportunities opened up to Chinese-Americans, while Japanese-Americans were stereotyped as potential enemies of the United States (29:81). Military officials reasoned that most Japanese were loyal, but felt that the task of screening the loyal from the disloyal presented too great a problem. Shortly after the start of the war, President Roosevelt signed legislation ordering the evacuation of all persons of Japanese ancestry from West Coast areas.

At first the Japanese were given time to leave the West Coast. A few did leave, but they found no acceptance in other areas of the

United States. Eventually they were told to stay where they were pending relocation under a newly created federal agency, the War Relocation Authority (WRA). Across the western United States, all those of Japanese descent were transferred to "relocation camps." These camps were located in Utah, Arizona, California, Idaho, Wyoming, Colorado, and Arkansas. They resembled military barracks, and privacy was at a minimum. More than 110,000 men, women, grandmothers, grandfathers, children, and babies were kept behind barbed wire and guarded by armed soldiers. The Supreme Court of the United States upheld the constitutionality of the Japanese evacuation by a six to three vote, after the dissenting justices gave sharp minority opinions (26:257).

The situation in Hawaii was different, however. At the outbreak of World War II, Japanese comprised about one-third of Hawaii's population (23:395). Seen as a source of needed labor, limited restrictions were imposed on the Japanese. As the war continued, only a few Japanese whose record before the war rendered them suspicious were interned.

1945 (25:39). The 38th parallel was hardened by the inability of North Korea and South Korea to agree on the structure of a unified Korea. About ten million people, one-third of the Korean people, lived north of the 38th parallel. South Korea, slightly smaller in land size than the North, was the home to over 25 million people. The ambition of the North Korean Workers Party, molded by the Communist Party of the Soviet Union, was to reunify Korea under Communist rule. Under American occupation from 1945 to 1948, a variety of political parties were formed in South Korea, each representing faction support among the Korean elite (25:42).

In 1949, the United States military forces withdrew from South Korea as part of a policy of military pull-back from Asia. Taking advantage of the American pull-back, and assured of Stalin's continued support from the Soviet Union, North Korean forces moved across the 38th parallel on June 25, 1950.

Immediately after the invasion, America pledged its support to Korea, and quickly built force strength there to 600,000 men. Asian-Pacific-Americans were not segregated into separate units during this conflict and their achievements in Korea confirmed their loyalty and patriotism. Despite extensive support from the Communist Chinese and the Soviet Union, the North Koreans were driven back, and an armistice was signed in July 1953. In October of that same year, the United States signed a mutual defense treaty with South Korea.

VIETNAM

The Vietnam generation had a different experience of war. During World War II virtually all young able-bodied men entered the service. Throughout the Korean War and several years later, about 70 percent of draft-age men served in the military. Those who fought and died in Vietnam, however, were overwhelmingly drawn from the bottom half of the American social structure. There is some information about Asian and Pacific Islander contributions to the South Asia conflict, but even the most basic statistical information about their role in Vietnam remains unknown (1:12).

ASIAN-PACIFIC-AMERICAN SERVICE TODAY IN THE MILITARY

As of September 1993, there were 46,249 Asian-Pacific-Americans on active duty. They comprised 2.0 percent of all officers, 1.9 percent of warrant officers, and 2.8 percent of the enlisted community (Table 5) (28:1). In fact, the Asian-Pacific-American population within DoD, at 2.7 percent, is almost identical to the Asian-Pacific-American 1990 Census, 2.9 percent of the population of the United States. The Navy has the largest percentage of Asian-Pacific-Americans at 4.7 percent, followed by the Army at 2.0 percent, the Air Force at 1.8 percent, and the Marine Corps at 1.5 percent (28:2-5). Asian-Pacific-Americans with equivalent rank of Brigadier General or higher on active duty in December 1992 are shown in Table 6.

ASIAN-PACIFIC-AMERICAN MEDAL OF HONOR WINNERS

The following Asian-Pacific-Americans have received the Medal of Honor: (18:15)

- 1911, PVT Jose B. Nisperos, Philippine Scouts.
- 1915, Fireman 1st Class Telesforo Tinidad, United States Navy.
- 1942, SGT Jose Calugas, Philippine Scouts.
- 1945, PFC Sadao S. Munemori, 100th Infantry Bn, 442nd Regimental Combat Team, United States Army.
- 1951, CPL Hiroshi H. Miyamura, United States Army.

- 1951, PFC Herbert K. Pililaau, United States Army.
- 1951, SGT Leroy A. Mendonca, United States Army.
- 1961, SFC Rodney J. T. Yano, United States Army.
- 1969, CPL Terry Teruo Kawamura, United States Army.

ASIAN-PACIFIC- AMERICAN IMPACT ON BUSINESS AND EDUCATION

Increased access to the job market after World War II has resulted in growth and upward mobility of the Asian-Pacific-American community. In 1990, households headed by Asian-Pacific-Americans had a median income of \$38,449, 23 percent higher than the \$31,231 average of White households. Because Asian-Pacific-Americans have bigger households, per capita income was lower, \$13,420 compared with \$15,270 for Whites (34:1). In 1992, 35 percent of Asian-Pacific-Americans had household incomes of \$50,000 or more, compared with 26 percent for Whites (19:471). However, these high figures can be misleading. Many Asian-Americans are concentrated in high-cost urban areas. Also, there are large differences between subgroups. For example, according to an article in The Orlando Sentinel of May 16, 1993, "Of the 125,000 Hmong [Laotian] in the United States, more than 62 percent rely on public assistance." (7:A19) Additionally, Census data show that 11 percent of Asian-American families live in poverty as compared to 8 percent for White families. (10:24)

BUSINESS

In 1987 Asian-Pacific-Americans owned 355,000 businesses, a 328 percent increase in just ten years (19:44). By starting their own businesses, Asian-Pacific-Americans are repeating their forefathers' immigrant success story. However, while earlier immigrants have gone on to bigger ventures, Korean entrepreneurs remain small in grocery and retail stores. When ready to expand, Koreans integrate their businesses by obtaining wholesale and distribution firms that supply their businesses (27:2B).

Chinese-Americans have made a visible impact in business and industry. I. M. Pei is probably the world's most famous architect. He is the designer and architect of the Kennedy Memorial Library, and the new wing of the National Art Gallery in Washington. In 1957, China-born physicists Yang Chen-ming and Lee Tsung Date were the first Chinese to win the Nobel Prize. An Wang was the creator of the memory chip and has a multi-million-dollar

electronics business (31:89) and Japanese-American Rocky Aoki founded the Benihana restaurant chain.

Despite these and other exceptions, Asian-Pacific-Americans still experience legal, social, and economic discrimination. The Chinese, for example, find it extremely difficult to reach mid-and top-level positions in the federal government. One reason is that their mother country is a Communist country and this can be a barrier in matters of security. Chinese-Americans also often find it difficult to be promoted to managerial positions, so they frequently leave their jobs and start their own businesses after working many years for a company. Most Chinese-Americans today are economically still dependent on the ethnic niche of restaurants, laundries, grocery stores, and other Chinese-type businesses (9:209).

Southeast Asia refugees have entered the work force at rates comparable to, if not higher than, the American population. In 1975, the employment rate of Vietnamese refugees was 68.2 percent among men and 50.9 percent among women. Within three years, 94.9 percent of all first-wave Vietnamese refugees over the age of sixteen were employed, as compared to 94.5 percent of all Americans (22:44).

EDUCATION

Asian-Pacific-Americans are very successful in education, and they have, for many generations, immigrated to the United States for purposes of furthering their education. This strong commitment to learning has been passed to successive generations born in the United States.

Asian-Pacific-Americans are often viewed as "the reigning stars of academia" (20:B1). Two of five Americans with roots in Asia and the Pacific have completed 4 years of college or more, twice the rate for the entire country (4:1). While they comprise 2.9 percent of the population, Asian-Pacific-American representation at prestigious colleges and universities is much greater. In 1990 at Harvard, they represented about 12 percent of students; at Stanford, 20 percent; and at the University of California at Berkeley, 30 percent (20:B1). In 1990, 1,282 Asian-Pacific-Americans received doctorates, and another 3,336 received their first professional degree (physician, lawyer, etc.) (19:169).

Asian-Pacific-Americans have made the most of their opportunity to learn. Thirty-six percent of fourth grade Asian-Pacific-

Americans, 43 percent of eighth graders, and 46 percent of high school seniors are in the top one-third of their classes (19:149). In 1989, college-bound Asian-Americans had a high school grade point average of 3.25, compared to an average of 3.08 for all other students.

ASIAN-PACIFIC-AMERICANS IN THE POLITICAL PROCESS

Until recently, Asian-Pacific-Americans have not been a powerful electoral force. However, in the 1990s, some have become viable political candidates at all political levels. In 1993, 731 Asian-Pacific-Americans held elected or appointed positions in state, county, and local government (19:724-725).

ELECTED OFFICIALS

Asian-Pacific-American elected political influence is greatest in Hawaii, where Asians are a majority of the population. Soon after Hawaii gained statehood in 1959, Hiram Fong and Daniel Inouye became the first Asian-Americans to be elected to Congress (15:70). In 1990, Hawaii's governor, lieutenant governor, and 54 state senators and representatives were Asian-Pacific-Americans.

Until after the 1980s, Asian-Pacific-Americans rarely won federal or state elections on the continental United States (15:70). Other than Hawaii, only two Asian-Americans were elected to the United States House of Representatives in the 1970s: Norman Mineta, 1974, (Democrat-San Francisco), and Robert Matsui, 1978, (Democrat-Sacramento), both Japanese-Americans from north California. Only one Asian-American was elected to the United States Senate, S. I. Hayakawa, 1976, from California. No Asian-Pacific-Americans were elected to the House of Representatives or Senate in the 1980s (19:723). Table 7 lists all Asian-Pacific-Americans elected to the United States Congress from 1956 to 1992.

In the 1990s, Asian-Pacific-Americans are being elected to federal and state offices. Thirteen ran for seats in the United States House of Representatives in 1992, and Jay Kim (Republican-Yorba Linda/Chino) and Mark Takano (Democrat-Riverside), both from California, were elected (19:723). Seven ran for state offices, and three won elections (19:726). Even with the largest Asian-American population in the country, none had held a seat in the California state legislature since the late 1970s (15:70), until in 1992 Nao Takasugi (Republican) won in District 37 (Oxnard) (19:726). New York, with the third largest Asian-American population (after California and Hawaii), has no elected Asian-

American in the state legislature as of 1992 (15:70).

Asian-Pacific-Americans have won local election to offices in Monterey Park, Gardena, Cerritos, Torrance, and Carson, California. They have sought election, often competing with one another, for city council seats in Houston, Seattle, and New York City.

Even though Japanese and Chinese-Americans have dominated Asian-Pacific-American politics (15:75), several Filipinos were elected to political office by 1980. Eduardo E. Malapit, of Kauai, Hawaii, became the first Filipino to be elected mayor of an American city. In California, G. Monty Manibog was elected mayor of Monterey Park, and Leonard Valasco was elected mayor of Delano.

APPOINTED OFFICIALS

Prior to 1976, there were few Asian-Pacific-American political appointments. From 1976 to 1980, more Asian-Americans were appointed to presidential commissions and advisory councils, and federal judgeships than in all other previous administrations combined. In 1988, President Reagan appointed the first Asian-Pacific-American, Sherwin Chan, to the United States Commission on Civil Rights. In 1989, President Bush appointed Elaine Chao as Deputy Secretary of Transportation, the highest office ever reached by an Asian-Pacific-American in the executive branch. President Bush appointed 124 to federal positions (19:723), and 6 have been appointed by President Clinton, as of March 1993 (19:718).

At the state and local level, Asian-Pacific-American appointed officials are concentrated in California and Hawaii. In 1986, Governor Deukmejian appointed John Kashiwabara to the California State University Board of Trustees. The same year, San Francisco Mayor Dianne Feinstein appointed Thomas Hsieh to the city Board of Supervisors (15:75). Alfred Laureta, was the first Filipino to hold a state cabinet position, director of Hawaii's Department of Labor and Industrial Relations from 1962 to 1967, and later he received an appointment as Hawaii's Fifth Circuit judge in 1969. Maria L. Obrea served as a municipal judge in Los Angeles (22:31).

CONCLUSION

The purpose of this report was to provide a brief history of Asian-Pacific-American immigration; the impact of Asian-Pacific-Americans on business, education, and the political process; and contributions of Asian-Pacific-Americans to the Department of

Defense. A study of Asian-Pacific-Americans must not be limited to the analysis of statistics. These demographics must be viewed as men and women with minds, wills, and voices (30:7). What were their stories, conversations, songs, writings, and what was on their "minds"? These factors reflect the true making of America as a nation of immigrants. America, a place where men and women come to find a new beginning.

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