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PREFACE

MMCM (SW) Jeffrey W. Farquhar, USN, assigned to Fleet Technical Support Center, Pacific in San Diego, California, served as a participant in the Topical Research Intern Program at the Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute from 29 April to 29 May 1998, and conducted the research to update this report.

SCOPE

The Topical Research Intern Program provides the opportunity for servicemembers and DoD civilian employees to work on diversity/equal opportunity projects while on a 30-day tour of duty at the Institute. During their tour, the interns use a variety of primary and secondary source materials to compile a review of data or research pertaining to an issue of importance to equal opportunity (EO) and equal employment opportunity (EEO) specialists, supervisors, and other leaders throughout the Services. The resulting publications (such as this one) are intended as resources and educational materials and do not represent official policy statements or endorsements of the DoD or any of its agencies. The publications are distributed to EO/EEO personnel and selected senior officials to aid them in their duties.

August 1998

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REVIEW OF DATA ON ASIAN AMERICANS

INTRODUCTION

In 1970, there were 1.5 million Asian Americans living in the United States. By 1980, there were 3.7 million; by 1990, 7.2 million, representing almost a 100 percent increase in one decade and an incredible 475 percent increase in the last twenty years. This rapid increase has made Asian Americans the fastest growing segment of our population. Demographic experts predict that this growth will continue at an even greater rate throughout the 1990's and into the 21st century because of above average birth rates and accelerating immigration, both legal and illegal. If these predictions are correct, by 2080 Asian Americans will constitute 12 percent of the population of the United States, compared to 3 percent in 1980. However, then, as now, Asian Americans will comprise less of the total population than will Hispanics or Blacks.

Asian influence on our society is disproportionately greater than the actual number of Asian Americans. As a result, they are considered by many to be a so-called "model minority," an impression which may have developed because of the extraordinary success of many Asian Americans. Yet, this is not a true reflection of the problems faced by many Asian Americans, and the perception of success may actually camouflage discrimination. In 1978, the President's Commission on Mental Health noted:

There is widespread belief that Asian and Pacific Americans do not suffer the discrimination and disadvantages associated with other minority groups. The fact is that in spite of recent efforts to promote civil rights and equal opportunities for ethnic minorities in the United States, Asian and Pacific Americans have been largely neglected and ignored... Asian Americans as a group are not the successful minority that the prevailing stereotype suggests. Individual cases of success should not imply that the diverse peoples who make up the Asian Americans encounter, the successful... Despite the problems Asian Americans encounter, the success stereotype appears to have led policy makers to ignore those truly in need. (33:19-20)

For these reasons, it is important that people know the facts about Asian Americans so that they can differentiate between myth and reality. This report discusses Asian immigration to America, current population profile, education, economic issues, values, famous Asian American contributors and contributions, and military history and participation.

ASIAN IMMIGRATION TO AMERICA

- Because official immigration records were not required prior to 1820, it is unclear when the first Asian immigrants arrived in America. A few Asian visitors have been

recorded, such as three Chinese sailors who arrived in Baltimore in 1785. The Spanish reportedly used Chinese shipbuilders in Baja California as early as 1571; some of these Chinese shipbuilders were specifically documented in Los Angeles in 1781. (7:3-4)

- In 1790 Congress enacted legislation limiting immigration to "free white persons." This law was modified in 1870 to provide immigration rights to "aliens of African nativity and persons of African descent." At the same time, the Congress considered, but rejected, a move to afford the same right to Asians. (33:2)

- Official records indicate the arrival of the first Chinese immigrant in 1820. Between 1820 and 1830, a total of three arrived. During the following decade, only seven more Chinese immigrated to America. Although immigration increased during the first years of the Gold Rush, only 325 came in 1849, and 450 the following year. It was not until the 1850s that Chinese immigrants began to arrive in substantial numbers. Between 1850 - 1859 some 65,000 Chinese immigrated to the U.S.; yet, in 1860, the total number of Chinese in the United States amounted to approximately 35,000. Nearly 50 percent of Chinese immigrants returned to China, despite the deplorable state of life there. (7:3-4, 6, 15)

- Chinese "coolie" labor was in great demand in the 1850's as miners, and later during the 1860's as workers on the transcontinental railroad systems. In 1870, more than half of the estimated 30,000 men working in mines in the West were Chinese, more than one fourth of the total Chinese population in America. Nearly 13,000 Chinese were employed by the Union Pacific Railroad to complete the Transcontinental Railroad, built over California's rugged Sierra Nevada mountains. (7:51, 72)

- In 1882 Chester A. Arthur signed the Chinese Exclusion Act, temporarily suspending the immigration of skilled and unskilled Chinese laborers for 10 years and prohibiting the naturalization of any Chinese. In 1892, the Geary Act extended this ban for another ten years. In 1904, the Chinese immigration ban was made permanent by Congress. (33:3)

- Immigrants from India, Pakistan, and Bangladesh are frequently grouped together as "Asian Indians." The first Asian Indian immigrants arrived in the U.S. during the middle of the 19th century. By 1900, about 2,000 Asian Indians were living in the U.S. The majority of these were Sikhs from India's Punjab region. These early immigrants lived mainly in the West, where they worked on building the Southern Pacific Railroad in California. Later, many turned to agriculture as a better means of making a living. (34:125)

- Asian Indian immigration to the U.S. has experienced a continual rise. Due to immigration restrictions, only about 15,000 Asian Indians came to America between 1905 and 1965. Between 1965 and 1970 over 24,000 Asian Indians arrived. Thereafter, the numbers increase dramatically. From 1971 to 1980 over 164,000 immigrated, and in the following decade over 338,000 Asian Indian immigrants arrived in the U.S.. In 1994, immigrants from Bangladesh, India, and Pakistan totaled 47,000. (32:11; 8:8)

- The first large group of Korean immigrants went to Hawaii between 1903 and 1905, numbering approximately 7,000. By 1905, there were approximately 1,000 Koreans living in California. Shortly thereafter, the Korean government banned emigration to the United States. Korean immigration into the U.S. did not return until the passage of the Immigration and Naturalization Act of 1965. (1:167)

- Japanese immigration began in the 1890's. Fewer than 25,000 Japanese were reported in the 1900 census. Xenophobia (fear of strangers) and fear of being displaced by Japanese laborers mobilized a political movement on the West Coast to restrict or eliminate the flow of Japanese émigrés. Facing international embarrassment over this issue, the Japanese government negotiated the "Gentlemen's Agreement" with President Theodore Roosevelt in 1907. In return for restrictions on the exit of unskilled laborers to the United States, Roosevelt agreed to accept the parents, wives and children of Japanese immigrants already living on U.S. soil. As a result of the "Gentleman's Agreement," 130,000 Japanese arrived in the U.S. by 1910. The Immigration Act of 1924, targeted at the Japanese minority, limited immigration from all countries to 2 percent of the 1890 census level, capped at a maximum of 150,000. (33:3-4)

- With the tide of Japanese immigration stemmed in the 1920's, the demand for cheap labor led to an increase in the number of Filipinos entering the United States. As a U.S. territory, the Philippine Islands had been immune to immigration restrictions until the Tydings-McDuffie Act of 1934. This act gave the Philippines Commonwealth status and declared Filipinos not born in the United States as aliens. A quota of 50 Filipino immigrants per year was enacted. Filipino aliens in the United States were offered a one-way plane ticket back to the Philippines. After the Immigration and Naturalization Act of 1965, Filipino immigration has been high. The Filipino population in the U.S. doubled between 1970 and 1980. By 1990 over 1.4 million Filipinos were residing in the U.S., with nearly half of those recent arrivals. (33:4; 8:7)

- As a result of WWII, the War Brides Act of 1945 permitted the immigration of Asian spouses and children of American servicemen. It was not until 1952, and the McCarran-Walter Act, that naturalization rights were extended to persons of all races. Thus, for the majority of the history of the United States, Asians have been excluded from the right to immigrate. In part, this explains their smaller proportion of the population in the 1980's and 1990's. (33:2, 4)

- As recently as the 1950's the majority of immigrants arriving in the U.S. were natives of Europe and North America. However, when the Immigration and Naturalization Act of 1965 eliminated quotas for Asians, the tide of immigration changed. By 1975, Asia was one of the top geographic areas of the world, along with the West Indies and Mexico, in supplying America with new citizens. (33:5)

- With the repeal of restrictive immigration laws in the early 1960s, large-scale immigration into the United States resumed. During the 20-year period 1970 - 1990, the

number of (all) adult immigrants doubled from less than 8.5 million to over 17.5 million. In 1970, Asians made up 6 percent of the total number; in 1990, Asians made up 22 percent of all immigrants. Although the percentage of Asian immigrants has increased dramatically, naturalization figures have remained fairly steady (41 percent in 1970, 43 percent in 1990). The naturalization rate varies greatly among the major Asian ethnic groups. Japanese immigrants are the least likely to become American citizens, while Filipino immigrants are the most likely. Only one out of every 14 Japanese immigrants who have lived in the U.S. from 6 to 10 years is a citizen, whereas nearly half of Filipinos living in this country for the same time period are citizens. Chinese, Koreans, Asian Indians, and Southeast Asians fall between these two extremes. (20:152-154)

- Before the fall of Saigon in 1975, there were virtually no Vietnamese in the United States. In April of 1979, President Ford authorized the entry of 130,000 refugees from Southeast Asia. The overwhelming majority of these (125,000) were Vietnamese. Numbers dropped off until 1979, when Vietnam declared war on Cambodia, causing over 44,000 Vietnamese immigrants to flee to America. During the next two years another 181,300 Vietnamese were admitted to the U.S. Census figures for 1990 showed that over 614,000 Vietnamese Americans were living in the U.S., making them the fifth-largest group of Asian Americans. (35:1396-1398)

- Cambodians only began entering the U.S. in significant numbers after 1979, mostly as refugees fleeing the oppressive Khmer Rouge regime. During the 1980s, over 101,000 Cambodian immigrants entered the U.S. The resumption of a somewhat stable government in Cambodia in the early 1990s has slowed the flow of Cambodians into the U.S. to a trickle; in 1994 only 1,400 Cambodian immigrants were admitted. (34:227-228)

CURRENT POPULATION PROFILE

- According to 1995 data, Asian Americans comprise 9.3 million people or 3.5 percent of the total population, 2 1/2 times the 1980 census amount. The Asian population grew nearly twice as fast as Hispanics and six times as fast as Blacks in the 1980's. (32:14)

- According to 1990 census figures, the Chinese community doubled in size to 1.6 million during the 1980's; the number of Filipinos grew by more than 80 percent, to 1.4 million; and the smaller Indian, Korean, and Vietnamese communities each grew more than 125 percent. (3:4A)

- In 1994 over 259,300 Asians immigrated to the United States, the largest groups coming from China (54,000), the Philippines (53,500), Vietnam (41,300), and India (34,900). Of these, approximately 39,000 entered the country as permanent residents under a variety of refugee acts. (32:11, 12)

- Specific snapshots of Asian immigration are both interesting and puzzling: In Buras-Triumph, Louisiana, the 1990 census showed an 8,633 percent increase in the Asian population, from 3 to a total of 262 Asian Americans; in Box Elder, South Dakota, the Asian American population swelled 166 percent, to 104 Asian Americans in 1990, despite an overall drop in the town's population of 15 percent. (5)

- Because of high immigration rates in the 1980's, 62.1 percent of Asian Americans were foreign born, 10 times the rate of the general population. (33:14)

- Southeast Asians have the highest proportion of foreign born (90 percent), whereas foreign-born Japanese make up only 28 percent of their overall number. This is explained by the mass exodus of Southeast Asians after the Vietnam War and the "boat people" fleeing from repressive regimes in Southeast Asia during the 80's and 90's. (33:14)

- As a result of the high numbers of foreign-born Asian Americans, proficiency in the English language is limited. As of 1990, 54 percent of all Asian Americans who spoke a language other than English in their homes reportedly "did not speak English well." (32:53)

- The 1990 census reported more than 25 Asian subgroups, including Chinese, Filipino, Japanese, Asian Indian, Korean, Vietnamese, Laotian, Thai, Cambodian, Bangladeshi, Malayan, Hmong, Hawaiian, Samoan, Tongan, Northern Mariana Islander, Guamanian, and Fijian. (20:192-193)

- Although the Asian American population was more geographically dispersed in 1990 than in 1970, it was still highly concentrated in the West. Four million or 56 percent of all Asian Americans lived in the West, where they comprised five percent of the population. The degree of concentration, however, varied among the Asian subgroups. With two exceptions, Asian Indian Americans and Pakistani Americans, all other Asian subgroups are much more highly concentrated in the West. These two sub-groups are concentrated in the Northeast. (32:31)

- All areas of the country outside of the West experienced growth in their Asian American populations between 1970 and 1990. Most notable was the increase in the South. In 1970, 7 percent of the Asian American population lived in the South; by 1990, this figure was up to 15 percent. (5)

- The five largest groups of the Asian population of the United States are Chinese (1.6 million); Filipino (1.4 million); Japanese (850,000); Asian Indian (815,000); and Korean (800,000). (32:31)

- Between 1980 and 1990 the five Asian sub-groups that grew the most were Hmong (1,631 percent increase); Cambodian (819 percent increase); Pakistani (415 percent increase); Sri Lankan (275 percent increase); and Laotian (213 percent increase). (5)

- In 1990, there were 6 cities in the United States with 100,000 or more Asian Americans:

Los Angeles	1,100,000
New York	510,000
Honolulu	280,000
San Francisco	210,000
San Diego	120,000
Chicago	100,000

(32:44-46)

- In 1990 Asian Americans were the largest population group in one state (Hawaii), where they comprised 63 percent of the population. (31:32)

EDUCATION

- Education is highly valued among many Asian Americans. As a possible explanation, social scientists point to the centuries of Mandarin tradition in which Asian cultures groomed an intellectual elite that rose to power by passing stringent tests. This system of "meritocracy" has left its mark on Asian youth. (12:B5)

- Sanford Dornbusch of Stanford University conducted a survey of 10,000 high school students and determined that, more than any other group, Asian students believe that "if you do not do well in school, you are doomed to a poor job." (12:B5)

- Whereas first generation Asian Americans maintained grade point averages of 3.2/4.0, third generation Asian Americans could only manage a grade point average of 3.0/4.0. The drop may indicate that the more Americanized Asians become, the less concerned they will be about grades and finding good jobs. (12:B5)

- Studies indicate that there is no difference between Asian Americans and other American students on achievement tests given in the first grade, but by the fifth grade, Asian Americans had much higher scores in math. (12:B5)

- According to 1990 sources 82 percent of Asian Americans were high school graduates, compared with 78 percent of Whites, 65 percent of Blacks, and 51 percent of Hispanics. (31:139; 3:4A)

- In 1989 among college-bound seniors, Asian Americans had a high school grade point average of 3.25/4.0 verses 3.08/4.0 for all other students. (12:B5)

- In 1992 the nation's most elite universities (with a dividing line of an 1175 score on the SAT) reported 14 percent Asian American enrollment, almost five times the percentage of Asians in the total population. (14:15)

- During the 1980's Asian Americans won one in four of the Westinghouse Science Talent Search scholarships. In 1986, all five top scholarships went to Asians. (12:B5)

- According to 1995 figures, 38 percent of Asian Americans 25 years or older had completed college (4 years or more), as compared to 22 percent for Americans overall. (32:48-49; 27:11A)

- Among Asian Americans, Pakistanis have the highest percentage of college graduates (58.4 percent); followed by other Asian Indians (51.9 percent); Filipinos (37 percent); Chinese (36.6 percent) and Koreans (33.7 percent). (33:17)

- While Asian Americans made up only 3 percent of the population, based on 1990 figures, they represented 12 percent of the students at Harvard University, 20 percent at Stanford, and 30 percent at the University of California, Berkeley campus. (12:B5)

ECONOMIC ISSUES

- Statistics in 1995 indicated that 64.7 percent of all Asian Americans 16 years of age and older were work force eligible, as compared to 63.7 percent of Blacks and 67.1 percent of Whites. Of that percentage of Asian Americans within the civilian work force, over 95 percent were employed, compared with the same percentage of employed for Whites and 89 percent for Blacks. (32:48-49)

- In 1995 median earnings for Asian Americans with four years of college were \$41,220 compared to \$47,180 for non-Hispanic Whites. An even greater gap exists between the two groups for those with only a high school education. Asian American men at this level earned a median of \$23,490, while their White counterparts had a median income of \$28,370. The disparity was less for women. (27:11A)

- Japanese Americans earned an average of 37 percent more than the median family income for all Americans. On the other hand, Asian Americans of Hmong descent earned only 26 percent of the median family income for all Americans. It should be noted that the Census Bureau does not distinguish between Asian Americans who are citizens and those who remain Asian nationals. For this reason, many highly-paid Japanese executives are included in these statistics and the final figures may be skewed as a result. (33:16-17)

- The apparent economic success of many Asian American families is due to many factors.

-- Asians concentrate in high cost of living areas, therefore their respective salaries are generally higher than other Americans. Many of these cities contain "Chinatowns," "Little Tokyos," "Koreatowns," "Little Saigons," and "Little Manilas." This residential segregation is mainly voluntary; Asian Americans tend to settle in these areas to enhance their cultural and social development, as well as for economic reasons. (1:157-159)

-- The percentage of family income coming from the earnings of family members other than the husband is larger for Asian American families than for non-Hispanic White families. This is evidenced by median income figures. The median income in 1995 for an Asian American male with 4 years of college was \$41,220. With only a high school education, the figure drops to \$23,490. The median income in 1995 (figured for all families regardless of level of education) for Asian American families was \$46,106. (27:11A; 32:49)

-- Higher education levels of Asian Americans lead to higher paying jobs. (33:17-18)

- Following is a summary of the percentage of Asian American families with incomes below the poverty level (lowest):

Sub-Group	% Living in Poverty		
Laotian	67.2		
Hmong	65.5		
Cambodian	46.9		
Vietnamese	33.5		
Indonesian	15.2		

(33:17)

- In 1995 14.6 percent of Asian Americans had incomes below the poverty level, a figure which has risen from 14.1 percent in 1990. (32:49)

- A large number of Asian immigrants have become successful entrepreneurs and own and operate their own small retail businesses. Eleven percent of all Asian Americans are self-employed; a third of these are in the highly competitive yet marginally profitable retail sector, with restaurants the most common form of business. For many, this was a voluntary decision, while for others it was forced upon them as a result of discrimination. Many Asian Americans believe that language difficulties, the stereotype of the Asian as a team player but not a leader, and other reasons have created a "glass ceiling" in corporate America, limiting Asian Americans in upward mobility. Many Asian American males, frustrated by the "glass ceiling," strike out on their own in small businesses. (27:11A; 10:13A) - Over the past several years Asian Americans have continued to face discrimination throughout the country. For example, White shrimpers in Galveston, Texas, have burned Vietnamese fishing boats; Hispanics in a Denver housing project have attacked Indochinese refugees; a Chinese man was beaten by a Detroit auto worker who mistook him for a Japanese and blamed him for the U.S. auto maker layoffs; a security video camera recorded the shooting death of an unarmed African American female who harassed a Korean grocer in Los Angeles--the subsequent light sentencing of the Korean grocer heightened the tension between Koreans and Blacks in the city; it has been alleged that Korean small businesses were purposely targeted for destruction by Blacks during the riots in the wake of the "not guilty" verdict in the "Rodney King Case" in Los Angeles. (13)

- One solution to the "glass ceiling" is being put into operation in Silicon Valley. Bypassing the "good old boy" networks that have traditionally been the local power structure, many Asian Americans are forming their own networks, assisting each other in landing jobs, acquiring loans, etc. About 23 percent of those who work in the area are immigrants, with Chinese Americans forming the largest group of foreign-born engineers (numbering around 70,000). There are also large numbers of Asian Indian Americans employed locally. These networks have proven highly effective in assisting Asian Americans in the area. (28:B4)

- While some Asian professionals coming to this country found that their foreign credentials were not honored and were forced to take jobs below their capabilities rather than face unemployment, a study conducted in 1994 by the Center for Immigration Studies shows that "there are more foreign-born [Asian] Indian physicians than there are native-born Black physicians, more Filipino nurses than native-born Hispanic nurses, and nearly twice as many foreign-born Vietnamese engineers as native-born Puerto Rican engineers." Also, Asian American professionals tend to earn higher salaries. The study found that there were nearly 12,000 Asian American physicians with incomes over \$150,000, yet fewer than 1,900 Black physicians earned that much. There were nearly three times more Asian American college professors who earned over \$75,000 annually compared to Black professors. (26:A10)

VALUES

CHINESE VALUES:

-- The nucleus of the Chinese culture is the family.

-- "Family" has a broader meaning than for Westerners; it refers to an extended family, a kinship group or clan, including ancestors.

-- The emphasis for life is on the family, not on the individual. The family is the social unit.

-- Honesty, respect for others, politeness, and gratitude are important virtues.

-- Important Chinese values and traits include a love of nature, patience, frugality, cheerfulness, ancestor worship, and industriousness. (17:259; 30:60-65)

JAPANESE VALUES:

-- Individual needs are less important than group needs. Teamwork is important.

-- Japanese loyalties are to the "house," the family, and to related groups.

-- The paternalistic loyalty exhibited within the family is extended elsewhere; employees are self-sacrificing; employers are benevolent and obligated to look after their employees.

-- Japanese are expected to conform; they are expected to obey rules and regulations and to respect conventional behavior. Concession and submission to others are expected, conflict is frowned upon. Discipline and obedience are requirements; along with these go restraint, acquiescence, and thankfulness.

--Heavy emphasis is placed on status distinction. One must "know his own place," with regard to age, class, sex (male emphasis), lineage, etc. (16:107-108)

FAMOUS ASIAN AMERICAN CONTRIBUTORS AND CONTRIBUTIONS

CONTRIBUTORS

- <u>POLITICS</u>: The following 1996 figures represent elected Asian American officials in key federal, state, and municipal positions:

Federal Senators		2
Federal Representatives		5
State Senators		22
State Representatives		41
State Governors		1
State Treasurers		1
Secretaries of State		1
City Mayors		26
City Council Members	83	
Judges		210

The majority of these officials represented California, Hawaii, and Washington. (20:20)

Individual contributors include: **Doris Matsui** and **Shirley Sagawa** (first Asian American members of President Clinton's sub-cabinet); **Joy Cherian** (Chairman of Equal Employment Opportunities Commission in Reagan Administration); **Dennis Yao** (one of five Federal Trade Commissioners selected by President Bush in 1991); **Hiram L. Fong, Spark M. Matsunaga**, and **Daniel Ken Inouye** (U.S. Senators); **Dalip Saund, Robert Matsui, Daniel K. Akaka** and **Patsy Takemoto Mink** (U.S. Representatives); and **Samuel Ichiye Hayakawa** (U.S. Senator, college president, and author); **Benjamin Cayetano** (State Representative, Lt. Governor of Hawaii); **John Waihee** (Governor of Hawaii).

- SCIENCE, MATHEMATICS, MEDICINE, and ACADEMIA: Jokichi Takamine (chemist, first to isolate adrenaline); Hideyo Murayama (isolated syphilis germ); Dr. An Wang (computer wizard); Satori Kato (chemist, invented instant powdered coffee); and Dr. Mary Stone (first Chinese woman to graduate from an American medical school); Ananda Chakrabarty (pioneer in genetic engineering); **Dr. Yuan Lee** (professor at the University of California, Berkeley, who won the Nobel Prize in chemistry in 1986); **Dr. Samuel Ting** (Nobel prize winner in physics in 1976); Lieutenant Colonel Ellison Onizuka (flew aboard the first Defense Department shuttle mission in January 1985 and later died aboard Challenger in 1986); Har Gobind Khorana (1968 Nobel Prize for medicine); Im Proum (Cambodian linguist at Cornell University); James Misahon (prominent administrator at University of Hawaii); Haunani-Kay Trask (political theorist, author at University of Hawaii); Dr. Bruce (Thow Pao) Bliatout (Director of International Health Center, authority on Sudden Death Syndrome); Dr. Dao Yang (sociologist); Elaine H. Kim (professor of Asian American Studies at UC Berkeley, author); Herbert Y. C. Choy (first Asian American to be appointed to the Federal bench - U.S. Court of Appeals); Banlang Phommasouvanh (educator); Mohammad Asad Khan (geophysicist and educator); Dr. Muhammad Akhtar (Commissioner of Public Health in Washington, DC); Boondharm Wongananda (noted surgeon); Huynh Sanh Thong (scholar, translator).

- ENTERTAINMENT: Lea Salonga (star of Broadway play <u>Miss Saigon</u>); Joan Chen (actress); Bruce Lee (actor in martial arts films); Kam Fong (actor in <u>Hawaii 50</u>); Sessue Hayakawa (actor in <u>Bridge on the River Kwai</u>); George Takei (actor in <u>Star Trek</u>); Dr. Haing S. Ngor (Oscar-winning actor in <u>The</u> <u>Killing Fields</u>); Connie Chung (first Asian American to report nationally for a television network); Ken Kashiwahara, James Hatori (television news correspondents); John Yune, Margaret Cho (comedians); Seiji Ozawa (conductor of the Boston Symphony Orchestra); Kyung-Wha Chung (world famous violinist); Zubin Mehta (musician and conductor of New York Philharmonic); Ismail Merchant, Wayne Wang (film producers); Keanu Reeves (actor); Don Ho (entertainer); Pat Morita (actor in <u>The Karate Kid</u>); Phillip Kan Gotanda (playwright, musician, director); Nam June Paik (electronic music composer); Mavis Rivers (jazz vocalist); Dustin Nguyen (actor).

- <u>SPORTS</u>: Hawaiian-born George Haaheo "Chad" Rowan, a.k.a. "Akebono" (the only American ever to win the title of "Yokozuna," Japan's top Sumo wrestler); Kristi Yamaguchi (1993 Olympic Gold Medalist in women's figure skating); Charlie Pung, Richard Tanabe, Sandra Nitta, Linda Jezek, Evelyn Kawamoto, Ford Konno, and Yoshinaba Oyakawa (swimmers and Olympic medalists); Vicki Manalo Draves (in 1948, was first woman in Olympic history to win two gold medals in diving); Dr. Sammy Lee (diving champion); Tiffany Chin (youngest ice skater ever to win the Junior World Figure Skating Title); Harold Sakata and Tommy Kono (Olympic weight lifters); James Yoshinori (boxer); Patrick Mitsugi Burris, Nicki Yonezuki, Craig Agena, and Lt. Col. Paul K. Maruyama, USAF (Judo champions); Michael Chang (youngest male winner of the French Open tennis tournament in 1989); Roman Gabriel, Al Noga (football).

<u>BUSINESS</u>: Rocky Aoki (founder of Benihana of Tokyo restaurant chain); Joe Shoong (founder of National Dollar Stores chain); Rick Inatome (founded Inacomp Computer Corp.); and Gerald Tsai, Jr. (Chairman of American Can Co., first Chinese-born American citizen to head a major, old-line U.S. corporation); Kim Hyung-Soon (founder of Kim Brothers Company, a huge nursery, orchard, and fruit-packing company; developed fuzzless peaches and the nectarine); Frank Falaniko Jr. (Landscape construction engineer, president of Green City, Inc.); Andrew Lam (Associate Editor of the Pacific News Service).

- <u>ARTS & LITERATURE</u>: **Natvar Bhavsar** (painter); **Madhur Jaffrey** (author of Indian cookbooks); **Maya Ying Lin** (designer of the Vietnam Veteran's Memorial); **Manuel Buaken** (author); **Polani Vaughan** (photographic artist); **Jun Atushi Iwamatsu** (author and illustrator of children's books); **Kim Young Ik** (author); **Samina Quraeshi** (Director of Design Arts at the National Endowment for the Arts);

CONTRIBUTIONS

- Chinese laborers were the main work force in the construction of the first Transcontinental Railroad, as well as construction of a huge railway network throughout the South and Southwest. They were also instrumental as laborers in mining, farming, canal construction, and land reclamation in early California, helping to greatly accelerate that state's agricultural development. Chinese were leaders in the development of fruit and vegetable farming in California, as well as the fishing industry there. (34:309; 6:70-71)

- Asian Americans hold more top positions in science and medicine than nativeborn Blacks or Hispanics. A very high percentage of Asian immigrants have advanced college degrees (one survey showed nearly 91 percent of Asian Indian professionals had some sort of college diploma), allowing them to become leaders in their respective fields. Their contributions to these fields have been innumerable. (26:A10)

- Dr. Wen-Tsing Chow, a Chinese-American engineer working for American Bosch Arma Corporation in the development of inertial guidance systems for the Air Force's Titan and Atlas missiles, pioneered the use of photochemical circuitry, allowing for miniaturization of the guidance system computer components, and paving the way for further microminiaturization, used in so many products today. (17:242)

- Over 1,000 Japanese cherry trees were planted around the Tidal Basin in Washington, DC in 1909. The trees were a gift from the mayor of Tokyo. (21:188)

- Cherries were cultivated in China approximately 4,000 years ago, but a Chinese immigrant named Ah Bing developed the Bing Cherry in 1875. Chinese immigrant Luey Gim Gong, a famed horticulturist, developed a strain of frost-resistant oranges in addition to new strains of numerous other fruits. (6:71)

- Asian Indian immigrants settled in large numbers as farmers in California's Imperial Valley. The Imperial Valley at times supplies up to 90 percent of the nation's lettuce. The Indian farmers' "imported" farming methods turned land that produced 90 crates of cantaloupes per acre into land producing 150 crates per acre. The much larger Sacramento Valley is also home to many Asian Indian Americans who, utilizing their skills along with modern machinery have become a major supplier of food for America. (4:58-59)

- The martial arts have become an important part of American sports as well as self-defense. First introduced by returning American servicemen after World War II and the Korean War, the oriental disciplines of judo, jiu-jitsu, karate, kendo, aikido, tae kwon do, and others are now taught all over the United States. (22:778-779,910)

- Many forms of Japanese art have been accepted in America. Japanese gardens and landscaping have proven popular for their simplicity. Many Americans enjoy "bonsai," the growth of miniature trees, and "ikebana," or Japanese flower arrangement, as hobbies. Japanese painting and print making have influenced American artists. Other areas of Japanese influence include textiles. Paper made from wood pulp is a Japanese invention, as is rattan furniture. Bamboo, long used in Japan for building purposes, has found many uses in the U.S. (18:214-215, 263-265)

- Some Asian words which have become part of the American language: tea, typhoon, tong, kumquat, kowtow, and honcho (from han-cho meaning squad

leader), shanghai (to press someone into service), yen (desire), chow, and chopchop.

MILITARY HISTORY AND PARTICIPATION

- Asians likely served this nation's military service in some capacity as long as Hispanics and Blacks, but because of a lack of accurate records only bits and pieces of data are present in the literature.

THE SPANISH AMERICAN WAR

Seven Issei (first generation Japanese) and one Chinese are reported to have been among the crew members killed when the USS Maine sank in Havana Harbor in 1898. Filipino Army units fought side-by-side with the American Navy against the Spanish in Manila. Later, however, these same Filipino soldiers would fight against American troops in their struggle for independence--1898-1902. (9:8)

PHILIPPINE SCOUTS

Following the defeat of Spain and the quelling of the Philippine Insurrection, the U.S. formed the Philippine Scouts within the U.S. Army in the Philippines. Filipinos were considered to be American nationals, and the Philippine Division was fully integrated into the U.S. Army. There were Filipino officers in the Army, but they could only be assigned to the Scouts. The highest ranking officer assigned to the Scouts was a major, thus limiting the Filipino officers to the rank of major. The Philippine scouts remained in existence through World War II. They were an integral part of the U.S. Army in the Philippines. General Douglas MacArthur served with the Scouts on several occasions and was their division commander in the late 1920's. He also served as the court martial officer for 200 rebelling scouts in 1924, sentencing them all to dishonorable discharges and five years of hard labor. (9:8)

FILIPINOS IN THE U.S. NAVY

In 1903, the U.S. Navy listed nine Filipinos in the ranks; by 1905, there were 178. Between World War I and World War II, the number of Filipinos remained roughly 4,000. These men served in steward ratings throughout the fleet, providing various services to other naval personnel. (9:8)

- The primary reason for Filipinos to join the Navy both before and after WWII was the immediate prestige afforded by wearing the uniform and the opportunity to escape a life of poverty and strife. From 1947 to 1992, Filipinos enjoyed a "special relationship" with the U.S. Navy as a result of the "Military Bases Agreement of 1947." Modified in 1954, the agreement set a maximum limit of 2,000 Filipino enlistments per year. The supply of enlistees has always exceeded demand. For

this reason, the Navy has always enjoyed a superior percentage of successful Asian minorities in its ranks. The mutual decision to close Subic Bay Naval Base in 1992 ended the 45 year "special relationship." Filipinos number approximately 20,000 enlisted (4 percent) and 400 (1 percent) officers in the U.S. Navy of the 1990's, but Filipino nationals are no longer offered enlistments in the U.S. Navy and their numbers are expected to dwindle in the 21st century. (24:29)

- In 1985 Commander Tem E. Bugarin became the first Filipino to command a U.S. Navy warship when he assumed command of USS Saginaw (LST 1188). Bugarin was born in Bay-Bay Leyte (Republic of the Philippines) and immigrated to the U.S. with his parents at the age of 2. (2:49)

PEARL HARBOR

- In order to attack Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941 Japanese Admiral Isoroku Yamamoto, Commander of the Japanese Combined Fleet, assembled a formidable force of six carriers and six cruisers with 370 aircraft under the immediate command of Admiral Chuichi Nagumo. This task force operated unopposed and undetected for two weeks prior to the attack in Pacific waters north of the Hawaiian Islands. Two flights of aircraft rained havoc over the Pearl Harbor Naval Base and adjoining air fields for approximately two hours. American casualties in terms of personnel and ships were enormous, but the Japanese did not damage the U.S. carrier fleet, which was not in port at the time of the attack. Having lost only 29 aircraft, Nagumo decided not to launch a third assault and risk detection of his task force. Considering the operation a success, he turned and headed for home. Tactically, the Japanese Fleet had struck a blow to the heart of the American Pacific Fleet in Pearl Harbor. Despite loss or damage of every American battleship in port, the Japanese had spared fuel reserves, ammunition depots, and logistics facilities. American carriers remained combat-ready and at sea. Strategically and politically, the Japanese had blundered and Pearl Harbor would be the beginning of the demise of the Japanese Empire. (19:1-5)

- President Roosevelt called it a "day of infamy" and Winston Churchill "a holocaust." As the United States took measures to put its war machine into operation on December 8, 1941, it similarly took steps to isolate the Japanese minority living within the confines of U.S. territory. Overnight, Japanese Americans - - some American citizens, some in the process of naturalization, many confused and frightened - - were transformed by public opinion into a villainous breed of spies, disloyal citizens, and enemy sympathizers. As one Japanese American recalled on the day of the attack:

The day the war broke out, I was at a party for one of my Caucasian friends. I was the only Japanese present at the gathering. It was a sort of luncheon. The radio was turned on and that was the first time I heard of Pearl Harbor and it was such a shock. Everything in the room went blank for me. It's a day I hate to think about now and I hope I never have to live through another day like that. I felt like I wanted the flood to open up and swallow me. I felt everybody's eyes on me and I desperately wished that I was in a dark cave alone. The people at the luncheon were very understanding and they immediately comforted me. I felt a sense of guilt for what Japan had done. I was too stunned to even think straight. (11:44)

JAPANESE AMERICAN RELOCATION CENTERS

- Although there was evidence that some Japanese Americans were secretly supportive of Japan, the FBI concluded that this small number posed no threat of a "twelfth man" network to undermine the American war effort on American soil. Nevertheless, with the public outcry of "Remember Pearl Harbor," President Franklin Roosevelt signed Executive Order 9066 on February 9, 1942, giving military commanders authority to exclude any and all persons from designated military areas. The following day, major portions of Washington, Oregon, Montana, California, Nevada, and Utah were defined as such areas. All alien Japanese and native-born citizens of Japanese descent, 117,116 in all (24,712 families), were placed under a curfew and evacuated to "relocation centers." Nearly two-thirds were citizens, born in the United States.

Hawaii's Japanese were spared; however, immediately after the attack on Pearl Harbor there were accusations of sabotage levied against some of them. Four full investigations were undertaken, but none of the charges could be substantiated. In addition to President Roosevelt, several prominent Americans and a surprising number of liberals like Walter Lippmann and California Attorney General (and future Chief Justice of the U.S. Supreme Court) Earl Warren, shared fears of an internal Japanese threat to national security. With respect to persons of Japanese ancestry born in the U.S., Warren commented:

...in some instances the children of those people have been sent to Japan for their education, either in whole or in part, and while they are over there they are indoctrinated with the idea of Japanese imperialism. They receive their religious instruction which ties up their religion with their Emperor, and they come back here imbued with the ideas and the policies of Imperial Japan. While I do not cast a reflection on every Japanese who is born in this country - of course we will have loyal ones - I do say that the consensus of opinion is that taking the groups by and large there is more potential danger to this State from the group that is born here than from the group born in Japan." (11:45-47)

JAPANESE AMERICAN PATRIOTS DURING WORLD WAR II

- Among other humiliations, the Japanese internees at the camps were directed to complete a questionnaire concerning their loyalties. Two questions created much consternation for the internees: "Are you willing to serve in the armed forces of the United States on combat duty, wherever ordered?" and "Will you swear unqualified allegiance to the United States of America and faithfully defend the United States from any or all attacks by foreign or domestic forces, and forswear any allegiance or obedience to the Japanese Emperor or to any other foreign government, power or organization?" Responses to these questions were generally "yes, yes" or "no, no." The negative responses were generated as a result of uncertainty, fear and lack of trust in a government that had incarcerated innocent citizens. Fairly or unfairly, those answering "no, no" were labeled as subversives and separated from the rest of the internees to await expatriation. Many of those answering "yes, yes" went on to serve their country in an exemplary manner.

The first of these Japanese patriots were the graduates of the Military Intelligence Service Language School (MISLS) headquartered in Camp Savage, Minnesota. According to O'Brien and Fugita, while their relatives were locked up in concentration camps, these men became the "eyes and ears" of the Allied Forces in the Pacific. They served as interpreters, interrogators, propaganda specialists, analysts and members of the War Crimes trials. "MISLS graduates were at Guadalcanal, with Merrill's Marauders in Burma, Corregidor, Mindanao, the Solomons, the Marianas, Kwajalein, Leyte, New Guinea, Luzon, Iwo Jima, Okinawa, and numerous other major battles." They performed an invaluable service for their country. (11:65-66, 69)

- After Pearl Harbor a number of Japanese Americans were already in the Hawaii National Guard. Their loyalty was questioned, and they were disarmed and assigned to menial labor. At the request of Hawaiian citizens, a Japanese American unit was formed from these trained men, and the Army responded by creating a battalion. In June 1942, 1300 of these men arrived at Camp McCoy, Wisconsin and became the 100th Infantry Battalion, attached to the Second Army. Their training record was so superb that the 442d Regimental Combat Team was activated on February 1, 1943. More than 3,000 Japanese from Hawaii and 1,500 from the mainland volunteered. Many of the mainland volunteers had families in the relocation centers.

They were sent to North Africa in August 1943, and on September 19, 1943, landed on the beaches of Salerno, Italy. They fought valiantly throughout Italy, earning the name "Purple Heart Battalion" because of the high casualties they suffered. Over 1,000 Purple Hearts were awarded during this period. One wounded member of the 442nd was (future) Senator Daniel Inouye of Hawaii.

The commander of the 100th, Major James Gillespie, stated, "They call

themselves just plain Americans...They have earned that right...Anybody who calls these doughboys 'Jap' is the most narrow-minded person I know of. They are just as American as I am."

In less than two years, the 100th Infantry Battalion and the 442nd Combat Team successfully fought in seven major campaigns in Italy and Germany. They were responsible for the rescue of the famed "Lost Battalion" of the 141st Regiment, 36th Division, during which they lost 200 men and suffered 600 casualties.

In the final days of the war, they broke the Gothic Line that had defied Allied assault for over five months. They were the first Allied troops to reach Turin, Italy, and controlled the Western sector. The Third Reich surrendered two days later.

The 100th and the 442nd suffered 9,486 casualties, including 650 soldiers killed in action. During the Italian Campaign alone the Japanese American men of the 100th Battalion had earned more than 1,000 Purple Hearts, 11 Distinguished Service Crosses, 44 Silver Stars, 31 Bronze Stars, and 3 Legion of Merit ribbons. All told, they took 18,143 individual decorations for valor, making the 100th Infantry Battalion and the 442nd Regimental Combat Team "the most decorated unit for its size and length of service in the history of the United States." (23:33; 9:12-15)

- President Harry S Truman pinned the final Presidential Citation to the 442nd colors and said, "I can't tell you how much I appreciate the privilege of being able to show you just how much the United States thinks of what you have done...You fought not only the enemy, but you fought prejudice--and you won."

CHINESE AMERICAN ROLES IN WORLD WAR II

The Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor generated a series of profound changes for the Chinese in America. The Chinese were already anti-Japan because of the earlier Japanese occupation of China. America's entry into the war gave ChineseAmericans the opportunity to act. Chinese found work in defense industries, frequently in technical and scientific positions which offered good wages. The Navy waived its alien restrictions and recruited 500 Chinese Americans as apprentice seamen immediately after Pearl Harbor. Chinese community leaders urged young Chinese to enlist as a demonstration of their loyalty.

The New York Chinatown cheered itself hoarse when the first draft numbers included Chinese Americans. Of 11 Chinese of draft age in Butte, Montana, all enlisted before being drafted. Chinese soldiers fought side-by-side with Whites, whose ancestors had tried to expel the Chinese from America. Of 59,803 Chinese adult males in the U.S. in 1941, including citizens, residents, and students, over 20 percent were drafted or enlisted in the U.S. Army during World War II. Smaller numbers also served in the Navy and Air Corps. Two hundred and fourteen Chinese Americans are known to have died in the war. This was a small number compared to the rest of America, but it nevertheless demonstrated the patriotism of a people long discriminated against. The inroads the Chinese Americans made into the American labor force were never reversed. American prejudice against Japan in World War II benefited the Chinese by comparison; with repeal of both the exclusion laws and of the naturalization prohibition, more and more Chinese could and did build normal lives in America. The old sojourner's bachelor society was supplanted by a highly structured social order and family system. American attitudes also changed. Many Whites began to accept the Chinese as valuable members of American society. Chinese Americans were portrayed as modern, intelligent, proud, tolerant, and Christian. World War II unmistakably changed American images of the Chinese, as the Chinese self-image also changed.

Chinese Americans were discarding some traditional Chinese traits while adopting American ones, but they continued to hold to such Chinese values as reverence for family, respect for education and hard work, cultivation of propriety, and patience and restrictiveness in the upbringing of children. (9:10)

THE ROLE OF THE FILIPINO-AMERICAN IN WORLD WAR II

The Philippines were part of the U.S., and when they fell to Japan it was accepted by all Americans that the Japanese had to be driven out. Thousands of Filipino Americans volunteered for military service immediately after Pearl Harbor, but were refused due to the U.S. citizenship requirement for service. But by December 20, 1941, Congress had passed resolutions allowing virtually unlimited enlistment and employment of the Filipino Americans in the war effort.

On April 22, 1942, the First Filipino Infantry Battalion, U.S. Army, was activated at Camp San Luis Obispo, California, with three Filipino officers and an American Army colonel in command.

"This new unit is formed in recognition of the intense loyalty and patriotism of those Filipinos who are now residing in the U.S. It provides for them a means of serving in the Armed Forces of the United States, and the eventual opportunity of fighting on the soil of their homeland." (Secretary of War, statement of February 19, 1942)

On August 2, 1942 the Third Battalion, Filipino Unit of the California State Militia of Salinas, received its colors. The First Filipino Regiment came home to San Francisco in 1946 with 555 men, mostly Filipinos. The unit closely resembled the famed 442nd Regiment in prestige and combat distinction. But unlike the 442nd, the role of Filipinos in the war is not widely known or recorded. The regiment had been organized with one primary task in mind: pre-invasion intelligence work. Six months before the Leyte Gulf landing on October 20, 1944, the First (Filipino) Reconnaissance Battalion was ashore gathering information. The rest of the Regiment participated in the campaigns for Samar and Leyte.

The Filipino American units played a significant role in the eventual recapture of the Philippines. Their efforts and the efforts of the Filipinos at home gained them greater recognition in Congress and led directly to the July 12, 1946 legislation which granted Filipinos the right to become citizens. (9:11)

THE ROLE OF KOREAN AMERICANS AND PACIFIC ISLANDERS IN WORLD WAR II

On the evening of December 7, 1941, Korean residents of Los Angeles gathered at the Headquarters of the Korean National Association and passed three resolutions:

--Koreans shall promote unity during the war and act harmoniously.

--Koreans shall work for the defense of the country where they reside and... should volunteer for National Guard duty... should purchase war bonds and...volunteer for appropriate duties.

--Koreans shall wear a badge identifying them as Koreans for security purposes.

By December 29, 1941, 50 Koreans had registered for the California National Guard and begun training. The formation of a Korean Guard unit quickly followed. On December 4, 1943 Military Order No. 45 was issued exempting Koreans from enemy alien status, thus opening all of the Armed Services to Korean immigrants. (9:9-10)

- Pacific Islanders also took an active role in the eventual defeat of Japan. They developed a special relationship with U.S. Navy and Marine Corps units throughout the Pacific. Samoans, Figians, Guamanians, and others were allowed to enlist in the Navy and Marine Corps. They served as infantrymen, guides, translators, coast watchers, and in numerous other capacities. These islanders shared a common bond with America: a desire to defeat the Japanese and free their homes from occupation. (15:26)

THE CONSTITUTIONALITY OF THE CONCENTRATION CAMPS

- In late 1944 the U.S. Supreme Court ruled that Japanese Americans of unquestioned loyalty to the U.S. could not be detained in war relocation centers; however, the constitutionality of the evacuation from Pacific Coast areas was upheld. The Japanese were allowed to return to the West Coast area in 1945, but most had lost everything they had:

...bargain hunters and junk dealers descended in hordes. The frightened and confused became easy prey to swindlers who threatened to "arrange" for the confiscation of their property if they would not agree to a forced sale.... There were many who turned over possessions for storage in local Japanese temples and churches, others who simply boarded them up in garages or vacant sheds belonging to kindly-disposed neighbors. But pilfering and vandalism often began before they were hardly out of their homes. A postwar survey was to reveal that 80 percent of goods and privately stored items were "rifled, stolen or sold during their absence." (11:61)

- In January 1986 the U.S. Court of Appeals reinstated a lawsuit seeking \$24 billion for Japanese interned during World War II in relocation camps. In November 1986, the U.S. Supreme Court agreed to consider whether Japanese Americans interned in World War II relocation camps could sue the Federal government for compensation for financial losses. It did not agree to review the Japanese Americans' appeal of the constitutionality of the internment itself.

In 1988 Senator Spark Matsunaga, (D-Hawaii), sponsored legislation apologizing for the internment, stating that it was "motivated largely by racial prejudice, wartime hysteria and a failure of political leadership."

It was not until 1992 that checks in the amount of \$20,000 were offered to survivors of the internment camps. Attorney General Dick Thornburgh issued the first nine such checks to elderly Japanese Americans in Washington, D.C., on October 9, 1992. Thornburgh did so symbolically on bended knee as if to offer the apologies of the nation by way of his position as Attorney General. "By forcing us to re-examine our history, you have made us even stronger and more proud," Thornburgh stated.

Congress set aside \$1.3 billion dollars to make reparations over the course of three years to as many as 65,000 internees. According to Tsuyako Kitashima of San Francisco, "Hopefully for myself and thousands of others, this will unburden the stigma of disloyalty." (36:A9)

THE KOREAN WAR

Following World War II, Asian Pacific Americans were integrated into the Armed Forces. Segregated units were no longer formed, although some units such as the 100th Battalion, Hawaii National Guard, maintain a predominantly Asian Pacific American membership.

The outbreak of war in Korea found U.S. forces unprepared. Reserves and National Guard units were mobilized. The draft was expanded and few groups were exempted from service. The severe shortage of front-line combat soldiers led to the foundation of the Korean Augmentation to the U.S. Army (KATUSA) program. The original KATUSA program started casually during the Korean War. Korean stragglers began joining in with U.S. Army units, primarily for rations and a home. In August 1950, General Douglas MacArthur made it official with initial plans for 20-30,000 Korean Army recruits assigned to U.S. units at the rate of about 100 per company or battery. This initial effort was somewhat less than successful, mostly due to the language barrier.

The KATUSA program has been on-again, off-again for the last three decades. It

is currently an active program managed by the U.S. Eighth Army, U.S. Forces Korea. Current participants are members of the Republic of Korea Army who are recruited for 3year tours of duty with the U.S. Army. They are recruited, paid, promoted, and disciplined by the ROK Army, but are under the operational command and control of the U.S. Army. Fully integrated into U.S. units, they are treated in exactly the same manner as U.S. soldiers; however, they arrive at U.S. units assigned a military specialty but without specific training in the specialty.

A KATUSA soldier will normally remain within the same company or battery for the duration of his or her tour of service. In addition to military specialty duties, they act as interpreters between U.S. and Korean personnel and are invaluable in assisting U.S. personnel to adapt to Korean customs. They directly enhance U.S. combat readiness and reduce support cost for U.S. units in Korea. (9:15-16)

- Yu Song Dan immigrated from Korea to Texas in 1988. In 1991, he wrote a letter to President Bush describing how, as a young man during the Korean War, he assisted his father with the rescue and escape of seven American airmen from a downed B-29. The Yu's plucked the airmen from the water in their junk and sailed 100 miles, delivering them to friendly forces on July 16, 1950. According to the younger Yu:

Truly motivated by human love, we helped those who escaped from the B-29. After returning [North], my father hid himself. By secret notice from a neighbor, my parents and I were captured by enemy soldiers on July 30, 1950. On September 2, 1950, my father was killed with bayonets by 10 enemy soldiers.

For his family's actions and their sacrifice, President Bush awarded the younger Yu with a check for \$100,000.00. (25:9)

THE VIETNAM WAR

- By the time the Vietnam War took place, Asian Americans were fully integrated into the ranks of the armed forces. Statistics were not kept with respect to specific groups within the Asian minority. Asian Americans served with distinction in Vietnam as they did in World War II and Korea.

ASIAN AMERICAN MEDAL OF HONOR WINNERS

- The following Asian Americans have received the Medal of Honor:

-- PVT Jose B. Nisperos, Philippine Scouts (Philippines, 1911)

-- Fireman 2nd Class Telesforo Trinidad, USN (1915)

-- SGT Jose Calugas, Philippine Scouts (Philippines, 1942)

- -- PFC Sadao S. Munemori, USA (Italy, 1945)
- -- CPL Hiroshi H. Miyamura, USA (Korea, 1951)
- -- PFC Herbert K. Pililaau, USA (Korea, 1951)
- -- SGT Leroy A. Mendonca, USA (Korea, 1951)
- -- S/SGT Elmelindo R. Smith, USA (Vietnam, 1967)
- -- SFC Rodney J. T. Yanao, USA (Vietnam, 1969)
- -- CPL Terry Terua Kawamura, USA (Vietnam, 1969) (29:87, 167-168, 216, 217-218, 226, 277, 404-405, 547, 599)

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