

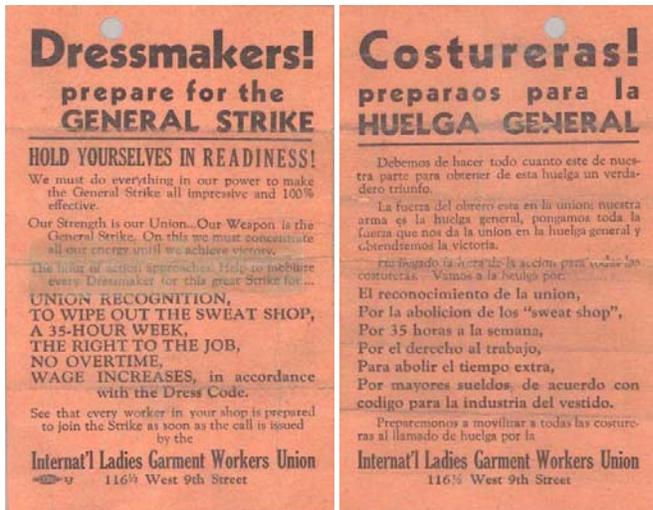
Research Topics

Conflict and Compromise

National Archives and Records Administration - Pacific Region (Laguna Niguel)
24000 Avila Road, 1st Floor East
Laguna Niguel, CA 92677
949-360-2641
laguna.archives@nara.gov

Labor Strife: The Bisbee Deportations

The United States' involvement in World War I created an inflation in the cost of living at the same time it was a boom for the copper industry of Arizona. The copper corporations moved their profits along to their stockholders, and paid little or no attention to the wages of their miners and mine workers, many of whom were from Eastern Europe and Mexico. The International Workers of the World (IWW) began to successfully organize the Bisbee, Arizona miners, especially the immigrant workers.



Needle Trades Strike in Los Angeles

Labor unions gained strength among Mexican workers during the Great Depression. In 1933 and 1934, the International Ladies Garment Workers' Union (ILGWU) was involved in a large strike among the needle trade workers of Los Angeles. They had focused on organizing, not only European immigrant women, but Mexican and Mexican-American women. They published bilingual materials to attract the women and gain support in the Mexican community. The Federal government's National Labor Relations Board (NLRB) became involved in trying to bring the workers and factory owners together for mediation.

The Pullman Strike in Southern California and Arizona

In 1894, American Railway Union workers across the United States joined in a sympathy strike for employees of the Pullman Palace Car Company. George Pullman's workers, who lived in a company town in Illinois, faced cuts in their wages but no corresponding cuts in living expenses. This disparity between wages and expenses led to a strike, beginning on May 11, 1894. Workers across the country engaged in sympathy strikes the following month. Because of the delays these strikes caused to mail delivery, the Federal government intervened on behalf of the railroads. By the end of the summer, most railroad workers had returned to their jobs.

Navajo Stock Reduction

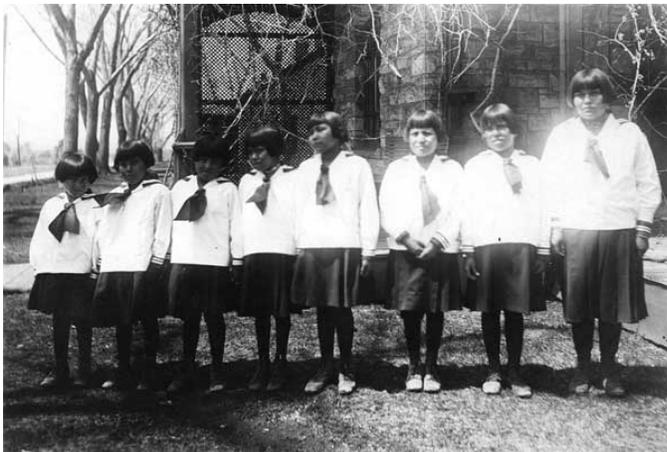
From the late 1920s through the 1940s, the Federal government forced the killing or sale of many animals owned by Indians in Northern Arizona and New Mexico. The government imposed limits on the livestock permitted to graze on the Navajo Indian Reservation for the purposes of soil and range conservation. This policy was vehemently opposed by many Navajos. The traditional reliance on livestock for food, clothing, and wealth encouraged the accumulation of large herds. Those opposed to this program used many tactics, including participation in tribal government and violence against government officials, to try and put a stop to it. The tribal government attempted to balance the needs of the government, concerned about soil runoff affecting Hoover Dam, against the deeply held beliefs and economic needs of its people. The program resulted in a system of grazing permits still in use today.

Assimilating Native Americans: Bureau of Indian Affairs Field Matrons

The policies of the Office of Indian Affairs at the turn of the 20th Century promoted the assimilation of native peoples into American society at large. One element of this policy was the work of the field matron. Her responsibility was to work within specific agencies to promote culture assimilation among Indian women. She taught and tracked the domestic skills of the women. When working with the Indian schools, the field matrons sought domestic positions for girls in the homes of white families. Her job was received with mixed feelings by the community and the agency.

Each field matron had a different set of goals and issues for the women with whom she worked. Each agency had responsibility over a group of Indians with specific social and cultural concerns. The diversity and similarity of experiences of the Field Matrons shows the implementation of the assimilative policy of the Office of Indian Affairs.

Education, Assimilation, and the Bureau of Indian Affairs



The goal of Indian education from the 1880s through the 1920s was to assimilate Indian people into American society by placing them in schools where traditional ways could be replaced by those sanctioned by the government and American society.

Many children were forced into boarding schools where their hair was cut, their traditional clothes were replaced with American style clothing and their language and religion were banned in favor of English and Christianity. The taking of these children often caused intense anger among the communities on the reservation, resulting in violence and mistrust of the Bureau of Indian Affairs, whose

responsibility it was to oversee the education of Indian children.

Agencies across Arizona and California implemented these policies with results that were typical of the national results in many ways, but with events and reactions unique to each specific cultural group.

Native American Autonomy: Mission Indian Federation

In 1919, California Indians from over 30 different reservations met at the Riverside, California home of Jonathan Tibbet, a white realtor and Indian rights activist, to form the Mission Indian Federation (MIF). The purpose of the organization was, "...to secure by legislation or otherwise all the rights and benefits belonging to each Indian, both singly, and collectively - to protect them against unjust laws-rules-regulations."



Through much of the 20th century, the MIF agitated for Indian self-rule on southern California reservations. Led by Tibbet and Adam Castillo, who presided as the President of the organization for much of its existence, the Federation challenged the authority and competency of the Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) throughout the 1920s, publicly claiming that the United States government did, "...nothing for the advancement or benefit of California Indians" and that the BIA had robbed, defrauded, and denied the Indians of their land, privileges, and rights. In 1921 the Federal government responded to these accusations by indicting 57 Federation members on charges of conspiring to defraud the Federal government, interfering with the administration of the BIA, and alienating Indians from the Federal government.

Native American Self Governance: *United States v. Bill Whaley, et al*

In 1887, the tribal council on the Tule River Indian Reservation in California ordered four tribal members to kill a healer. Several of the healer's patients had died, and the council had warned him that he would pay with his life for any further failures. When he lost another patient, the council ordered Bill Whaley, Salt Lake Pete, Pancho Francisco, and Juan Chino to carry out the death sentence. Prior to the Major Crimes Act of 1885, administration of justice between Indians on reservations was left to tribal custom. In this case the U.S. Government prosecuted the four for murder under the Major Crimes Act of 1885, a law that mandated Federal control over tribal justice systems in cases of crimes such as murder. This prosecution showed the sharp differences between American and tribal culture.

The 1918 Influenza Epidemic in Indian Country

World War I claimed an estimated 16 million lives. The influenza epidemic that swept the world in 1918 killed an estimated 50 million people. It was rampant in urban and rural areas, from the densely populated East coast to the remotest parts of Alaska. Young adults, usually unaffected by these types of infectious diseases, were among the hardest hit groups along with the elderly and young children. The flu afflicted over 25 percent of the United States population. In one year, the average life expectancy in the United States dropped by 12 years.

Indian reservations with their Bureau of Indian Affairs (BIA) agents served as a microcosm of the national response. The BIA had responsibility for the care and containment of the epidemic within the Indian population. They faced challenges of geographic location as many reservations were extremely isolated. Also, they faced challenges of culture as many Native American cures for illness only aggravated influenza and ceremonies brought the healthy into contact with the ill.

The Indian New Deal: The Wheeler-Howard Act

Beginning in the mid-1930s, Commissioner of Indian Affairs, John Collier, began to reverse the Federal government's policy of assimilating Indians into mainstream society in favor of tradition and sovereignty. With passage of the Indian Reorganization Act (also known as the Wheeler-Howard Act) in 1934, Collier implemented a policy of limited sovereignty for recognized Indian tribes. The Act allowed tribes who established their own constitution and law-making process and to allow tribal management of tribal assets (mainly land).

Records for the agencies in California and Arizona show the complicated development of constitutions, arguments for and against reorganization, and resolutions passed by newly formed governments. Sovereignty allowed tribes to address issues unique to the history and culture of their own group.

Controlling the "Limpid Little Stream": Flood Control and the Encasement of the Los Angeles River

Early settlers to Los Angeles quickly became aware that the Los Angeles River, generally a trickling stream, could at times become a "terrible and grand old river." As more and more people settled into Los Angeles and Orange Counties, the damage to people and property resulting from flooding of the River and its tributaries increased. In 1938, a massive flood devastated the region. Locals demanded that the United States Army Corps of Engineers develop a solution. The Army Corps had been granted jurisdiction over civil flood control projects in 1936, and they eagerly pursued flood control along the Los Angeles River. The resulting system of dams, spillways and concrete encased channels is how most Americans recognize the Los Angeles River today.



American Citizen Detained: *Gaetano Territo v. United States*

The laws of the United States prohibit American citizens from declaring allegiance to a foreign government. Individuals who vote in foreign elections, work for foreign governments or join foreign militaries run the risk of losing their American citizenship.

During World War II, Gaetano Territo, an American citizen born in West Virginia, was captured while serving in the Italian army. The United States held him as an enemy prisoner of war in southern California for the duration of the war. The Federal government maintained that Territo forfeited his American citizenship when he swore an oath of allegiance to Italy before entering the Italian army. At the end of the war, Territo sued the United States government in Federal court, claiming he retained his U.S. citizenship and requesting to be allowed to stay in the country.

Detaining Foreign Combatants: Mexican Revolutionaries Detained

In 1913, during the Mexican Revolution, a Federalist garrison stationed at Naco, Sonora was overrun by Constitutionalist forces. The Federalists were forced to flee across the border into the United States. The Mexican soldiers surrendered to the United States Army, which took their weapons and detained them. They were initially held at Fort Bliss, Texas then transferred to Fort Rosecrans, California.

Higinio Toscano and 207 other members of the Federalist garrison then petitioned the United States District Court for a Writ of Habeas Corpus on the grounds that they were being imprisoned without being charged with a crime and that they had been denied due process of law. The Government based its defense of the Federalists' detention on the Hague Treaty, written in 1907 and then ratified by both the United States and Mexico. This treaty required America, as a neutral nation, to detain troops from belligerent armies that landed on its soil. The Federal court concluded that there was no constitutional violation because the 4th and 6th Amendments relate to criminal prosecutions and the case at hand was not a criminal prosecution.

Mexican Revolutionaries: Flores Magon and his Followers in the United States

At the beginning of the 20th century, a group of revolutionaries from Mexico living in the United States, including the anarchist Ricardo Flores Magon, recruited fighters to join the movement against the government of dictator Porfirio Diaz in Mexico. The United States was required by the Hague Treaty to remain neutral and to detain any belligerent armies organizing within its borders.

Magon, his brother Enrique Flores Magon, Librado Rivera, Anselmo Figueroa, Ceryl Rhys Pryce, Antonio Villarreal, and Maria Magon were all prosecuted by the Federal government for neutrality violations.

Founding the Israeli Air Force: Adolph Schwimmer's Neutrality Violations

Events between 1881 and 1945, beginning with waves of anti-Semitic programs in Russia and the Russian-controlled areas of Poland, and culminating in the Holocaust, converted the great majority of surviving Jews to the belief that a Jewish homeland was an urgent necessity.

At the end of World War II, Schwimmer purchased excess airplanes and airplane parts from the United States War Assets Administration and shipped them through Mexico, Italy and Czechoslovakia to Palestine. The airplanes that Schwimmer brought were used by Israelis during their war against the Palestinian Arabs to establish independent Israel. In the late 1940s, the United States Federal government prosecuted Adolph Schwimmer and several of his associates for violating American neutrality laws.

Schwimmer was pardoned by President Bill Clinton on January 20, 2001.

Becoming an American Again: Regaining Citizenship Lost through Marriage

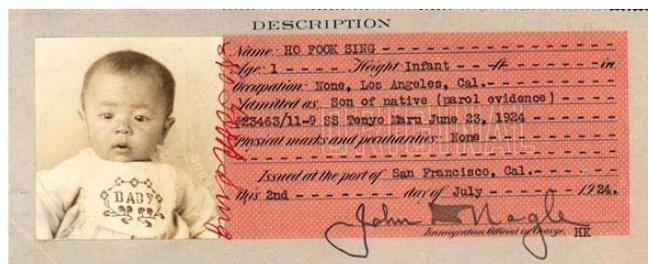
The United States Congress has continuously worked to ensure that foreign influence on the internal politics of this country is limited. In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, many daughters of wealthy businessmen had married foreign aristocrats. As a result, Congress feared that the husbands of these women would have an undue amount of influence over their wives' votes.

Congress passed legislation that stated that native-born American women who married foreign men between March 2, 1907 and September 22, 1922 lost their United States citizenship as a result. Prior to July 2, 1940, only women whose marriage was terminated by death or divorce qualified to have their citizenship reinstated. After 1940, any woman who resided continuously in the United States since the date of the marriage was also qualified for the reinstatement of their citizenship. Many women applied through the Federal courts to regain their United States citizenship.

The Chinese Exclusion Acts

From 1882 to 1943 the United States Government severely curtailed immigration from China to the United States. This Federal policy resulted from concern over the large numbers of Chinese immigrants. Competition with American workers and a growing nativism brought pressure for restrictive action, which began with the act of May 6, 1882 (22 Stat. 58). Passed by the 47th Congress, this law suspended immigration of Chinese laborers for ten years; permitted those Chinese in the United States as of November 17, 1880, to stay, travel abroad, and return; prohibited the naturalization of Chinese; and created a "Section 6" exempt status for teachers, students, merchants, and travelers. These exempt classes would be admitted upon presentation of a certificate from the Chinese government.

Other restrictive immigration acts affecting citizens of Chinese ancestry followed, until 1943 when President Franklin D. Roosevelt, taking into consideration China's position as an ally, signed an "Act to Repeal the Chinese Exclusion Acts, to Establish Quotas, and for Other Purposes" (57 Stat. 600-1). This Act of December 13, 1943 also lifted restrictions on naturalization.



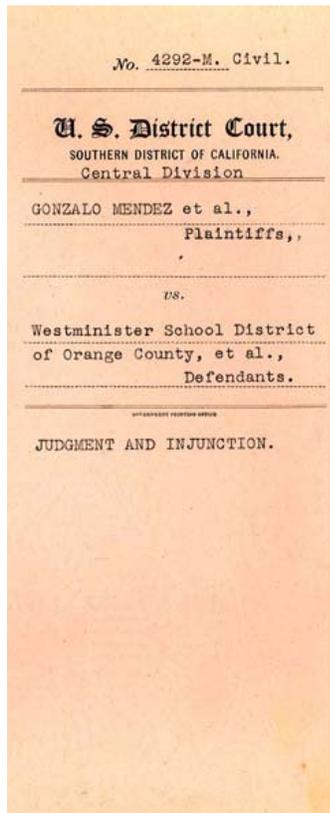
Naturalization: A Black and White Issue?

In 1917, the United States Congress passed a law barring all Asian people, including Indians, from entry into the United States. In 1923, the Supreme Court decided in *The United States v. Bhagat Singh Thind* that high caste Hindu Indians were, in fact, Asian and not Caucasian and could not enter the United States. It also found that those who had been in the country prior to 1917 who had attempted to naturalize should be denied American citizenship. Several cases were filed at the same time as Bhagat Singh Thind's case arguing that these Hindu people should be allowed to become naturalized citizens of the United States as they were high caste, educated subjects of the British Empire.

It was not until 1946 when President Truman signed into law the Luce-Celler Act, that the rights of immigration and naturalization were returned to Indians.

Desegregation in Las Vegas, Nevada: *Kelly v. Mason*

In 1968, a class action suit was filed Federal court against the Clark County Nevada School District. The case alleged the district had segregated schools in violation of the 5th and 14th Amendments to the United States Constitution. The judge ruled in favor of the plaintiffs, finding that secondary schools were segregated, and imposed a desegregation plan known as Six Grade Center Plus.



Desegregation in Orange County, California: *Mendez v. Westminster*

In 1946, a group of Mexican-American families in Orange County, California decided to contest the exclusion of their children from a whites-only schools throughout Orange County. They families wondered if the children's fathers were good enough to fight along side during World War II, then why should the students be segregated based on their ethnicity. The families won the court-ordered integration of Orange County schools eight years before the more famous Brown vs. Board of Education case.

Organizations such as the Anti-Defamation League and the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People took a keen interest in the case, filing "friends of the court" briefs.

Desegregation in Phoenix, Arizona: *Gonzalez v. Sheely*

The families of several Mexican-American families filed a lawsuit in Federal court alleging that the schools in Phoenix, Arizona were segregated and that the facilities were far from equitable. The complaint in this case charged that the separate schools in Phoenix, Arizona for Mexican and Anglo children were in violation of the 14th Amendment. The stark differences described by the plaintiffs demonstrated that even without an official policy of racial segregation, the schools were providing insufficient facilities and opportunities for Mexican and Mexican-American children.

Desegregation in San Bernardino, California: *Lopez v. Seccume*

This case, filed by citizens of San Bernardino, California, sought to end the practice of barring Hispanics from public parks in the city. The court ruled the City of San Bernardino's ban of "Citizens of Mexican and Latin descent" from public schools and park facilities by the City of San Bernardino was a violation of the 14th amendment.

Desegregation: *Powers v. Southern Pacific Company*

A group of African-Americans traveling on the Southern Pacific Sunset line to Dallas, Texas held tickets for reserved seats in Car 21, which "was air-conditioned, well-lighted and each chair seat was upholstered and comfortable." Upon arrival in El Paso, they were removed from the air-conditioned car to a car that "did not have air-conditioning and was poorly lighted and uncomfortable and each of the chairs were not upholstered nor comfortable, but were in fact straight, old-fashioned, hard and uncomfortable." The group filed a lawsuit in Federal court in Los Angeles, arguing that Southern Pacific had discriminated against them.

Desegregation: *Wyatt v. Transcontinental & Western Air (TWA)*

Ruth Wyatt, an African-American opera singer, sued TWA after being stranded overnight and refused accommodations in the same hotel the airline arranged for the other passengers. She had purchased a ticket from Los Angeles to Detroit, Michigan, but her plane was grounded in Albuquerque, New Mexico due to bad weather. TWA arranged hotels for the other (white) passengers on the plane, and offered Ms. Wyatt her choice of a segregated hotel or accommodations in the home of their African-American porter. Ms. Wyatt refused both and spent the night in the airport lobby.

She filed a lawsuit in Federal court citing the interstate commerce clause of the United States Constitution. She alleged that the airline had violated her civil rights by not finding her suitable accommodations. The judge decided in favor of TWA, saying that it was not the airline's fault that the Albuquerque hotels would not accept African-American guests and that the airline had done all it could to find accommodations for Ms. Wyatt.

Freedom of Religion: The Holy Rosikrucian Church and Prohibition

The Volstead Act, passed by the United States Congress in 1919, made the manufacture, sale and consumption of alcohol illegal. Allowances were made for religious organizations that could prove a doctrinal need for alcoholic products, such as wine.

The Holy Rosikrucian Church, a Los Angeles-based organization, applied to the United States Department of Treasury for permission to purchase alcohol for use in their church. When their application was denied, the Rosikrucians sued the government in Federal court and, during the course of the trial, submitted as evidence detailed accounts of their religious practices.

Religious Freedom: Polygamy on Trial

In 1852, the Church of Jesus Christ of Later Day Saints (LDS), also known as the Mormon Church, declared "celestial marriage" or a man's duty to God to take multiple wives, as a tenet of their faith. The reaction from the United States government was to pass the Morrill Anti-Bigamy Act in 1862, outlawing bigamy. One prominent element of Mormon history in the American West was the Church's long-running dispute with the Federal government over the practice of polygamy.

Freedom of Speech: The Chicano Movement Comes to Brawley Union High School District

Several Mexican-American students at Brawley Union High School in southern California, returned from a Chicano Student Conference at San Diego State University in 1969 excited by the speakers they had heard there. They wore "Mexican-American Liberation" pins they had obtained at the conference to school to show their support for the Chicano movement.



The school administrators demanded that they remove the pins, arguing that they were disturbing the student body and advocating disruption. The students filed a lawsuit in Federal court arguing that the school administrators violated their civil rights under the 1st and 14th amendments of the United States Constitution. Students and staff offered arguments about the Chicano movement and its effects on the school.

Freedom of Speech: Spirit of 76 Case

As the United States became involved in World War I, Congress passed the United States Sedition Act, which was intended to curtail activities of people and organizations which were speaking out against the United States, her allies and the war in general.

In 1917, Robert Goldstein, the owner of a costume shop, completed his first motion picture. The movie was an intensely patriotic film about the American Revolution, "The Spirit of '76." The film was banned by censors who believed that scenes depicting the Redcoats bayoneting a baby and apparently raping a young maiden would provoke hatred against their British allies.

Goldstein was prosecuted under the Sedition Act for ignoring warnings against leaving these scenes in his final production.

Japanese American Property during World War II

In 1942, people of Japanese ancestry on the West coast were forced into War Relocation Authority camps. Many internees were given virtually no notice before being relocated, and as a result were forced to sell their property well below its value, place it in storage or entrust it to friends and neighbors. In some cases the Federal government sold this property, farm equipment for example, to increase wartime production. In other cases, people entrusted with the care of property took it for their own benefit.

Japanese Americans on Terminal Island

Terminal Island, California in the 1930s was busy with fishermen, canneries and the United States Navy. A small fishing village had grown on the island. Japanese fishermen and their families supported themselves by fishing for companies like Van Camp's. When Japan attacked Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, the Japanese men of the "Little Tokio," on the island, thought to be enemies of the United States, were arrested and immediately removed to a detention center in the Los Angeles area.

Their proximity to the Naval installation at Terminal Island had raised security concerns for the United States Navy. The Navy discussed dismantling the village and by February 1942, the remaining families were removed from Terminal Island and the United States Navy seized much of the remaining private property on the Island to protect the Naval facilities there.

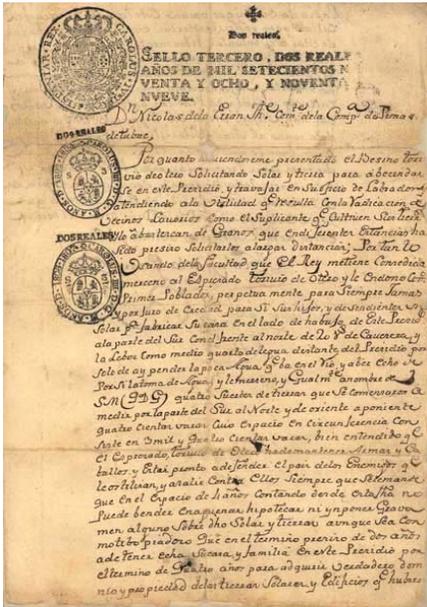
To Be American: Japanese Removal, Expatriation and Repatriation

Following the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, people in the United States of Japanese ancestry found themselves caught in the midst of a national panic. Many who were residents of the western coastal states were removed to War Relocation Authority camps where they remained for much of the war. In the camps, some resisted the draft, some demanded to be sent back to Japan and others maintained that they were loyal Americans whose rights had been diminished.

Treason: *United States v. Tomoya Kawakita*

Tomoya Kawakita was an American-born man from the Imperial Valley of California of Japanese descent who traveled to Japan prior to the outbreak of the Second World War. He was recruited by the Japanese government to work as a translator in Japan's prisoner-of-war camps, where he was involved in brutalities against American and British prisoners.

Following the war, Kawakita returned to the United States. He was recognized outside of a store in Los Angeles by one of the former prisoners of war. The Federal government tried Kawakita for treason for cooperating with Japanese authorities in beatings of Allied prisoners.



Spanish and Mexican Legacy: Land Grants in Arizona and California

When Mexico ceded lands to the United States in the Treaty of Guadalupe-Hidalgo, provisions of that treaty mandated that the United States uphold the rights of landowners in the ceded territories. This required the American government to measure and validate private land claims while combating a stream of new settlers squatting on lands they did not own.

The owners of land under the Mexican government, many of whose families had acquired the land from Spain two generations more before, spent years pursuing these claims. They submitted documents and offered testimony about the history of their land holdings.

Bleeding Kansas

The Kansas-Nebraska Act repealed the Missouri Compromise in 1854, allowing slavery in the territory north of the Mason-Dixon Line (36° 30' latitude). It stipulated that the issue of slavery would be decided by the residents of each territory, a concept known as popular sovereignty.

The Act was fully tested in the Kansas territory. Missourians across the border were determined to see Kansas as a slave state, while many Kansas settlers, spurred on by New England abolitionists worked for a free soil state. Violence, split constitutional conventions and the rise of violent abolitionist, John Brown resulted.

NOTE: These records are available on microfilm only.

The Birth of Liberty: The African-American Nation of Liberia

The history of Liberia as a political entity begins with the arrival of the black American settlers, known as Americo-Liberians, in Africa to establish a colony of free men of color on its shore in 1822 under the auspices of the American Colonization Society.

When the Civil War broke out in 1860, Americo-Liberians felt pulled back toward their former home. They understood the implications of the war for slavery in the United States. Their Congress passed resolutions in support of the Federal cause and their newspapers reported that Liberians wished to return to the United States to fight. They also discussed opening their shores to freed slaves at the end of the war. As a result of the Civil War, Abraham Lincoln became a hero for Liberia and the country mourned him deeply when he was assassinated in 1865.

NOTE: These records are available on microfilm only.

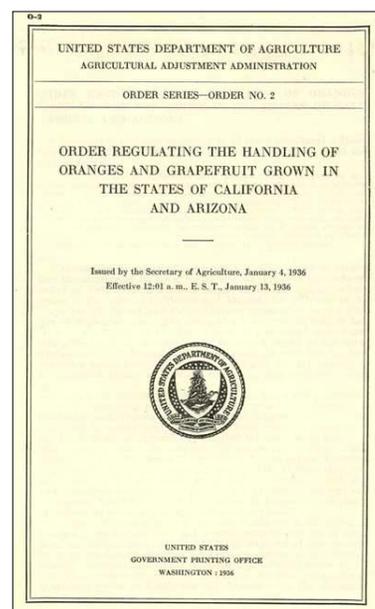
The Building and Flight of the Spruce Goose

During World War II, the military commissioned large flying troop and supply transports. Initially the brain child of Henry Kaiser, the shipbuilder, and Howard Hughes, the transport began to be built by the Hughes Kaiser Corporation in 1942 and was known as the HK-1 (Hughes Kaiser design number one). Adhering to the wartime mandate not to use critical materials such as steel, the plane was built of plywood and plastic. In 1944, Kaiser pulled out, but Hughes moved forward, renaming the project the H-4 flying boat, more commonly known as the "Spruce Goose," the largest plane ever built.

Out of time, over budget, and under Congressional investigation, Howard Hughes himself flew the plane for its only flight on November 2, 1947 over Long Beach Harbor. The local National Advisory Committee on Aeronautics (NACA) representative, Edwin P. Hartman, documented Hughes Aircraft Company leadership and engineers as they designed and constructed the incredible plane and was a witness to its flight in 1947.

The New Deal: Regulating Citrus Markets

During the Great Depression, the U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) sought to stabilize the price of citrus fruits in southern California and Arizona by limiting the amount of fruit growers and shippers could put on the market. The system greatly favored the larger growers and cooperatives such as the California Fruit Growers Exchange (later known as Sunkist). Small growers were charged with violations of the proration acts, which placed limits on the amount of fruit each grower could market, and they argued strongly that a citrus monopoly was building. Ironically in 1941, the United States charged the California Fruit Growers Exchange and several other organizations with violations of the Sherman Anti-Trust Act for fixing prices and restricting the distribution of citrus fruit. Judge Pierson Hall admonished the USDA for their role in exploiting the monopolistic tendencies within the industry to implement the Agricultural Adjustment Act (AAA).



The Homefront: Southern California during the Second World War

Following the attack on Pearl Harbor in 1941, the United States government created the Office of Civilian Defense (OCD) to ensure the government's ability to protect the homeland and ensure the national commitment. Civil defense councils and committees sprang up around the country and took a particular interest in the defense of southern California with its western coast, its industry and agriculture and its extensive military installations.



Committees enforced blackouts and promoted rationing of food and materials important to the war effort. They ran preparedness drills. They warned people to be constantly vigilant against the enemy and to continue to be productive and efficient.