EXPANDING A NOMINATION TO THE NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES: MINIDOKA JAPANESE RELOCATION CENTER IN JEROME COUNTY, IDAHO

A Project

Presented to the faculty of the Department of History
California State University, Sacramento

Submitted in partial satisfaction of the requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF ARTS

in

History

(Public History)

by

Erin Ruth Bostwick

FALL
2015
EXPANDING A NOMINATION TO THE NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES: MINIDOKA JAPANESE RELOCATION CENTER IN JEROME COUNTY, IDAHO

A Project

by

Erin Ruth Bostwick

Approved by:

____________________________, Committee Chair
Dr. Patrick Ettinger

____________________________, Second Reader
Dr. Christopher Castaneda

Date

ii
Student:  Erin Ruth Bostwick

I certify that this student has met the requirements for format contained in the University format manual, and that this project is suitable for shelving in the Library and credit is to be awarded for the project.

__________________________, Graduate Coordinator          ___________________
Dr. Patrick Ettinger         Date

Department of History
Abstract

of

EXPANDING A NOMINATION TO THE NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES: MINIDOKA JAPANESE RELOCATION CENTER IN JEROME COUNTY, IDAHO

by

Erin Ruth Bostwick

Statement of Problem

The 1979 National Register documentation of the Minidoka Relocation Center, a nomination from 1979, was outdated and insufficient. The historic context was lacking, and only a handful of extant historical buildings were included in the old site nomination. This project addresses those insufficiencies and determines the eligibility of an expansion to the 1979 nomination of the Minidoka Relocation Center, with accompanying nomination forms.

Sources of Data

National Park Service materials, Archeological Reports, historic surveys, photographs, War Relocation Authority publications, blueprints, maps, local historical society publications, contemporary works on the Japanese American experience in the U.S. during World War II.
Conclusions Reached

The Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District is eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places under Criteria A. It achieves significance through its use as a Relocation Center for Japanese Americans during World War II from 1942-1945, and through its use as a Soil Conservation Service “Farm in a Day” event property in 1952.

_______________________, Committee Chair
Dr. Patrick Ettinger

_______________________
Date
DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my mother, Nadine, for being my “first reader” through over twenty years of schooling and for always being my biggest academic cheerleader. This work is also dedicated to my fiancé, Jared, whose patience and support made this project possible.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank Tricia Canaday, Architectural Historian at the Idaho Office of Historic Preservation, for her efforts refining my nomination and helping to familiarize me with the National Register process in the State of Idaho. I also owe a debt to JoAnn Blalack, an NPS archeologist at the Minidoka National Historic Site, who introduced me to the site’s history and built environment.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

Dedication ....................................................................................................................... vi

Acknowledgements ........................................................................................................ vii

List of Figures ................................................................................................................... x

Chapter

1. INTRODUCTION ...................................................................................................... 1
   Project Need and Purpose ..................................................................................... 3

2. THE NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES .......................................... 6
   The National Historic Preservation Act ................................................................. 6

3. DESCRIPTION OF RESOURCE ............................................................................. 14
   Contributing Resources ....................................................................................... 16
   Non-Contributing Resources .............................................................................. 33

4. HISTORIC CONTEXTS .......................................................................................... 37
   Japanese American Relocation ........................................................................... 37
   Farm in a Day ...................................................................................................... 53

5. LITERATURE REVIEW ......................................................................................... 59
   Detention of Japanese Americans during World War II ....................................... 59
   Minidoka Relocation Center ............................................................................... 62
   Farm in a Day ...................................................................................................... 64

6. METHODOLOGY ................................................................................................... 66
7. FINDINGS ......................................................................................................................71
   Significance.............................................................................................................71
   Integrity.................................................................................................................73
   Determination of Eligibility..................................................................................76

APPENDIX A

   1979 National Register of Historic Places Registration Form.........................78

APPENDIX B

   2015 Updated Draft National Register of Historic Places Registration Form.....93

BIBLIOGRAPHY ..............................................................................................................145
# LIST OF FIGURES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Figures</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. “Center Layout- Minidoka Project, Hunt, Idaho”</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Military Police Building</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Reception Building</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Barrack Building</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Mess Hall</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Warehouse #5</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Fire Station #1/ Garage</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Root Cellar</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Herrmann House</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Milking Barn</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. NPS Map of WRA and WCCA Facilities</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Example of Relocation Center Residential Block Layout</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. “Panoramic View of Camp,” Minidoka Relocation Center</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

This nomination of the Minidoka Relocation Center to the National Register of Historic Places (National Register) arose primarily out of a desire by the Idaho State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO) staff and National Park Service (NPS) working at the Minidoka National Historic Site to expand an existing nomination of the property to more accurately reflect the site’s current boundaries and conditions. The original nomination, completed in 1979, is now out-of-date. The 1979 nomination was deficient from a modern perspective. The boundaries of the Minidoka National Historic Site are now much larger than the site covered by the 1979 nomination. The old nomination also needed to be updated to include an interesting Soil Conservation Service public relations and education event, called “Farm in a Day,” that happened on former Relocation Center land in 1952.

The 1979 nomination includes only a handful of buildings at the site’s entrance. Since the original listing in the National Register, the site expanded from less than 100 acres to 388.3 acres. The expansion added some extant buildings from the Relocation Center that were not included on the original nomination because they were located on private property or property administered by another government agency. Therefore, the resources documented in the Minidoka Relocation Center National Register listing of 1979 does not reflect the current state of the site with over twelve extant buildings and structures. One of the primary goals was to have the new historic district boundaries match the Minidoka Relocation Center Historic Site boundaries.
The Idaho SHPO and NPS officials also wanted a new historic context to be developed for the property involving the Soil Conservation Service’s Farm in a Day (FIAD) project. The FIAD project occurred in 1952, less than a decade after the Relocation Center closed. FIAD was a unique education program by the SCS which demonstrated new soil conservation techniques through the building of an entire farm over the course of a day or two. The whole community was encouraged to participate and the event was used to teach new techniques to many farmers at one time. The FIAD project was also notable for its creative reuse of Relocation Center buildings. The FIAD project had not been relevant to the 1979 nomination because the FIAD land was still privately held by the Herrmann family—the original beneficiaries of the FIAD homestead. With recent NPS land acquisitions, the extant buildings from the FIAD project now lie within the Minidoka Relation National Historic Site. As such, the NPS officials and the SHPO want the FIAD properties represented in an updated district nomination of the Minidoka Relocation Center.

I became involved in the project when I contacted an architectural historian at the Idaho SHPO to inquire about possible National Register nominations in Idaho to pursue for a thesis project. Having just moved back to my home state of Idaho, I felt it was important for me to nominate a property there. I saw it as a good opportunity to grow my professional network in Idaho – this project would expose me to a variety of NPS staff as well as historians the Idaho SHPO. I was drawn to the Minidoka project over other projects proposed by the Idaho SHPO for a handful of reasons. First, I found the historic contexts and themes related to Japanese American relocation and confinement during
World War II fascinating. Secondly, I realized that the history of internment camps in Idaho is largely unknown and underappreciated – especially within the context of state history. It is my hope that perhaps updating the nomination of the Relocation Center to the National Register can help bring attention to this important part of U.S. and Idaho history. Lastly, I was excited at the prospect of working with the NPS on an NPS property.

*Project Need and Purpose*

The Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District lies within the Minidoka National Historic Site administered by the National Park Service. The NPS employees who run the site split their time between Minidoka and the Hagerman Fossil Beds National Monument. The nearest offices and staff are 40 miles away from the Minidoka site in Hagerman, Idaho. The site relies heavily on volunteers – this nomination was no exception. The architectural historian at the Idaho SHPO indicated that an updated Minidoka nomination had been a priority for quite some time, but their limited staff did not have the time to pursue it. A federal and state agency both desired an updated and expanded nomination of the Minidoka Relocation Center to the National Register, but lacked the time and staff to do it.

When the Relocation Center closed, some of its buildings were sold or given away and removed from the property. Recently, the NPS and other interested groups have been pursuing ways to better interpret history at the site. This has included efforts to return some of the buildings removed from the site after it closed. This has vastly
changed the makeup of the site. A new, updated nomination to the National Register is
needed to reflect the additions to the site’s built environment. The original 1979
nomination of the Minidoka Relocation Center to the National Register listed only two
buildings – the ruins of the Reception Building and Guard Station. The updated
nomination adds five contributing Relocation Center buildings and two contributing Farm
in a Day buildings to the nomination. The new nomination also expands the physical area
of the district by hundreds of acres.

The Farm in a Day project at Minidoka has received little scholarly attention in its
own right. The FIAD buildings themselves have also had the least scholarly attention of
any on the site – due in large part to their very recent acquisition by the NPS. The
Minidoka FIAD experiment was unique in its recycling of Relocation Center buildings. It
was also unique among other FIAD programs because what became the Herrmann farm
had never been ploughed before, unlike other FIAD sites. The Soil Conservation
Service’s unique education effort that manifested itself as a fully functioning farm over
the course of a weekend justifies the inclusion of FIAD history in the nomination.

This project examines the process of expanding an outdated nomination of the
Minidoka Relocation Center to the National Register. The expansion was two-fold. The
number of buildings included in the nomination was increased. The historic context was
broadened as well with the addition of FIAD history and properties. Once more accurate
and extensive building surveys and historic contexts were developed, the property’s
significance was established and placed within its historic context in light of the updates.
After establishing the property’s updated significance and placing it within its updated
The purpose of this project is to document the process of updating the nomination of the Minidoka Relocation Center to the National Register of Historic Places. To illuminate this process, the project first details laws and regulations governing the National Register of Historic Places and how to get a property listed on the National Register. The methodology of updating the Minidoka nomination will be explained through a property description, review of secondary sources, and the placement of the district in larger historic contexts. Through these efforts, I will support my findings that the Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District, including new buildings and historic contexts, is eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places at the national level under Criteria A for its association with broad patterns in history related to ethnic heritage and agriculture.
Chapter 2
THE NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES

The National Historic Preservation Act

The National Register of Historic Places (National Register) was created in 1966 as a result of the passage of the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 (NHPA). The NHPA was a legislative reaction to fears of losing American heritage to the encroachment of modern infrastructure and construction. In the Post-World War II era, the United States experienced destruction of its heritage at the hands of urban renewal efforts and via the construction of the interstate highways system. In 1963, the National Trust for Historic Preservation and Colonial Williamsburg staged a seminar that resulted in a statement calling for “a national inventory of historic properties and machinery for considering their protection.”¹ President Lyndon B. Johnson supported the idea in a message to Congress: “In almost every part of the country citizens are rallying to save landmarks of beauty and history. The Government must also do its share to assist these local efforts which have an important national purpose.”² Support from the President and compelling arguments for preservation from the Special Committee on Historic Preservation in the book, With Heritage So Rich, helped to push the passage of NHPA legislation in 1966.

The NHPA sought to protect the physical embodiments of common heritage by establishing a method to better identify and administer historic places to help preserve

them for the public interest. The legislation established “a system of checks and balances for evaluating sites, buildings, objects, districts, and structures which should be taken into account in the planning process.”\(^3\) However, the NHPA only limits the government and its use of tax dollars; it places no legal or regulatory limits on private citizens.

Title I of the NHPA authorized the Secretary of the Interior to “expand and maintain a National Register of districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects significant in American history, architecture, archaeology, engineering and culture.”\(^4\) A property can be significant at the local, state, or national level. The National Register, which is administered by the National Park Service, is intended to act as a guide and planning tool for governments as well as private groups and citizens to “identify the Nation’s cultural resources and to indicate what properties should be considered for protection from destruction or impairment.”\(^5\)

Title II of the NHPA established the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation (ACHP). Members of the President’s cabinet, the general public, and subject experts all serve on the ACHP. The goal of the independent organization is “to have federal agencies act as responsible stewards of our nation’s resources when their actions affect historic properties.”\(^6\) Section 106 of the NHPA established that federally funded or licensed programs having a direct or environmental effect on a site, building, object, district, or structure on the National Register must offer the ACHP an opportunity to comment on

\(^4\) 36 CFR part 60.1.
\(^5\) 36 CFR part 60.2.
the project and its effects. This meant that federal tax dollars could not be spent without first taking into account the effects of changes to the physical environment on cultural property.\(^7\)

It is important to note that the Advisory Council is granted only the opportunity to comment – it has no power to intervene or further regulate. The NHPA was intended as a check on government power. As William J. Murtagh wrote in *Keeping Time*, “[The NHPA’s] thrust is to put limitations of government’s use of tax dollars to alter the environment. Thus, it is a restriction on the federal government and not…the private citizen.”\(^8\) As far as private citizens are concerned, listing in the National Register is an honorific act that can open the doors to tax incentives and grant opportunities. Listing in the National Register does not restrict what private citizens can do with their private property.\(^9\)

Shortly after the passage of the NHPA, the Secretary of the Interior requested that governors in each state appoint a State Historic Preservation Officer (SHPO) to assume responsibility for the creation and maintenance of the National Register at the state level. The primary SHPO duties, as outlined in a Secretary of the Interior’s Directive from Congress, are threefold:

1. Survey sites, buildings, objects, districts, and structures within their states.
2. Develop a statewide plan so that [the state] and the federal government could consider what actions to take concerning its resources.

---

\(^7\) Murtagh, *Keeping Time*, 53.
\(^8\) Murtagh, *Keeping Time*, 53.
3. Activate the restoration and rehabilitation of the resources identified in the survey.\textsuperscript{10}

Most relevant to this project is the responsibility of the SHPO staff of professional historians, archeologists, architects, and architectural historians to review nominations to the National Register.

\textit{The National Register of Historic Places – The Nomination Process}

The NHPA established procedural regulations regarding how to list a property on the National Register. Generally, in order to be eligible for the National Register, a property should be over 50 years old. The property must possess both historic significance and the historic integrity to convey that significance. The property should also be significant when evaluated in the context of major trends of history in their community, state, or nation. Historic contexts can be used to evaluate the historic significance and integrity of a property.\textsuperscript{11}

There are four criteria to help determine if a property possesses historic significance. Properties eligible for the National Register are those

A. that are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history; or

B. that are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or

\textsuperscript{10} Murtagh, \textit{Keeping Time}, 57.

C. that embody the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of constructions, or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represents a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinctions; or

D. that have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.12

Properties can be significant at the local, state, or national level. The National Park Service has published a series of technical bulletins to help National Register nomination preparers with the nomination process. National Register Bulletin 15: How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation (Bulletin 15) is a detailed guide explaining the evaluation criteria, as well as “Criteria Considerations.”13 Bulletin 15 also explains how to evaluate a property within its historic context and how to assess a property’s integrity.14

To be listed in the National Register, a property must possess historic significance as well as integrity. Integrity is defined as the ability of a property to convey its significance. A property’s integrity is shown through historic qualities including location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association. In Bulletin 15, the NPS defines the seven aspects of integrity as follows:

---

12 36 CFR part 60.4.
13 The Criteria Considerations are a set of seven exceptions that allows the nomination of some types of properties that would normally be excluded from consideration, such as properties less than 50 years old, a property that has been relocated, and commemorative properties, among others.
14 National Park Service, National Register Bulletin 15: How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation, 1.
1. Location – the place where the historic property was constructed or the place where the historic event occurred

2. Design – the combination of elements that create the form, plan, space, structure, and style of a property

3. Setting – the physical environment of a historic property

4. Materials – the physical elements that were combined or deposited during a particular period of time and in a particular pattern or configuration to form a historic property

5. Workmanship – the physical evidence of the crafts of a particular culture or people during any given period in history or prehistory

6. Feeling – a property’s expression of the aesthetic or historic sense of a particular period of time

7. Association – the direct link between an important historic events or person and a historic property

To retain historic integrity, a property should possess several, and usually most, of these aspects. The most important consideration is how the physical characteristics of the property convey its historic significance.

A nomination to the National Register can be completed by anyone, including private citizens, but are often completed by SHPOs and Federal Preservation Officers. The NPS has established forms and guidelines that help to streamline the nomination process. Bulletin 16a: How to Complete the National Register Nomination Form explains

---

15 NPS, National Register Bulletin 15, 44-45.
the process in detail. When the nomination is complete, it is turned into the SHPO for review. If it passes muster, the SHPO forwards the nomination to a review board. Every state approaches this part of the process somewhat differently. In Idaho, where the Minidoka nomination took place, nominations are then taken before the Idaho State Historic Sites Review Board. Currently, the board meets just once a year. The Board can take three actions on a nomination – approve it, reject it, or conditionally approve it pending modifications. Approved nominations are forwarded to the Keeper of the National Register. The Keeper is a designee of the NPS who holds final authority whether or not a property is listed in the National Register.16

Listing a historic property in the National Register can have a handful of potential effects:

A. If a federal agency undertakes a project that has an effect on a property listed on the National Register or eligible to be listed on the National Register, the agency must seek comment from the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation. B. Properties listed in the National Register can be eligible for federal grants-in-aid for historic preservation. Federal grants-in-aid are inter-governmental grants intended for specific purposes. C. Owners of historic properties listed in the National Register may be eligible for federal tax benefits.

---

D. If a listed property contains surface coal resources, the property’s historic values must be taken into consideration in the determination of issuance of surface coal mining permits.\textsuperscript{17}

Federal tax benefits incentivize private property owners to own and preserve historic properties, while federal grants-in-aid encourage state and local governments to take actions to preserve historic properties in their communities. The other two possible effects of listing in the National Register regulate federal government actions that could potentially affect historic properties.

Chapter 3

DESCRIPTION OF RESOURCE

The Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District is located in southcentral Idaho, approximately 15 miles northeast of the city of Twin Falls, on State Highway 25 in Jerome County. The North Side Canal makes up the southern border of the district, which encompasses 388.3 acres and matches the borders and acreage of the Minidoka National Historic Site. The district contains nine contributing resources and six noncontributing resources. Significant features include Relocation Center buildings and structures dating to the Japanese internment era, as well as extant buildings and structures from the Soil Conservation Service’s Farm in a Day homesteading efforts in the early 1950s.

The Relocation Center stood on 34,000 acres between the North Side Canal and the Milner Gooding Canal – although the developed area of the center was just 950 acres. Nine of the ten War Relocation Authority (WRA) centers were organized based on a system of columns and rows in a compact rectangular shape. Minidoka Relocation Center had a unique layout due to manmade and natural borders. The southwest border was created by North Side Canal. Basalt outcroppings acted as a natural boundary to the north and east. The camp is organized as a crescent shape to complement the curvature of the North Side Canal (See Figure 1).

When construction was completed at Minidoka, the Relocation Center had thirty-six housing blocks. The hospital area, military police station, administration area, warehouse, and a swimming hole sat between the housing blocks and the North Side Canal. A housing block contained twelve barracks around the mess hall and a
combination laundry/bathroom building. Each block also had a recreation hall for religious or educational services (See Figure 1).


Currently, there are few original buildings left in the district, due in large part to the temporary nature of Relocation Center construction. The extant buildings and structures from the internment era are found predominately in the entrance area, the warehouse area, and housing block 22. The Farm in a Day properties are concentrated northwest of the warehouse area of the relocation center.

Relocation Center buildings were generally built using a modified army theater-of-operations style of construction. They were designed for quick construction and temporary use. The barrack building was commonly used as the basic building unit. Most Relocation Center buildings had timber frames and stood on concrete piers with tar paper
walls. The timber-frame Farm in a Day buildings and structures were built in the utilitarian style.

Except for the ruins at the site’s entrance, most of the buildings that remain are in relatively good condition. The district has integrity of location, setting, workmanship, feeling, and association. The Relocation Center does not retain integrity of design, due to the loss of a substantial number of buildings. With so few remaining resources, the district as it stands today does not convey the camp’s historic layout and spatial relationships. Roughly half of the contributing resources are lacking integrity of materials; therefore the district also fails to retain integrity of materials.

**Contributing Resources**

**Military Police Building – 1942**

The military police building was situated at the camp’s entrance on Hunt Road just north of the North Side Canal. Constructed in 1942 by internees and WRA stone mason, H.T. Pugh, the single-story, utilitarian building measured 20’ x 10’ and was built on a concrete slab foundation. When it was built, the building had two rooms, each with its own shed style roof. The south room’s shed roof sloped southward, and was taller than the roof of the north room. The walls of the south room stood over ten feet high, constructed entirely of uncoursed basalt rock. This room had no windows; originally it was built with a wooden parapet on top to allow day in.

Originally the north room had a shed style roof sloping northward. Uncoursed basalt rocks formed a roughly three foot tall wall base, with the upper wall constructed of
wood. The front room faced the road and provided shelter for military police monitoring the camp’s entrance through large windows on the east and west elevations. From historic photos, it appears that the east and west elevations both had two 6-wood framed windows. A doorway is located on the eastern half of the north elevation. In historic photos, the western portion of the north elevation appears to have multi-window as well. Flagstone paving adorns the entrance.

Figure 2. Military Police Building

The military police building has only a few extant remnants, including the ten-foot-tall walls of the south room and the three-foot-tall wall base of the north room, the interior concrete surface, and some small remnants of interior features. The north room
had its roof removed, in addition to the wood portion of the walls and the windows. The
south room had its roof and parapet removed.

Reception Building – 1942

Figure 3. Reception Building

The reception building acted as a waiting room for visitors and internees traveling
on buses from the center. It was built in conjunction with the military police building.
Located twelve feet south of the Military Police building at the entrance to the camp, the
Reception Building was constructed in 1942 by the internees and WRA stone mason H.T
Pugh in the utilitarian style. The single story, rectangular building measures roughly 14’
x 31’ long and has a concrete slab foundation. The single room building had a three-foot-tall uncoursed basalt rock wall that formed a base for upper walls of board and batten construction. The upper board and batten portion of the wall is not extant. The building also features a basalt rock fireplace and sixteen foot chimney on the east side. The roof, no longer extant, was a low-pitched front gable roof. The number and type of windows on the Reception Building is not clear from the few available historic photographs.

Extant features of the Reception Building include partial-height basalt walls, the basalt fireplace and chimney, the concrete slab floor, hardware remaining from the connection of the wood frame to the basalt walls, and a partial-height basalt wall running between the Reception and Military Police buildings.

Barrack – 1942

Typical of internment center barracks, this building originally housed six apartments of varying sizes. After the disbandment of the Minidoka Relocation Center in 1944-45, the Barrack was relocated and used for work camp housing. Typical barracks built at relocation centers had eleven windows on each of the long sides of the building. This reuse of this barrack building as work camp housing probably explains the abnormal number of windows on the west elevation. The barrack building was later relocated in two pieces to storage, and finally relocated to Barrack Block 22.

Although the original location of the barrack within the camp is unknown, it is now sited in Barrack Block 22 for interpretation purposes. Built in 1942, the single-story building measures 20’ x 120’ and has a standard rectangular barrack floorplan typical of
the modified army theater-of-operations style. Originally the building was raised three feet above ground on a wood post and concrete footing foundation with vertical wood skirt boards. The side gabled roof is made of corrugated metal. The roof has a moderate eve overhang with exposed rafter ends. Three equidistant truncated chimney stacks protrude from the roof on the west elevation. During the period of significance, the building’s sides were clad in wood battening and tarpaper.

![Figure 4. Barrack Building](image)

The Barrack’s windows are all six-hopper style windows with wood exterior trim. The west elevation is clad in horizontal wood siding and has fourteen windows, all six-hopper style windows with wood exterior trim. The south elevation is clad in wooden
shingles. It has a single, wood-trimmed, six-light hopper style window off-center and a rectangular attic vent in the gable. The east elevation, clad in horizontal wood siding, has eleven six-light hopper windows and three wooden doors with four- windows. The southern-most door on the east elevation has a reconstructed staircase and handrail, the middle door has no staircase, and the northern-most door has a reconstructed staircase. The north elevation, clad in horizontal wood siding, has a rectangular wood attic vent in the top of the gable.

Mess Hall – 1942

The Mess Hall sits perpendicular to the barrack building in Barrack Block 22. Built in 1942, the single story building was constructed in the modified army theater-of-operations style and measures approximately 40’x100’. It is comprised of two basic 20’x100’ barrack building units, clad in tarpaper and wood battening. The wood framed building sits on a post and beam foundation. The gambrel roof, clad in asphalt shingles, has a small eave overhang with exposed rafter tails. The wooden windows are six- hopper style windows with wood exterior trim. The south elevation has eight equidistant windows, interrupted by a wooden door with a four-window, with two more windows to the east of the door. The west elevation has two sets of wooden doors with four windows. The east elevation has a six-wood framed hopper style window and a set of double wooden doors with four windows in each door. The door has a new set of stairs and handrails. The north elevation has an asymmetrical pattern as well – three windows, then
a wooden door with a wooden screen door, followed by eight more equidistant windows to the right of the door.

![Figure 5. Mess Hall](image)

In the 1940s, after the Minidoka Relocation Center was disbanded, the building was removed to the Jerome County fairgrounds and used as a community canning facility. Additions to the building include one small gable dormer at the eave edges on the north and south elevations. The original terra cotta chimney installations were roofed over, probably when the building was converted to a canning facility. The mess hall was relocated back to Minidoka to help re-establish Barrack Block 22. The original location of the Mess Hall within the camp is unknown. In 2012, the Western Center for Historic
Preservation undertook a window and door rehabilitation project for the Mess Hall. Twenty of the building’s windows were repaired, and two new windows were fabricated with in-kind materials to match existing windows. Five exterior doors and three screen doors were also repaired.

Warehouse #5 – 1942

Figure 6. Warehouse #5

Warehouse No. 5, built in 1942, sits on a concrete slab and post foundation in the Warehouse/Motor Pool area of the camp. The building is a single story with wood post and frame construction, built in the utilitarian style. The original warehouse had a long, rectangular floorplan that consisted of twenty-one 16’ x 16’ bays, seven wide by three
deep. At some point after the relocation center was disbanded, the west four bays were removed and the west infill wall was constructed. The extant three bays of the warehouse create a 48’ square building which occupies the eastern half of the original 48’ x 112’ concrete slab foundation.

The roof is a very shallow gambrel roof clad in building paper with a corrugated metal overlay with a wood barge. The walls and roof are both clad in building paper on wood sheathing with wooden battening under a corrugated metal overlay. The corrugated metal layer of roofing and siding was added in the post-relocation center era.

The south elevation has two sets of double wood sliding doors to allow vehicle access with original concrete entry slabs. The east set of doors are original to the warehouse; the west set of doors were relocated to their current location after the western portion of the building was removed. Originally, the doors had two sets of eight fixed-sash windows on each door. Only the lower sets of windows are extant; the upper sets were covered with boards. East of the doors is an original row of three wood framed nine-light windows.

The east elevation has a wood panel door with a concrete entry slab, indicating the original door opening was larger. Above the door is a row of three wood framed, fixed sash, nine-light windows. Near the center of the east elevation is a set of two four-light windows, which were added to the warehouse after the original door opening was infilled. Two nine-light windows flank the north side of the center windows.

The north and west elevations have no windows or doors. The west wall is an infill wall built when the building’s west side was removed. The other three walls are
original to the warehouse. Outside the building, extant concrete ramps mark the original vehicle entry points to the building.

The interior of the building is defined by an open interior with exposed timber structure, framing, and sheathing. Extant interior features include a central water pump and drain from when the warehouse was used as an auto repair garage. Concrete entry slabs are extant on the south and east elevations. The concrete foundation for the destroyed portion of the warehouse also remains.

Fire Station #1/Garage – 1942

While the relocation camp was operating, the Fire Station was one of two in the camp, both manned by internees. The station housed fire crews and engines, which responded to any fire emergency in the camp. Firefighters bunked in the station during shifts to ensure quick response. After the camp was disbanded, the Fire Station was repurposed as a garage for the Farm in a Day (FIAD) homesteaders, the Herrmann family. They lived in this building briefly while waiting for the FIAD house to be ready. Once the house was completed, the former fire station was used as a farm storage building.

Built in 1942, the fire station/garage was located near the crest of a hill adjacent to where the Herrmann residence now stands, north of the warehouse area. Built in the utilitarian/modified army theater-of-operations style, the single-story building originally served as a relocation center fire station, then as a garage to the Hermann family. The building has a t-shaped plan and is comprised of two segments – a typical barrack
attached to a garage. The barrack segment measures roughly 68’ x 20’, with the garage measuring approximately 29.5’ x 40’. The cross-gabled roof is created by the intersection of the two segments. Sometime between 2009 and 2014, the shake and corrugated metal roofing was replaced with historically accurate roll roofing. The garage portion of the building has a concrete slab foundation. The barrack portion of the building is elevated on a post and beam foundation with wood skirting covering the crawl space below. Sometime between 2009 and 2014, the building was re-clad in building paper with wood battening.

Figure 7. Fire Station #1/ Garage
The east elevation of the building has three large sets of double wooden hinged vehicle doors with a 20’ x 40’ concrete apron in front of the garage. The garage was expanded to accommodate fire trucks during the relocation center-era on the east elevation. The six-foot extension has a shed roof. The north elevation has two 3/3 wood framed windows in the gable end/garage segment of the building. Eight more identical windows repeat on the barrack segment of the elevation. The west elevation has a wooden pedestrian door with a 2/2 window in it. Above the door in the barrack gable is a hole where a missing wooden vent originally would have been. On the south side of the door is a 3/3 wooden framed window. The original stairs to the west entrance have rotted away. The south elevation mirrors the north elevation, with two 3/3 windows in the gable end of the garage portion of the building and eight windows in the barracks portion of the elevation.

Significant interior features include two sets of three bead board lockers flanking the entrance to the west hallway that leads to the pedestrian door. The lockers are full-height, with full-height doors. Although the interior pattern of shelving and storage within the lockers may have changed from its original configuration, the exteriors have been largely unaltered.

Root Cellar – 1943

The Root Cellar, located southeast of the warehouse area and just north of Hunt Road, was built in the utilitarian style in 1943. The root cellar was built by internees to store potato and root vegetable harvests through the winter and was later used by John
Herrmann for the same purpose. The long, rectangular structure measures 200’ x 50’ and is built partially below ground. A windowless single story structure, earth serves as the foundation, the unfinished floor, and partial-height walls. The cellar is of log post and beam construction with a gabled roof. The roof is covered with hay bales, asphalt roll roofing, and topped with sod. Two entryways offer access at the north and south ends of the cellar. Originally, the entrances both had gabled roofs. Currently, the north entrance has a flat roof, while the south entrance retains its original roof style. Both entrances are clad with milled lumber. Two sets of double wooden doors used as part of a passive temperature control system are extant at each entrance.

![Figure 8. Root Cellar](image)
The interior surfaces are unfinished, with exposed earth floors and walls, exposed log structure, and skip sheathing and straw ceiling. The log posts are regularly spaced along the length of the cellar in six rows. The posts support log beams that run north-south and log rafters that run east-west. The posts sit directly on the earth or on cement footings, some of which were added during stabilization efforts in 2003.

Originally the cellar had storage stalls. The partitions were comprised of wooden boards. No evidence of the partitions remain except the posts which framed them. The Root Cellar originally had unglazed terra cotta ventilation chimneys regularly spaced along the ridge of the roof.

In 2003, damaged support columns and beams were replaced and/or stabilized, new log posts were installed between some of the original posts to support the roof, four major sections or the roof were raised and re-established, and repairs were made to the entranceway stud walls.

Herrmann House – 1952

The Herrmann house was built as part of a Soil Conservation Service “Farm in a Day” project. The concept was to attract donations as well as hundreds of community members to help build an entire farm, using the construction of the farm as a tool to educate local farmers on new soil conservation techniques. Over the course of a weekend, most of the 128-acre tract was plowed, leveled, and ditched. Fields were planted, fences were built, and the Hermann house was mostly completed. This building acted as the Herrmann family’s residence on the farm for over fifty years.
Constructed in 1952, the vernacular style Herrmann house was built adjacent to the Fire Station, north of the relocation camp’s warehouse area. The single-story, wood-frame house has a rectangular floor plan, measuring approximately 27’ x 38’. The house sits on a concrete foundation. It is clad with cedar-shingle siding. The house is topped with a low pitch side gable roof, with gable ends clad in vertical wood siding featuring a vertical vent. The roof, clad in asphalt shingle roofing, has two plumbing vents on the north elevation and two attic vents on the south elevation. It has a moderate overhang on the north and south eaves, with no overhang on the gable ends.
The south elevation of the house has a recessed entry with a wooden front door with an aluminum storm door. Next to the door is a large, wood framed, fixed-pane window flanked by two smaller wood framed 1/1 double hung windows. Another double hung window adorns the portion of the façade that is not recessed. The wooden steps that once led to the front door have rotted away and have not been replaced. The east elevation has two wood-framed double-hung windows. The crawl space access hatch is also located on the east elevation. The north elevation has three wood-framed double-hung windows of various sizes in addition to the wooden door and metal storm door. Concrete steps lead up to the back door. Metal handrails were most likely added to the steps after the property was built. The west elevation has three wood framed double hung windows. Four metal support columns with two connecting beams remain from a metal carport not original to the house that was removed sometime between 2009 and 2014.

Milking Barn – 1952

The milking barn was constructed during the weekend of the Farm in a Day event. The infill of doors and windows, the mismatched siding materials, and siding that does not match the length of the wall are all evidence of the recycling and adaptation of relocation camp buildings and materials into new buildings for the FIAD project. The building was used as a milking barn by the Herrmann family for years before it was used as a storage space and workshop. The cow door was sealed, although it is not known when.
The milking barn was constructed in 1952 from materials recycled from Relocation Center buildings. It measures 20’ x 40’ and sits on a concrete perimeter foundation north of the Herrmann house. The single story vernacular style barn has a low pitched gable roof covered in building paper. The barn is clad in a combination of horizontal plain boards, tongue-and-groove boards, and shiplap siding.

Figure 10. Milking Barn

The west elevation has two windows, both infilled. The south elevation has three infilled windows, one of which was truncated so the window did not extend past the end of the new building. The south elevation also has an infilled door. The east elevation features a large door and window. The siding on the east elevation extends past the edge
of the building, evidence that the siding and the framing were recycled from different buildings. When it was used as a milking barn, the east side door opened up to the corral. The north elevation has three full windows, two of which are infilled. It also has two truncated windows at the ends, which are also infilled. A doorway is also infilled.

Significant interior features include the original floorplan of two smaller rooms on the west side of the barn, which open up into a large milking room on the east side. The milking room has a station for milking six cows.

Non-Contributing Resources

The district’s non-contributing resources are mostly reconstructed resources or buildings of unknown origin that were probably moved to the land for use by various government agencies.

Guard Tower – 2014

The utilitarian style guard tower, reconstructed in 2014, is located close to its original location indicated by blueprints and historic photographs – west of the entrance buildings south of Hunt Road. The wood tower was reconstructed from historic photographs and blueprints. The reconstruction, like the original, is constructed of wood and sits on concrete footings. It has a pyramidal hipped roof covered with wood shingles. The square structure has one small room. The structure is clad in horizontal wood siding. The east elevation has a wood door with a four light window. A full-width wood deck extends out from the façade. The north, west, and south elevations all have large double
hung 8/8 wood framed windows. The current guard tower was reconstructed at the center’s entrance in 2014 through collaboration between the NPS, the Friends of Minidoka, Boise State University’s Department of Construction Management, and local farmers and community members.

Honor Roll – 2011

Interned Nisei were allowed to take leave from internment centers to volunteer for military service as part of the all-Nisei 442nd Regimental Combat Team. The 442nd fought in Italy, France, and North Africa with the 100th Infantry Battalion. Many detainees from Minidoka served overseas. The three-panel Honor Roll was built by detainees to honor the Nisei men and women from the camp serving in the U.S. military during the war. The original Honor Roll, constructed of wood, was destroyed over time. The three panel Honor Roll was reconstructed in 2011 based on historic photographs. It was placed in the same location as the original – northeast of the cluster of buildings at the entrance to the center, across Hunt Road. The panels are supported by four wood posts. The center panel is large and rectangular, adorned with a painted bald eagle on top. Two smaller square panels flank the main board. Only a fraction of the names from the original Honor Roll could be deciphered and placed on the reconstruction.

House on Warehouse #6 Slab and Duplex on Warehouse #9 Slab – Date Unknown

It is unknown whether these buildings were originally part of the Relocation Center. However, both buildings have been moved to their current location and bear such
little resemblance to Relocation Center buildings as to be unrecognizable. Both buildings are located in the warehouse area of the former Relocation Center.

Parking Lot – 1942

The parking lot is located at the entrance area of the relocation center, adjacent to the military police and reception buildings. Historically, the parking lot was comprised of dirt and gravel. The modern parking lot sits on the same location, but is roughly 1/3 the size of the historic parking lot. The modern lot was paved with asphalt and sidewalks. Basalt boulders were added to mark the lot’s edges. Currently, it serves as the visitor parking lot for the Minidoka National Historic Site.

Farm in a Day Outbuilding – Date Unknown

The Farm in a Day Outbuilding, located east of the FIAD Milking Barn, measures 20’ x 30’ with a concrete perimeter foundation. Like the Milking Barn, the outbuilding was made from recycled parts of relocation center barracks in the utilitarian style. The use of recycled relocation center buildings indicates that it was built after the relocation center was closed, but the exact date of construction is unknown. The single story building has a side gabled roof clad in building paper. The roof has a slight eve overhang with exposed rafter ends. The building’s south and north elevations have a wooden door and two wood framed fixed-pane windows, one of which has been infilled on each side. The east and west elevations have an infilled rectangular vent in the top of the gable. The building’s interior has a vestibule and two rooms, matching the typical layout for two
apartments in WRA barracks. The east room has plywood wainscoting, while the west room has wainscoting of tongue-and-groove wood. Although this building demonstrates creative reuse of Relocation Center materials, too little is known about the buildings origins and use for it to be considered a contributing resource.
Chapter 4
HISTORIC CONTEXTS

In order to determine a property’s significance, it is necessary to evaluate it with its associated historic contexts. A property’s historic context can be understood as the “patterns or trends in history by which a specific occurrence, property, or site is understood and its meaning (and ultimately its significance) within history or prehistory is made clear.”18 The specific events represented by historic properties must be understood within the larger trends in history. The Minidoka Relocation Center is associated with the treatment of Japanese Americans in the United States during World War II. It is also relevant to post-World War II efforts by the Soil Conservation Service to educate farmers about new soil conservation techniques. To understand the significance of the site, it must be evaluated within these larger contexts. This chapter illuminates the associated contexts of the Japanese American home front experience during World War II and the Farm in a Day system.

*Japanese American Relocation*

In 1942 following the bombing of Pearl Harbor, the United States relocated Japanese and Japanese Americans, forcing them to leave their homes on the West Coast to in live relocation centers in the western interior where they were detained by the federal government. However, this was not the first injustice imposed on Japanese

immigrants by federal and state governments. Institutionalized racism against the Japanese in the United States dates back to the late nineteenth century.

Precedent had been set with sweeping anti-Chinese legislation at both the state and federal level. Between 1849 and 1882, close to 300,000 Chinese immigrants came to North America to work in the gold mines of the West. Many territories and states levied heavier taxes on Chinese people than other groups. California’s 1879 state constitution forbid Chinese immigrants from testifying in court against whites, and they were also banned from certain kinds of employment, and excluded from land ownership. In 1882 the Chinese Exclusion Act stopped Chinese worker immigration to the United States. The restriction stayed in place until 1943, when the Magnuson Act repealed it.19

Significant numbers of Japanese immigrants did not begin arriving in the United States until the 1890s. Roughly half of the Japanese immigrants, known as Issei, pursued agricultural work, while the rest gravitated to urban centers to work in small commercial establishments – often for themselves or other Issei. Anti-Japanese sentiment existed from the beginning of their immigration to the United States, but intensified around 1905 as a result of increased immigration and the Japanese victory in the Russo-Japanese War. The Russo-Japanese War marked the first modern defeat of a western power by an Asian country. Anti-Japanese organizations formed on the west coast and agitated for things like segregation of schools in San Francisco. The school segregation issue exacerbated tensions between the Japanese government and the United States to an extent that it directly led to the Gentlemen’s Agreement of 1907. The Gentlemen’s Agreement was an

attempt by President Theodore Roosevelt to smooth things over with Japan. Roosevelt stopped San Francisco from segregating its schools and encouraged the California legislature to quit passing anti-Japanese legislation. In return, Japan agreed to limit emigration to the United States, while the U.S. agreed to allow the immigration of Japanese laborers’ family members. This ironically resulted in a higher rate of immigration of Japanese due to the large number of family members who chose to join laborers already living in the U.S.\textsuperscript{20}

The Gentlemen’s Agreement did not stop the flow of anti-Japanese sentiment. The Naturalization Law of 1870 barred Asian immigrants from becoming naturalized U.S. citizens. This had far-reaching repercussions. Perhaps most importantly, lack of citizenship kept many Japanese from owning land. Beginning as early as the 1880s and continuing on through the post-World War II era, states throughout the West and Midwest passed laws prohibiting non-citizens from owning land. During the time, the “yellow peril” was also propagated in the news media. Asians were portrayed as a political and cultural threat to the U.S. globally and domestically. Paranoia of Japanese American espionage and sabotage soared. Many white Americans competed with Japanese farmers. In the railroad industry, \textit{Issei} workers worked for low wages, frustrating white workers competing for those jobs. Yellow journalism and economic competition engendered racism against the Japanese all along the West Coast.\textsuperscript{21}


Congress passed a series of immigration laws during this time period restricting immigration to the United States from Asia. The first was the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882. The Immigration Act of 1917 denied immigration to anyone from the “Asiatic Barred Zone” except the Japanese and Filipinos. However, Japanese immigration was already limited by the Gentlemen’s Agreement. The Immigration Act of 1924, also known as the Johnson-Reed Act, barred anyone from immigrating who was “by virtue of race or nationality” ineligible for citizenship. Since Asians were barred from the naturalization process, they were not allowed to immigrate to the U.S. under the new law. The Johnson-Reed Act was the first immigration legislation that explicitly banned Japanese immigration. This violation of the Gentlemen’s Agreement further escalated tensions between the U.S. and Japan.22

After its victory in the Russo-Japanese War, the military might of Imperial Japan caused western powers concern. Just before the U.S. entered World War One, in 1917, the alarming prospect of Germany allying with Japan and Mexico was discussed in the Zimmerman Telegram, a German internal diplomatic communication that was intercepted by British intelligence. In 1927, Japan sent troops into China – however this effort was cut short by the onset of the Depression. Although the Washington Naval Agreement of 1921 limited Japan to a few battleships, by the late 1920s, the Japanese began an ambitious warship construction effort under a new conservative government dominated by military figures. Then, in 1931, Japan invaded Manchuria, declared it an independent

kingdom and installed a pro-Japanese government. In 1936, a diplomatic process was begun that eventually resulted in the military alliance of Axis powers in World War II – Germany, Italy, and Japan. Imperial Japan’s blatant territorial expansion and disregard for international agreements ratcheted up distrust Western powers felt toward Japan.\textsuperscript{23}

In terms of foreign policy, the U.S. experienced decades of military and political distrust of Imperial Japan. Domestically, the propagation of the “yellow peril” myth, economic competition, limited immigration, and discriminatory land laws, helped to establish prejudices against Asians living in the U.S. It is within this context that the U.S. suffered a devastating military attack at their naval base at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii on December 7, 1941. The Japanese attack inflicted 3,500 American casualties. The U.S. declared war against Japan on December 8\textsuperscript{th}, 1942. That same day, Presidential Proclamation 2525 specified that Japanese aliens could be apprehended and removed as enemy aliens. Soon after the attack, the Justice Department arrested 1500 Issei, identified as enemy aliens, who were considered subversive and dangerous. Many of those arrested were community leaders and local businessmen. American branches of Japanese banks were also closed, further impacting the Japanese American community. Distrust of the Japanese community on the West coast was growing stronger – reports of subversive activities were mounting as was the paranoia and fear regarding Nikkei\textsuperscript{24} espionage.\textsuperscript{25}

In February of 1942, the General in charge of the Western Defense Command, John L. DeWitt, recommended that people of Japanese ancestry be moved from the West.

\begin{enumerate}[\textsuperscript{21}]
\item Nikkei are the children of Japanese immigrants to the United States. Due to the fact that they were born in the United States, they were automatically granted citizenship.
\item NPS, Cultural Landscapes Inventory, 17-18; Wyatt, ed., Japanese Americans in World War II, 15.
\end{enumerate}
Coast based on military necessity. Under pressure from military leaders in an atmosphere of heightened paranoia and racism, President Franklin D. Roosevelt signed Executive Order 9066. The Executive Order was explained in a report by the WRA completed shortly after the war ended:

Executive Order No. 9066 cleared the way for a commanding general to exclude individuals or groups of individuals, regardless of their citizenship, from any region he might designate. The language of the order was devised to avoid the appearance of discrimination against any specific racial or national group, but there was no pretense on the part of Government officials or on the part of the press that the executive order was intended for any purpose other than to effect the exclusion of the Japanese from the West Coast.\(^{26}\)

The area comprised of the western halves of California, Washington, and Oregon, in addition to the southern portion of Arizona, was designated Military Area #1. People of Japanese ancestry in Military Area #1 were encouraged to voluntarily relocate out of the restricted area. Thousands of people with Japanese ancestry did in fact relocate voluntarily, only to be met with hostility in their new communities. On March 7, 1942, the War Relocation Authority (WRA), a civilian agency, was created by Executive Order No. 9102. The WRA’s mission was to create a plan to effectively remove the people designated under Executive Order 9066 from the military areas created by the Secretary of War. The WRA was also charged with their relocation, maintenance, and supervision of detainees. If possible, the WRA was to provide for the employment of relocated Japanese at “useful work in industry, commerce, agriculture, or public projects.”\(^{27,28}\)


\(^{27}\) Executive Order No. 9102, “Establishing the War Relocation Authority in the Executive Office of the President and Defining Its Functions and Duties,” 1946. *Internment Archives.*

The WRA quickly recommended that General DeWitt cease uncontrolled, voluntary evacuations. A curfew and travelling limits for people of Japanese ancestry in Military Area No. 1 were put in place. Soon after voluntary evacuation was ended, the first involuntary evacuations of people of Japanese ancestry began. General DeWitt issued Civilian Exclusion Order No. 1, which required all people of Japanese ancestry to evacuate from the militarily sensitive area of Bainbridge Island, Washington. This process was repeated along the West Coast until eventually over 110,000 Japanese Americans were evacuated from the exclusion area.29

The WRA became involved in the process of relocation, implementing a standard removal procedure. Evacuees were to report to collection points known as Civil Control Stations near their homes. From the Control Station the Army transported them to Assembly Centers. Eventually fifteen Assembly Centers were in use up and down the West Coast, primarily in California (See Figure 11). Assembly Centers were located at old fairgrounds, racetracks, work camps, mills, and livestock exhibition buildings. They were intended to be temporary accommodations while the evacuated waited to be moved to one of the ten Relocation Centers. The conditions at the Assembly Centers were poor – some only had pit latrines, while others utilized hastily-cleaned livestock stalls as living quarters. However, most evacuees at Assembly Centers lived in hastily-constructed barracks buildings in the “Theater-of-operations style.” The barracks were divided into 20’ x 20’ living quarters. Existing buildings were used as mess halls, offices, and

warehouses. The Assembly Centers were often surrounded by barbed wire fences and patrolled by armed military police.\textsuperscript{30}

By August 7, 1942, the West Coast Japanese had all been evacuated to Assembly Centers or Relocation Centers. By November 3, 1942, the transfer to Relocation Centers was complete. At this point, Military Area No. 2 was evacuated as well. WRA Relocation Centers were built in seven states – usually on underutilized federal land in sparsely populated areas. Relocation Centers were intended to be self-contained communities. They were to include hospitals, post offices, schools, warehouses, offices, factories, fire stations, and residential areas – generally surrounded by barbed wire and guard towers.\textsuperscript{31}

The ten Relocation Centers all had the same general outlay and design based on a grid system of blocks. Residential blocks had ten to fourteen barrack buildings, one mess hall, latrines for men and women, a laundry, and a recreation hall. Administrative blocks, warehouse areas, and military police areas were generally separate from residential blocks. The Relocation Centers typically had a main entrance leading to a local highway, with access roads to agricultural areas on the perimeter. Some of these roads were paved, but most were simple dirt roads.\textsuperscript{32}


\textsuperscript{32} Burton et al, \textit{Confinement and Ethnicity}, 40-41.
The built environment at the relocation centers presented a unique construction quandary. The War Department wanted to build something quickly that was not permanent. “Theater-of-operations” style barracks seemed the best solution. However, the buildings needed to be suitable for habitation by women, children, and the elderly. A compromise was reached in the standard set by the Army, which modified the theater-of-operations style to make them more comfortable for families while fulfilling the

**Figure 11.** NPS Map of WRA and WCCA Facilities. Map of Sites in the Western U.S. associated with the relocation of Japanese Americans during World War II. From Jeffery F. Burton et al, *Confinement and Ethnicity: An Overview of World War II Japanese American Relocation Sites* (Seattle: University of Washington Press, 2002).
requirements of being low cost, quick-building, and limiting the use of critical materials.\textsuperscript{33}

![Figure 12](image.png)

**Figure 12.** Example of Relocation Center Residential Block Layout. From Burton et al, *Confinement and Ethnicity*, 42.

Typical Army barracks were 20’ x 100’. Barracks constructed for relocation centers were 20’ x 120’ with six rooms or “apartments” of different sizes in order to accommodate families of varying sizes. Each apartment was separated from the next with a partition, but the partition extended only to the eaves, leaving a gap between partition walls and the roof. Barracks were generally of timber beam construction, with wood battening and a layer of tarpaper. A rectangular wooden vent donned the gable ends, a common Army construction detail. Raised floors were constructed of wooden boards. Windows were either sliding square windows or double hung windows with divided

\textsuperscript{33} Burton et al, *Confinement and Ethnicity*, 41.
lights. Even though construction standards were set, relocation centers differed slightly due to local interpretation of plans and use of local contractors for construction.\textsuperscript{34}

The barrack was the basic building unit at relocation centers. Most relocation center buildings are barrack buildings with slight modifications. Recreation halls were very similar to barracks, except they measured 20’ x 100’ and did not have interior rooms partitioned. Mess halls were essentially a double-wide barrack, measuring 40’ x 100’ with an added kitchen, storage area, and scullery. Administration buildings were also based on the barrack unit, with a white clapboard exterior instead of the tarpaper exterior.\textsuperscript{35}

Life in relocation centers was a shock to people of Japanese ancestry evacuated from the Pacific Coast. Weather conditions at the camps were much more volatile than the temperate coastal climate to which most detainees were accustomed. Dust was also a menace. The act of disturbing the soil by buildings hundreds of buildings within a very short period of time caused extremely dusty conditions at most of the relocation centers. Dirt roads turned into mud pits with heavy rains. The residential blocks had such stark monotony, detainees made efforts to personalize and improve their space. One popular way of improving the area they lived was by making small gardens in front of their living quarters.\textsuperscript{36}

\textsuperscript{34} Burton et al, \textit{Confinement and Ethnicity}, 43.
\textsuperscript{35} Burton et al, \textit{Confinement and Ethnicity}, 43.
\textsuperscript{36} Wyatt, ed., \textit{Japanese Americans in World War II}, 40; Burton et al, \textit{Confinement and Ethnicity}, 45.
The camps began to slowly grow into fledgling communities. School systems were built and each camp had its own newspaper. Popular pastimes included baseball, swimming, cards, and the game Go. Some detainees worked in agricultural fields to help cultivate food for the camp. The WRA set up a system by which the detainees could govern themselves to a limited degree by electing community councils with representatives from each residential block. This was intended to facilitate communication between WRA officials and detainees. However, the councils did not work as envisioned. They lacked any real power or authority. Their implementation also
helped to widen a generational gap between *Issei* and *Nisei* by only allowing *Nisei* to serve on councils, therefore muting the voice of the older *Issei* generation in the camp community.\(^{37}\)

There were extremely limited opportunities for approved leave from the camp—all of which were predicated on the individual being demonstrably loyal to the United States. Over 4,000 students were allowed to leave assembly and relocation centers to attend college. However, the students still faced obstacles. The government offered them no financial assistance for school and many schools refused to admit the Japanese American students. Agricultural workers could also be eligible for leave for seasonal work. Detainees could be hired by agricultural companies experiencing an industry-wide labor shortage due to the war. This relationship was highly beneficial to the agriculture industry in the Intermountain West, especially the sugar beet industry. Some detained women volunteered for the Red Cross or became nurses to meet the wartime shortage. Eventually, the government allowed detained men and women to volunteer for military service as well.\(^{38}\)

Although *Nisei* men had been eager to volunteer for military service, the government had not yet allowed them to serve. In February of 1942 that policy changed when volunteers for military service were called from the relocation centers. The first wave of volunteers numbered 1,200 *Nisei*. *Nisei* volunteers were placed in a segregated unit, the 442\(^{nd}\) Regimental Combat Team, comprised entirely of relocation center


volunteers. In 1944 the 442nd was combined with the 100th Infantry Battalion, a battalion comprised mostly of Japanese Americans who were expelled from the Hawaiian Territorial Guard and the Hawaiian units of the National Guard following Pearl Harbor. Together, the combined 100th Battalion/442nd Regimental Combat Team became one of the most decorated units in the U.S. Army. In a unit of 4,000 men, they earned over 18,000 individual citations and over 9,000 casualties in the European theater. The sacrifice of volunteers was honored at relocation centers with the construction of Honor Rolls, listing the men and women who were serving their country.39

Detainees in relocation centers expressed resistance by staging protests and strikes. The severity of protests varied. Some took the form of relatively mild actions, like circulating petitions for the removal of the barbed wire fence at the Heart Mountain Relocation Center. Others were more serious. At Manzanar, military police fired tear gas at a disruptive crowd of detainees protesting the arrest of an internee who attempted to expose corrupt camp operators. The incident ended with military police firing into the crowd of protestors; two detainees were killed and at least ten others were wounded in the incident. Draft resistance was another form of protest that a few hundred detainees engaged in.40

Resistance to relocation was also present in the legal system. In 1943, *Hirabayashi v. United States* came before the Supreme Court. The court decided that it was constitutional for the military to apply a curfew to a specific group of people based on military necessity. *Korematsu v. United States* was decided in December of 1944. In a

split decision, the court upheld the government’s right to exclude people Japanese ancestry from the West Coast. In *Endo v. United States*, the Supreme Court unanimously decided that the WRA did not have the authority to subject a loyal U.S. citizen to the indefinite leave procedure. This decision effectively freed the remaining Japanese living in relocation centers without having to address the issue of the constitutionality of the government holding citizens without cause in wartime.41

On December 17, 1944, the day before the *Korematsu* and *Endo* decisions were announced, the War Department announced that the exclusion order on the West Coast would be lifted as of January 2, 1945. At that time there were still approximately 80,000 detainees living in relocation centers. Roughly 35,000 had been released already for military service or through WRA leave clearance.42 Some detainees left immediately, while others were more reluctant. By the early summer of 1945, most of the centers were stripped of amenities and mostly empty of detainees. Eventually, the WRA was forced to evict a small number of detainees after giving them a two-week eviction notice, then a three-day notice, and finally a 30-minute notice. Those who refused to leave were forced onto trains. The WRA provided each departing detainee $25, train fare, and meals for the trip for those with less than $500 cash. Resettling detainees turned out to be a logistical nightmare. Many had lost most of their possessions and money upon internment, and had no place to return home to. Returning detainees experienced housing shortages in Los Angeles and the San Francisco Bay area. Detainees that did relocate back to the West

---

Coast faced intolerance from locals. In total, roughly 57,000 detainees returned to the former exclusion zone after leaving relocation centers; 52,000 moved to other parts of the U.S.; 3,000 remained in Department of Justice custody.43

After the relocation centers closed, most of the remaining property was turned over to the government agency that had administered the land before the war – most commonly the Bureau of Reclamation (USBR), the Farm Credit Administration, and the Government Land Office. WRA lumber and equipment was sold off. Barracks were put into stand-by with their doors and windows nailed shut.44 At Minidoka Relocation Center, the land reverted back to the Bureau of Reclamation. The USBR had a lottery system for allotting homesteads to veterans. Many of the leftover buildings were given to the homesteaders. The remaining buildings were used in other USBR projects in Idaho. What was not used was sold or destroyed.45

Rebuilding their lives and attempting to re-integrate into American society was a challenge for former detainees. They suffered serious property and wealth loss. Talks of financial reparations began almost as soon as the relocation centers closed. Japanese Americans became geographically scattered as a result of dispersal from relocation centers. New centers of power emerged in the Japanese American community. In 1952, the McCarran-Walter Immigration Act passed. Among other things, the McCarran Act removed racial barriers from U.S. citizenship, making Issei eligible for naturalized

44 Burton et al, Confinement and Ethnicity, 58; NPS, Cultural Landscapes Inventory, 51.
45 NPS, Cultural Landscapes Inventory, 51-52.
citizenship. It also put immigration quotas in place for every country, allowing a small quota for Japanese immigrants.46

After decades of debate regarding reparations for former detainees, President Ronald Reagan signed the Civil Liberties Act of 1988 into law. This landmark law acknowledged the unfair removal and confinement of people of Japanese American ancestry during World War II. It called for public education programs to spread knowledge and awareness of relocation. Additionally, restitution payments were made to detainees. In 1992 President George H.W. Bush signed the Manzanar National Historic Site Act into law, which established a historic site at the former Manzanar Relocation Center to be administered by the NPS. A theme study was also called for to identify other sites that reflect the wartime experience of Japanese Americans.47

*Farm in a Day (FIAD)*

After the Minidoka Relocation Center was closed, the land reverted back to the Bureau of Reclamation (USBR). In June of 1947, the first land lottery in Jerome was held. The lottery included 43 farm lots totaling roughly 3,500 acres of the former relocation center. 16 of the 42 original parcels had been partially or completely developed by detainees at the Relocation Center. Most of the lottery participants were veterans, as they were given a 90 day advantage to bid on buildings. Each farm would have between 75 and 170 acres of farmland with access to irrigation canals. Despite the significant

starting advantage, homesteaders were required to move in within six months and live on
the land for three years, cultivating \(\frac{1}{16}\)th of the land. In April 1949 a second land
drawing was held for nine farmsteads averaging 80 acres a piece. Each homestead was
granted two 20’ x 120’ barracks and one smaller building. They were also given surplus
personal items from the WRA. Despite the significant starting advantage, homesteaders
still required significant capital to build a farm practically from scratch. The farmers also
suffered from underdeveloped roadways, lack of schools, and a lack of homesteading
laws in the areas they settled. The first few years, homesteaders worked to clear the
barrack area, remove rubble, and establish their ranches. In the early 1950s, 94 more
farms, totaling 10,464 acres, were opened for homesteading.\(^{48}\)

One of the winners of the land lottery, John Herrmann, was granted 128 acres of
land within the site of the former Relocation Center. The parcel contained one of the
former Relocation Center’s water towers, a fire station, a baseball diamond, a sewage
treatment area, residential Blocks 21 and 22, and parts of other housing blocks. Herrmann
also “inherited” the Relocation Center’s Root Cellar, built by detainees. Although
Herrmann was granted the land, in 1950 he was recalled to active duty, which delayed the
development of his homestead.\(^{49}\)

While on duty, he received a letter from the Soil Conservation District (SCD) in
Idaho. Conservation districts are subdivisions of the state government with locally elected
governing bodies. In 1939 the Idaho Soil Conservation Commission was created to

\(^{48}\) NPS, *Cultural Landscapes Inventory*, 52; Jeffery F. Burton and Mary M. Farrell, “An Archeological
Survey of the John Herrmann ‘Farm-In-A-Day’ Property, Jerome County, Idaho,” (*Publications in
Anthropology* 95, 2006), 8.

approach the issue of soil erosion as a result of the Dust Bowl. According to archeologists Jeffery F. Burton and Mary Farrell, the Soil Conservation Districts use

…state, federal, and private sector resources to solve conservation problems, assisting landowners with conservation management of natural resources through education (including demonstration projects), technical assistance and financial incentives.50

The SCD wanted to use John Herrmann’s land for an experiment – Herrmann’s land was ideal because it had never been farmed before. Herrmann specifically was chosen because he was a veteran of World War II and the Korean War. Additionally, due to his service in 1951, he was behind his neighbors in the development of his homestead. The district wanted to use the Herrmann farm to demonstrate different machinery and display new soil conservation practices. The latest examples of land leveling, land curves, soil classification, and crop-specific irrigation and row spacing would be demonstrated on the Herrmann farm.51

Farm in a Day was a rarely-used publicity stunt put on by SCDs. The Herrmann FIAD project was put on by the North Side Conservation District and the Jerome County Farmers Equipment Dealers Association. The Herrmann farm was an ideal candidate for a Farm in a Day because the farm was behind development-wise and because the farm had an oiled access road, an abundance of parking, and was centrally located in southern Idaho. The site could accommodate the hundreds, if not thousands, of Idahoans the SCD hoped to attract to the event.52

The goal of the Farm in a Day experiment was to showcase new techniques and equipment, but the result was a working farm built by community members over the course of a couple of days. The Minidoka FIAD project was heavily advertised in local newspapers. Community members were encouraged to come out to the farm to volunteer their labor for the project. The proposed schedule covered ten hours of the day and set a frantic pace. The day’s activities included woodlot and rose planting, land leveling and planing, chiseling, concrete pipe and rise installation, weed control discussion, land leveling, plowing, harrowing, discing, floating, seeding grain and fertilizing, alfalfa-grass and pasture seeding, corrugating and ditching, pipeline and water control structures, fencing, woodlot and rose planting, a break for lunch and a program including a concert put on by a local high school band, pond and silt trap construction, waste pump and steel pipe, trenching for pipeline, culverts, wheat grass seeding, fish and wildlife management, post treating and corrals, graveling roads, landscaping and windbreaks, home building and furnishings, freezer demonstrations, and a soils exhibit.\(^{53}\)

The FIAD project was an exceptional event in rural southern Idaho – and was exceptional among FIAD projects in other parts of the country. The Minidoka FIAD project was the only FIAD project that occurred on land that had never been farmed before. Over 11,000 Idahoans attended the Farm in a Day spectacular on April 17\(^{\text{th}}\). Some came only to find that there was no work for them to do – the project enjoyed a labor surplus. The materials donated were numerous. Trees, roses, shrubs, clothesline poles,  

chicks, feed, fencing, pipes, corrals, the use of over 100 pieces of machinery, and much more were all donated for the FIAD effort. That day, Herrmann’s 128-acre tract was plowed, leveled, and ditched. Fields were planted and the National Guard built a fence around the property. The Herrmann house was also almost entirely built on Saturday, the concrete foundation having been poured the previous day. Other farm buildings were made from converted barracks buildings from the Relocation Center. The chairman of the project, Emery Shellenbarger, claimed that the buildings, soil preparation, seeding, and irrigation, in addition to the free labor, increased the farm equity by $50,000.54

John Herrmann was not the only beneficiary that day – the event was, in fact, intended as a teaching tool. The Soil Conservation District brought in 1,500 people to demonstrate the new land use techniques to area farmers. The SCD hoped that the FIAD project could spread this information to many farmers all at the same time, saving them the expense of visiting each farmer individually. Attendees of FIAD could watch as workers demonstrated various conservation techniques. Demonstrators communicated with the crowds via mobile sound trucks.55

Although the FIAD farm was a great gift to the Herrmann family, they were never able to subsist on the farm alone. John Herrmann worked another job in addition to the farming to support his family. While the Herrmann family was grateful for the FIAD experience, they did incur unforeseen costs as a result of the project. They were also the

https://news.google.com/newspapers?id=dxBWAAAAIBAJ&sjid=7uDAAAAIBAJ&pg=7111%2C314256
subject of neighborly envy – Herrmann felt that his neighbors always considered him to be someone that got everything for free. In reality, Herrmann’s out of pocket costs for the farm’s startup totaled more than $14,000. In 2001, when Minidoka Internment National Monument was designated, Herrmann began negotiating with the NPS to exchange his farm for another. In 2008, the FIAD land was transferred to the NPS.\textsuperscript{56}

Chapter 5

LITERATURE REVIEW

The nomination of the Minidoka Relocation Center historic district to the National Register is grounded in two different historic contexts. The first is the internment of Japanese Americans at the Relocation Center during World War II. The secondary significance lies in Soil Conservation Service’s Farm in a Day activities that took place on the same land in the early 1950s. There is a healthy amount of scholarship regarding the internment of Japanese Americans during World War II – much of it with a legal or racial focus. There is much less available information on specific relocation centers – especially those outside of California. Much of what is available for the Minidoka site is published by the National Park Service. Very little has been published about the Farm in a Day project, probably due to the limited scope of the experiment and its rural focus. This literature review focuses on the publications which were most helpful in expositing the district’s two primary historical contexts, the experience of people of Japanese ancestry in the United States during World War II and the Farm in a Day project.

Detention of Japanese Americans during World War II

The subject of the detention of Japanese Americans has received a lot of scholarly attention, especially since the Civil Rights Era brought focus to the issues of race and justice in the field of history. Since that time, much of the scholarship has used a lens of
legal or racial analysis to explore the subject. In 1988, President Ronald Reagan signed the Civil Liberties Act of 1988, providing restitution for the wartime internment of Japanese civilians. The issue of redress permeated the historical scholarship of Japanese relocation, and is still a fairly popular subject today. Although these fields of scholarship are immense, their utility in the process of nominating the Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District to the National Register was limited.

There were a handful of general histories that were helpful in developing historic contexts for the project. Historian Roger Daniels approaches the subject through the lens of minority history in an early 1971 work that details the Japanese American experience from the early to mid-twentieth century. *Japanese American Internment during World War II*, by sociologist Wendy Ng, offers a good chronology focused on the World War II era. It also features sections of biographies and primary source documents. *A Tragedy of Democracy: Japanese Confinement in North America* offers an overview of the treatment of Japanese Americans during World War II. This book places internment in the context of early twentieth century Japanese American history and extends into the Civil Rights

---


era. It also covers Japanese confinement in Hawaii and Canada, offering the reader wider geographical context.60

Publications from government agencies were the most helpful in building historical context. *Personal Justice Denied*, the report of the Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians, details the history of the Japanese in the United States and their eventual relocation from the government’s perspective. *Confinement and Ethnicity: An Overview of World War II Japanese American Relocation Sites*, published in 2002, offers a general historical context for Japanese internment then details each individual relocation center’s historic and current built environment. In 2012, a National Historic Landmarks Theme Study, *Japanese Americans in World War II*, was published. This study encompasses all properties associated with the internment of Japanese Americans – assembly centers, relocation centers, and INS facilities, among others. Based partly on *Confinement and Ethnicity*, it is an extremely valuable source in its thorough exploration of historic contexts and its high level of detail describing a variety of different types of properties associated with relocation.61


Minidoka Relocation Center

While there have been a handful of works published about other Relocation Centers and detention facilities at Heart Mountain, Poston, Tule Lake, and Manzanar, the book on the Minidoka Relocation Center has yet to be written. There has been very little published about the Minidoka Relocation Center outside of NPS publications. In 2001, the Minidoka Relocation Center was named a National Monument by President Bill Clinton, spurring surveys and other research activity by the NPS. Many of these publications are technical reports with portions devoted to historical context.

This is Minidoka: An Archeological Survey of Minidoka Internment National Monument, Idaho is a detailed archeological survey of the site. The report features helpful detailed maps and historical context. Another archeological report was published by the NPS in 2003, Minidoka Internment National Monument: Archology at the Gate. This brief report is part history of the entrance area of the center and part methodology for archeological investigation of the area. It discusses the Honor Roll, the garden, the Military Police Building, the Reception Building, and the Guard Tower. In 2005, the NPS published Historic Resource Study: Minidoka Internment National Monument. This study offers detailed historical context, as well as detailed physical descriptions of the center and accounts of everyday life at Minidoka. The Historic Resource Study is by far the most comprehensive report in regards to the historical context of the Relocation Center at Minidoka. Also published in 2005 was an incredibly detailed report of an archeological investigation of the Relocation Center’s trash dump titled The Fate of Things:

---

62 Originally, the site was designated the Minidoka Internment National Monument by President Bill Clinton. In YEAR the site was designated the Minidoka Relocation Center National Historic Site.
Archeological Investigations at the Minidoka Relocation Center Dump, Jerome County, Idaho. The historical information in this report is extremely limited – the focus is entirely on archeological findings. A Cultural Landscapes Inventory was completed for the site by the NPS with a report published in 2007. The report “identifies and documents the landscape’s location, size, physical development, condition, landscape characteristics, character-defining features, as well as other valuable information useful to park management.” In short, it explains the site’s significance as a cultural landscape.

Publications specific to Idaho or the Minidoka Relocation Center that are not tied to the NPS are limited. Robert C. Sims wrote two articles on the topic in the 1970s, “The Japanese American Experience in Idaho,” and “‘A Fearless, Patriotic, Clean-cut Stand’: Idaho’s Governor Clark and Japanese-American Relocation in World War II.” The first article chronicles Japanese American history in Idaho – from the beginning of their immigration to the state in the 1890s through World War II. It focuses on the racism they experienced – especially institutional racism backed by the state and federal governments. “‘A Fearless, Patriotic, Clean-cut Stand’” details Idaho Governor Chase Clark's balancing act between his racist opposition toward the relocation of Japanese and Japanese Americans to Idaho and the potential dire impact of state-wide agricultural labor shortage that was occurring. Hunt for Idaho, published in 1994, is an informative yet

---

colloquial collection of news clippings, personal histories, and shared memories. The book recounts the attack on Pearl Harbor, the arrival of evacuees in Hunt, and the arrival of homesteaders in Hunt in this way. A 2002 thesis for a Master of Landscape Architecture titled “Gardens below the Watchtower: Gardens and Meaning in WWII Japanese American Internment Camps” focused heavily on the Minidoka site in its investigation of the significance of gardens at relocation centers. Most recently, in 2013 author Teresa Tamura published *Minidoka: An American Concentration Camp*. This unique work is comprised of essays and photographs, paired with excerpts from memoirs and interviews. It also includes the Relocation Center’s history and development as a public historical site.65

*Farm in a Day*

Documentation of the Soil Conservation Service’s (SCS) Farm in a Day (FIAD) program is scarce. Official SCS histories lack any mention of the program. The scope of the FIAD project was very limited, so a lack of scholarship is not surprising. Much of the published material that addresses the FIAD program is focused on the program’s application as part of the Columbia Basin Project. A 1991 article titled “’Farm-in-a-Day’: The Publicity Stunt and the Celebrations That Initiated the Columbia Basin Project” discusses the Farm in a Day experiment in the context of the Columbia Basin Project in

---
Washington. This article gives readers the flavor of the Farm in a Day program. However, the article’s heavy focus on the Columbia Basin Project leaves numerous unanswered questions regarding the project in Idaho. First published in 1997, *A River Lost: The Life and Death of the Columbia* is a blend of memoir and history that explores the damming of the Columbia River. The Columbia Basin FIAD project is briefly addressed. In 2011, a local publication, *The Rain Has Gone Around: Water in the Quincy Valley* was published. The volume, featuring numerous interviews, briefly discusses the FIAD project as part of Columbia Basin Project efforts. Like the subject of the Relocation Center, NPS materials are the greatest resource on the FIAD properties at Minidoka as well. *An Archeological Survey of the John Herrmann “Farm in a Day” Property, Jerome County, Idaho*, published in 2006, gives brief context then describes the FIAD efforts. The report then details the extant built environment related to the Herrmann family and FIAD property. The FIAD project is also briefly addressed in the *Historic Resource Study* of Minidoka sponsored by the NPS.66

Chapter 6

METHODOLOGY

I began this project by emailing officials at various historic preservation organizations and agencies in Boise and throughout Idaho to ask if they knew of any properties that needed to be nominated to the National Register. Although I received a handful of replies, the most intriguing one was from the historian in charge of the National Register at the Idaho State Historic Preservation Office, Tricia Canaday. She told me that the Minidoka Japanese Relocation Center had an outdated nomination that needed to be brought into the 21st century. Neither the Idaho SHPO nor the Minidoka National Historic Site staff had sufficient time to do the nomination themselves. I volunteered to take on the project for as a thesis subject and set an appointment to meet with the Ms. Canaday.

At our meeting, the SHPO historian gave me a brief overview of the history of the site, from the era of Japanese Relocation, to the Farm In A Day (FIAD) project, to becoming an NPS site. During this meeting, the SHPO historian also explained the rationale behind updating the nomination. She explained that some of the extant buildings on the property needed to be added to the nomination – mostly FIAD buildings. We also discussed expanding the physical boundaries of the nominated property to match the NPS site boundaries. She gave me valuable insight to the National Register nomination process in Idaho. At the close of our meeting, I received a small archive of documents, including technical reports and guides for the nomination process.
Next, I contacted the Integrated Resource Manager of the Hagerman Fossil Beds National Monument and Minidoka National Historic Site, JoAnn Blalack. An archeologist by training, she is involved in the interpretation of the two sites. We set up a time to meet at the Minidoka site so she could give me a tour or the grounds, show me the insides of some of the extant buildings, and generally give me an overview of the site. During the first site visit, the first set of reference photos were taken – these were the photos used to describe the buildings.

When we met for our site visit, we fittingly started at the entrance to Relocation Center, where we discussed the reconstructed Guard Tower, the reconstructed Honor Roll, and the ruins of the Reception and Military Police Buildings. Our second stop was the former FIAD land, home of a handful of potential contributing buildings and structures. We walked the perimeter of the Herrmann homestead and the adjacent milking barn. After that I was given access to the interior of the Firestation/Garage, utilized in both the Relocation Center era and the FIAD era. We then proceeded to Block 22. Ms. Blalack unlocked the Barrack building so I could go inside. She also gave me access to the Mess Hall, which had been moved to the Jerome County Fairgrounds and used as a canning kitchen until it was placed back on the Minidoka site. After exploring Block 22, we moved on to the warehouse area of the Relocation Center. The warehouse area housed three buildings, one of which dates to the Relocation Center and two of which are of more dubious origins. Ms. Blalack showed me the interior of the only extant warehouse from the Relocation Center era, Warehouse #5. We also discussed the other two non-contributing buildings nearby that were probably used as staff housing when another
government agency administered that land. Our last stop was the Root Cellar, utilized by both internees and the Herrmann family. Ms. Blalack gave me a tour of the interior and discussed recent rehabilitation efforts to stabilize the structure. When the tour was over, Ms. Blalack gave me a stack of technical reports published by the NPS about the site.

After my tour of the Minidoka site, I began the research phase of my project. One of the first things I did as part of my research efforts was contact my former boss at the California Office of Historic Preservation, the head of the Information Management Unit, Joseph McDole. I requested any documents related to relocation centers in California. Having worked in the Information Management Unit as an intern during my graduate coursework, I knew the California OHP documentation of Manzanar and Tule Lake sites was extensive. I hoped that the information would be more recent than the contents of the 1979 nomination of Minidoka that I was attempting to expand and improve. The information I received proved useful in the beginning stages of building historical contexts for the Minidoka site.

A big part of this process involved dissecting the dozens of NPS technical reports, many of which were archeological reports, given to me by NPS and SHPO officials. Sifting through dozens of report’s worth of archeological and historical information and deciding what was relevant to my project proved challenging. However, these reports contained the best information in regards to the evolution of the built environment on the site. They also provided extremely useful maps – both historic and current.

Most of the primary source documents needed for the project were available through the Densho online archive or through the Boise Public Library, which is a
government document repository. The *Densho* archive was used heavily for reference materials – especially images. Having historic photographs of the site available online proved invaluable. The historic photos available through *Densho* allowed me to compare the historic structures to the extant structures. The Boise Public Library was my source for War Relocation Authority documents regarding Japanese American Relocation.

Once enough contextual research was completed, I began to work on the nomination to the National Register. On Ms. Canaday’s advice, I simply took the National Register nomination form 10-900 section by section. Even though the project is technically an expansion of an existing nomination, virtually none of the information from the 1979 nomination was useable for a modern nomination. As a result, each section of the updated nomination was started from scratch. In order to adequately describe the buildings, I needed more extensive photos than those I had taken during my first tour of the site. I did another site visit, this time without a guide, and took more pictures of the buildings.

Once I built a solid draft nomination, I submitted it to Ms. Canaday at the Idaho SHPO Office for review a few sections at a time. Turning in the draft nomination a few sections at a time and waiting for Ms. Canaday’s comments allowed me to edit sections she had already commented on while she reviewed the next sections of the nomination. When the SHPO office is satisfied with the nomination, it will be scheduled before the next meeting of the Idaho State Historic Sites Review Board, in April 2016. The SHPO Office is confident the nomination will be forwarded to the Keeper of the National
Register. From that point, whether or not the updated nomination will be listed in the National Register is entirely up to the Keeper.
In order to be eligible for listing in the National Register of Historic Places, a property must have historical significance and the integrity to convey that significance. Historic Significance is defined in National Register Bulletin 16a (Bulletin 16a) as “the importance of a property to the history, architecture, archeology, engineering, or culture of a community, State, or the nation.” Significance is achieved through association with events or broad patterns of history, association with important persons, distinctive physical characteristics of design, construction, or form, or the potential to yield important information. Historic integrity is defined in Bulletin 16a as “the authenticity of a property's historic identity, evidenced by the survival of physical characteristics that existed during the property's… historic period.” The goal of this project was to determine the eligibility of an updated nomination of the Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District for listing in the National Register. This was achieved by determining if the property had significance and integrity.

Significance

The Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District is an important historical resource that contributes to the interpretation of the home front history during World War II – specifically the experience of people of Japanese ancestry. Furthermore, with the

---

addition of the Farm in a Day buildings to the nomination, the district contributes to the understanding of the federal government’s efforts to encourage new farming techniques as a conservation measure in the Intermountain West in the post-World War II era. Therefore, the Minidoka Relocation Center achieves significance at the national level under Criteria A for its association with broad patterns of history in the areas of Ethnic Heritage and Agriculture.

The Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District is nationally significant through its association with the relocation and detention of people of Japanese ancestry during World War II. The Presidential Proclamation that established the Minidoka Internment National Monument in 2001, described the property as

“…a unique and irreplaceable historical resource… [providing] opportunities for public education and interpretation of an important chapter in American history—the internment of Japanese Americans during World War II”

Nationally, buildings that convey the history of the relocation of Japanese Americans during World War II are scarce, making Minidoka that much more important. The Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District is also nationally significant for its association with the Soil Conservation Service’s Farm in a Day project and its novel approach to educating farmers about new agricultural practices.

---

Integrity

Integrity is difficult to assess for the Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District, and most properties associated with the relocation of Japanese Americans, due to the purposefully temporary nature of relocation center buildings. In the National Historic Landmark theme study for Japanese Americans during World War II, the author suggests that sites with exceptional significance with few extant above-ground resources depend more on integrity of location, setting, feeling, and association. The other three aspects of integrity—design, workmanship, and materials—“may be evaluated with less rigor because of the exceptional national significance.” With that in mind, the Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District does achieve most of the aspects of historic integrity.

Location

The Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District retains integrity of location. The district is 72.22 acres, situated within the 900 acre core of the Relocation Center. The core, which contained most of the center’s built environment, was surrounded by approximately 35,000 acres used for farming and various other activities to sustain the Relocation Center. The current district is located in what used to be the Relocation Center’s entrance area, administrative area, warehouse, and housing areas.

Design

Integrity of design is not retained at the Relocation Center, due mostly to lack of extant buildings to convey the center’s overall style and plane. Design is defined as “the combination of elements that create the form, plan, space, structure, and style of a property.”\textsuperscript{71} The Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District only has a couple of extant buildings in each area of the former Relocation Center. With so few buildings extant, the district does not offer visitors a sense of the Relocation Center’s original layout, nor does it convey the monotonous and impersonal qualities of the center.

Setting

The Relocation Center retains integrity of setting. During the years of significance, 1942-1945 and 1952, the area that surrounded the current district was farmland and sagebrush. The setting has changed little since that time. While the Relocation Center was in operation, the detainees farmed thousands of acres surrounding the 900 acre core of the camp. Those areas are still under cultivation today. The district retains its geographical isolation as well as its high-desert setting, characterized by wind, dust, and plentiful sagebrush.

Materials

The Farm in a Day buildings in the district retain incredible integrity of materials. The buildings stand nearly exactly as they were built – either from scratch or from other

\textsuperscript{71} NPS, \textit{National Register Bulletin 15}, 44.
existing buildings – in 1952. The Relocation Center buildings have fewer original materials remaining, although the NPS is making efforts to replace historically inaccurate materials with more historically accurate materials in-kind with the originals. In total, roughly half of the contributing buildings and structures in the district have integrity of materials. Therefore, as a whole, the district does not retain integrity of materials.

Workmanship

Workmanship, in the case of the Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District, refers to the ability of the extant buildings to showcase the “craftsmanship” that went into building the Relocation Center buildings. Although some of the buildings in the district have been altered, most still convey the temporary and quick-building aspects of the Relocation Center’s built environment. The buildings associated with the FIAD experiment also have integrity of workmanship because they showcase the ways in which Relocation Center buildings were reused for homesteading purposes.

Feeling

Feeling is defined as “a property’s aesthetic or historic sense of a particular period of time.”\(^72\) The Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District retains integrity of feeling by successfully conveying the bleak, isolated, and uncomfortable conditions of the Relocation Center. The stark rural landscape of the district also conveys the historic feeling of agricultural life and homesteading in the post-World War II homesteading era.

Association

Integrity of association, defined as “the direct link between an important historic event or person and a historic property,” is retained at the district. The extant Barracks and Mess Hall buildings convey the district’s association with the relocation and detention of people of Japanese ancestry during World War II. The Herrmann House and Milking Barn convey the association between the site and the federal government’s special project to educate farmers that manifested as a fully functioning homestead built in little more than a day’s time.

Determination of Eligibility

An updated and expanded historic context was necessary to determine the eligibility of an expansion to the 1979 nomination of the Minidoka Relocation Center to the National Register of Historic Places. The expansion not only added more buildings to the nomination, it added an additional area and period of significance. After thoroughly researching the potential expansions, it is my determination that the expansion to the Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District is eligible to be listed in the National Register. The expanded Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District is eligible for listing at the national level under Criteria A in the areas of Asian heritage as it relates to the detention of people of Japanese Ancestry during World War II, and agriculture as it

73 NPS, National Register Bulletin 16a, Appendix iv.
relates to the federal government’s creative efforts to promote new farming practices through the FIAD project.
APPENDIX A

1979 NATIONAL REGISTER NOMINATION FORM
NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES
INVENTORY -- NOMINATION FORM
FOR FEDERAL PROPERTIES

SEE INSTRUCTIONS IN HOW TO COMPLETE NATIONAL REGISTER FORMS
TYPE ALL ENTRIES -- COMPLETE APPLICABLE SECTIONS

1 NAME

HISTORIC
Minidoka Relocation Center
AND/OR COMMON
Camp Minidoka

2 LOCATION

STREET & NUMBER
2½ miles northeast of Idaho State Highway 25 on Hunt Road
CITY/TOWN
Hunt
STATE
Idaho
CITY/TOWN
State
Idaho

3 CLASSIFICATION

CATEGORY
DISTRICT
BUILDING
STRUCTURE
DATE
OBJECT
PUBLIC ACQUISITION

OWNERSHIP
PUBLIC
PRIVATE
BOTH

STATUS
OCCUPIED
UNOCCUPIED
WORK IN PROGRESS

PRESENT USE
AGRICULTURE
COMMERCIAL
EDUCATIONAL
PRIVATE RESIDENCE
ENTERTAINMENT
RECREATIONAL
GOVERNMENT
SCIENTIFIC
INDUSTRIAL
TRANSPORTATION
MILITARY
OTHER

AGOENCY

REGIONAL HEADQUARTERS (If applicable)
USDI Bureau of Reclamation, Pacific Northwest Regional Office
STREET & NUMBER
550 West Fort Street -- Box 043
CITY/TOWN
Boise
STATE
Idaho

3 LOCATION OF LEGAL DESCRIPTION

COURTHOUSE
Registry of Deeds
Bureau of Reclamation, Minidoka Project Office
STREET & NUMBER
1352 Hansen Ave., -- Box 549
CITY/TOWN
Burley
STATE
Idaho

6 REPRESENTATION IN EXISTING SURVEYS

TITLE
Idaho Statewide Inventory of Historic Places
DATE
1975

DEPARTMENT OR SURVEY RECORDS
Idaho State Historical Society
CITY/TOWN
Boise
STATE
Idaho
### DESCRIPTION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CONDITION</th>
<th>CHECK ONE</th>
<th>CHECK ONE</th>
<th>CHECK ONE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EXCELLENT</td>
<td><em>UNALTERED</em></td>
<td><em>ORIGINAL</em></td>
<td><em>MOVED</em> DATE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOOD</td>
<td>RUINS</td>
<td>ALTERED</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FAIR</td>
<td>UNEXPOSED</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

DESCRIE THE PRESENT AND ORIGINAL (IF KNOWN) PHYSICAL APPEARANCE

The property being nominated is only a small part of the Minidoka Relocation Center. When the camp was deactivated in 1945, most of the land and property was disposed of by the Bureau of Reclamation. Returning war veterans were granted homesteads on the land and each was given two of the camp's buildings; many farms in the area are still using sheds that were once barracks and warehouses at the center. Most of the residence area is now under cultivation and shows little evidence of its former use as an interment camp.

The nominated parcel is at the camp's entrance where a bridge crosses the Northside Canal. The ruins of two structures, a guard station and visitors reception center (with the original visitors parking lot), lie between the county road and the canal. From this location one can look northward and view the entire camp residence area. The structures consist of concrete foundations with walls of local basalt blocks cemented by concrete mortar. Although in ruins, these are the least altered remnants still in public ownership.
**SIGNIFICANCE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERIOD</th>
<th>AREAS OF SIGNIFICANCE - CHECK AND JUSTIFY BELOW</th>
<th>SPECIFIC DATES</th>
<th>BUILDER/ARCHITECT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1400-1499</td>
<td>ARCHAEOLOGY: HISTORIC</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1500-1599</td>
<td>AGRICULTURE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1600-1699</td>
<td>ARCHITECTURE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1700-1799</td>
<td>ART</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1800-1899</td>
<td>COMMERCE</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1900-</td>
<td>COMMUNICATIONS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950-</td>
<td>INDUSTRY</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1950-</td>
<td>INVENTION</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**STATEMENT OF SIGNIFICANCE**

The ruins of Camp Minidoka, a Japanese-American interment camp during World War II, are tangible reminders of one of the most serious and painful contradictions of our country's philosophy of freedom. Through a nefarious legal fiction, over 110,000 loyal Americans were wrenched from their homes and forcefully detained without due process of law, in bleak, barbed-wire enclosed camps scattered over isolated Inland areas on desolate tracts of Federal land. The concrete slabs, dilapidated shacks, and scattered refuse surrounded by rich farmland—much of it reclaimed by the camp’s inmates, is also a memorial to the suffering and remarkable courage of the Japanese-Americans of that time.

Despite being less than 50-years old, this site represents an exceptional chapter in the history of the United States that should always be remembered. Commemoration of this event should take place before memories fade and the sharpness of the event is dulled by time.

The Japanese-American experience in the United States is marked by their exceptional achievements in the face of extreme resistance by the white majority. Hostility, that for years had been aimed at the Chinese, was immediately directed against the first Japanese immigrants to the west coast in the late 1800’s. The 1870 Naturalization Statute of the United States denied most Asian aliens the right to become naturalized citizens; this forced most Isseis (first generation Japanese in the U.S.) to remain citizens of Japan to retain some official status and representation. Other laws were passed refusing the Issei the right to own land, severely restricting their ability to lease or farm, and forbidding them from working on many State and Federally-funded projects.  

Impetus for this repressive legislation came from numerous white dominated organizations and businesses. Primary among these were the Hearst and McClatchy newspaper chains. Years of vituperative, yellow journalism by these leading publications firmly implanted the seeds of intolerance and distrust of all Asians in the minds of the white majority population. The Japanese in particular were portrayed as mysterious, inscrutable, and latently dangerous. Joining the major newspapers in the demand for the removal of the Japanese was the California Joint Immigration Committee (originally the Japanese and Korean Exclusion League). This powerful group was officially backed by such prestigious organizations as the American

MAJOR BIBLIOGRAPHICAL REFERENCES


GEOGRAPHICAL DATA

ACRES OF NOMINATED PROPERTY: 6.06

UTM REFERENCES

ZONE EASTING NORTING

ZONE EASTING NORTING

VERBAL BOUNDARY DESCRIPTION

The boundary of the nominated parcel is outlined in black on the accompanying 1944 map entitled "Minidoka Relocation Center" and drawn at a scale of 1/4 mile to the inch.

STATE CODE COUNTY CODE

FORM PREPARED BY

NAME / TITLE
Terry Zontek--Pacific Northwest Regional Archeologist

ORGANIZATION
Bureau of Reclamation

STREET & NUMBER
550 West Fort Street--Box 043

CITY OR TOWN
Boise

STATE
Idaho

CERTIFICATION OF NOMINATION

STATE HISTORIC PRESERVATION OFFICER RECOMMENDATION
YES ☒ NO NONE

STATE HISTORIC PRESERVATION OFFICER SIGNATURE

FEDERAL REPRESENTATIVE SIGNATURE

TITLE
Pacific Northwest Regional Director

U.S. Bureau of Reclamation

FOR NPS USE ONLY
I HEREBY CERTIFY THAT THIS PROPERTY IS INCLUDED IN THE NATIONAL REGISTER

SIGNATURE
DATE 7-10-79

ATTEST: ____________________________

SIGNATURE
DATE 7-19-79

KEEPER OF THE NATIONAL REGISTER
Legion, the California State Federation of Labor, California Grange, and the Native Sons of the Golden West. Other Western States were not blameless; they followed California's lead in the campaign against Japanese-Americans.

Instead of driving the Japanese from the United States, the new immigrants adapted to the hostility and consolidated their position. Issei parents purchased land in the name of their children born in the United States (who were U.S. citizens). The agricultural land was often of marginal quality, or in shapes and sizes considered uneconomical by white farmers; but the Japanese-American farmer's skill turned this acreage into commercially successful truck farms. In the cities marketing of these crops was the domain of the Japanese-American. By World War II, this group produced 50-percent of the fruits and vegetables for market, and dominated the retail distribution of produce in southern California.

To protect themselves against the widespread antagonism, Japanese-Americans formed tight-knit communities held together by producer-marketing cooperatives, prefectoral societies (organizations comprised of persons from the same district in Japan), and the Japanese Association. Adding to this structure was the Japanese family with its strong parental control which resulted in low rates of crime, juvenile delinquency, and dependence on public welfare. Within the community there were conflicts and rivalries, but these institutions did not allow them to become apparent to outsiders for fear of criticism or reproach.

The success of the Japanese-American and their model behavior was seemingly changing the old racist ideas implanted in the minds of the general population. In the weeks after the bombing of Pearl Harbor, Japanese-Americans experienced acceptance and support in the Western States. Like everyone else they worried about the Japanese military threat to Hawaii and the west coast, and pitched in to aid in the war effort. Many of the men rushed out to enlist in the armed forces; for example, in Idaho the first person to enlist after Pearl Harbor was a Japanese-American.

However, prejudices were rekindled in the familiar anti-Oriental organizations. White-dominated business and farming groups jealous of the inroads Japanese-Americans had made in the market and covetous of their valuable property, called for the removal of their superefficient competitors. Politicians, eager for a popular issue to carry them through the coming election year, vigorously responded to this ready-made chance to appear as hard-nosed protectors of the populace.

A new force joined the anti-Japanese brigade. The military, who had for years underestimated the power and skill of the Imperial Army, groped for an explanation for the successive crushing defeats of Allied Forces in the Pacific.

Ignoring 10-years of intensive FBI and Naval Intelligence studies which unequivocably vouched for the loyalty of the Japanese-Americans in Hawaii and the west coast, the military establishment began speaking of the "actual or potential threat" posed by this minority. Furthermore, the military had no proof of any espionage or sabotage by Japanese-Americans at Pearl Harbor or in the Western State. This evidence did not compel even one military official to speak in defense of Japanese-Americans when the rumors began to fly about subversion and sedition.

President Roosevelt shared many of the negative views about Japanese-Americans, plus was in the position of having to buoy the Nation's fears. As a result, on February 19, 1942, he issued Executive Order 9066 authorizing the War Department to establish "military areas" from which any person could be excluded and evacuated. Within a month, Japanese-Americans were ordered to leave "Military Area 1" - the entire Pacific coastal region and southern Arizona.

At first each family made their own moving plans and chose their own destination; however, instant resistance from inland states, and great logistical problems immediately stopped the exodus. To cope with the problems, the War Relocation Authority (WRA) was established on March 18, 1942, to construct and administer camps to house all excluded persons for the duration of the war. By the fall of 1942 the entire west coast population of 110,000 Japanese-Americans--70,000 of which were U.S. citizens--had been moved and quartered in ten "relocation centers" located on the deserts and swamps of the American west.

One of these relocation centers, Camp Minidoka, was located in south-central Idaho on 34,000 acres of Bureau of Reclamation land on the sagebrush covered Snake River Slope. The community of Hunt, Idaho, was so created to house the 10,000 evacuees of all ages and occupations gathered from the restricted areas of Oregon, Washington, and Alaska.

The last of the camp's inmates arrived on September 15, 1942, to find a hot, dusty, crowded camp still under construction, but possessing the essential elements of a small American town. A 600-bed hospital, schools, library, social halls, churches, ball fields, fire station, store, theater, and other facilities were spread in orderly fashion over the 940-acre camp area. However, the military-style buildings, high barbed-wire fence, and guard towers manned by armed troops set this community apart from nearby towns.

Original goals were to develop the center into a fully producing farm community, but a change in WRA philosophy to emphasize the placement of evacuees into white communities turned Minidoka into a minimum agricultural development project. Other factors, namely the use of evacuees as contract farm workers by private farmers to alleviate severe labor shortages outside the center, and the opening of the military to Japanese-Americans, combined with the new policy to strip the camp of the younger, more vigorous residents. Nevertheless, 1048.75 acres of desert were reclaimed and planted in a variety of crops before labor shortages forced the cessation of farming in 1945.

Beside farming, the evacuees filled almost all the jobs concerned with the day-to-day functioning of the camp. Japanese-American draftsmen, surveyors, and laborers worked with the Bureau of Reclamation to plan, design, and construct the camp's irrigation system and to maintain the nearby Milner-Goode Canal. Doctors, mechanics, nurses, secretaries, and dentists were just some of the many positions commonly filled by the evacuees—all for the, even then, ridiculously low wages of $12 to $19 per month. For comparison, Axis prisoners of war in the nearby Rupert POW camp received $19.20 for a month's labor in the fields.

Camp living was marked by a lack of privacy and fragmentation of family functions into several locations. These factors resulted in frayed nerves and changes in family relations which caused a weakening of the traditionally strong familial control over individuals. Government policies aimed at resettling the evacuees in regular communities and the military service further eroded normal family life by freeing many young people from the authority of the older generations.

Camp Minidoka closed on October 26, 1945, when the last Japanese-American family was moved out. Most people returned penniless to their old homes as they had either sold their property for next to nothing in the rushed days just before evacuation, or found that it had been sold for unpaid taxes while they were in the center. Economic reparations have never been granted despite the Government's admission that the operation was illegal and totally unnecessary. Nevertheless, Japanese-Americans have recovered remarkably well, with surprisingly little bitterness, and rejoined the mainstream of American life.

Although Camp Minidoka has lost its physical integrity, the scattered remnants remind us of what can happen when our country allows fear and racism to overpower our founding principles of freedom.


# NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES
PROPERTY MAP FORM

SEE INSTRUCTIONS IN HOW TO COMPLETE NATIONAL REGISTER FORMS
TYPE ALL ENTRIES -- ENCLOSE WITH MAP

1 **NAME**
   
   HISTORIC
   Minidoka Relocation Center
   
   AND/OR COMMON
   Camp Minidoka

2 **LOCATION**

   CITY, TOWN
   Hunt

   VICINITY OF

   COUNTY
   Jerome

   STATE
   Idaho

3 **MAP REFERENCE**

   SOURCE
   Bureau of Reclamation

   SCALE
   1 inch = ¼ mile

   DATE
   February 21, 1944

4 **REQUIREMENTS**

   TO BE INCLUDED ON ALL MAPS
   1. PROPERTY BOUNDARIES
   2. NORTH ARROW
   3. UTM REFERENCES
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>NAME</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HISTORIC Minidoka Relocation Center</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AND/OR COMMON Camp Minidoka</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>LOCATION</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CITY/TOWN Hunt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VICINITY OF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COUNTY Jerome</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>STATE Idaho</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>PHOTO REFERENCE</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PHOTO CREDIT Terry Zontek</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DATE OF PHOTO January, 1979</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>IDENTIFICATION</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PHOTO NO 2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interior of Visitors Reception Center
View to South
### NAME

**HISTORIC**

Minidoka Relocation Center

**AND/OR COMMON**

Camp Minidoka

### LOCATION

**CITY, TOWN**

Hunt

**COUNTY**

Jerome

**STATE**

Idaho

### PHOTO REFERENCE

**PHOTO CREDIT**

Terry Zontak

**DATE OF PHOTO**

January, 1979

### IDENTIFICATION

**DESCRIBE VIEW, DIRECTION, ETC. IF DISTRICT; GIVE BUILDING NAME & STREET**

Entrance Post and Visitors Reception Center View to Southwest

**PHOTO NO**

3
APPENDIX B

2015 DRAFT OF UPDATED NATIONAL REGISTER NOMINATION FORM
United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service

National Register of Historic Places Registration Form

This form is for use in nominating or requesting determinations for individual properties and districts. See instructions in National Register Bulletin, No. 16 to Complete the National Register of Historic Places Registration Form. If any item does not apply to the property being documented, write "N/A" for "not applicable." For functions, architectural classification, materials, and means of significance, write only categories and subcategories from the instructions.

1. Name of Property
   Historic name: Minidoka Relocation Center
   Other name/site number: Hunt Camp; see cont. sheet 1
   Name of related multiple property listing: N/A
   (Enter "N/A" if property is not part of a multiple property listing)

2. Location
   Street & number: See cont. sheet 2
   City or town: Hunt
   State: Idaho
   County: Jerome
   Not For Publication: N/A
   Vicinity: n

3. State/Federal Agency Certification
   As the designated authority under the National Historic Preservation Act, as amended,
   I hereby certify that this __nomination__ request for determination of eligibility meets
   the documentation standards for registering properties in the National Register of Historic
   Places and meets the procedural and professional requirements set forth in 36 CFR Part 80.
   In my opinion, the property __meets__ does not meet the National Register Criteria. I
   recommend that this property be considered significant at the following level(s) of significance:
   __X__ national __X__ statewide __X__ local
   Applicable National Register Criteria:
   __X__ A __X__ B __X__ C __D__

______________________________
Signature of certifying official:
Title:
State or Federal agency/bureau or Tribal Government

______________________________
Date

In my opinion, the property __meets__ does not meet the National Register criteria.

______________________________
Signature of commenting official:
Title:
State or Federal agency/bureau or Tribal Government
4. National Park Service Certification

I hereby certify that this property is:

- [ ] entered in the National Register
- [ ] determined eligible for the National Register
- [ ] determined not eligible for the National Register
- [ ] removed from the National Register

other (explain) __________________________

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Signature of the Keeper</th>
<th>Date of Action</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Classification

Ownership of Property

(Check as many boxes as apply.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Private</th>
<th>Public – Local</th>
<th>Public – State</th>
<th>Public – Federal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[x]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Category of Property

(Check only one box.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Building(s)</th>
<th>District</th>
<th>Site</th>
<th>Structure</th>
<th>Object</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[x]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
<td>[ ]</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Minidoka Relocation Center

Name of Property

Jerome County, Idaho
County and State

Number of Resources within Property
(Do not include previously listed resources in the count)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contributing</th>
<th>Noncontributing</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6 buildings</td>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 sites</td>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 structures</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0 objects</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Number of contributing resources previously listed in the National Register _N/A_

6. Function or Use
   Historic Functions:
   (Enter categories from instructions.)
   DEFENSE/
   military facility
   DOMESTIC/
   single dwelling
   ______________________________
   ______________________________
   ______________________________
   ______________________________
   ______________________________
   ______________________________

Current Functions
(Enter categories from instructions.)
LANDSCAPE/Park
7. Description

Architectural Classification
(Enter categories from instructions.)
- Other: US Army
- Other: Vernacular
- Other: Utilitarian

Materials: (enter categories from instructions.)
Principal exterior materials of the property: wood, concrete, metal

Narrative Description
(Describe the historic and current physical appearance and condition of the property. Describe contributing and noncontributing resources if applicable. Begin with a summary paragraph that briefly describes the general characteristics of the property, such as its location, type, style, method of construction, setting, size, and significant features. Indicate whether the property has historic integrity.)

Summary Paragraph

The Minidoka Relocation Center historic district is located in southcentral Idaho, approximately 13 miles northeast of the city of Twin Falls, on State Highway 25 in Jerome County. The North Side Canal marks up the southern border of the district, which encompasses 388.3 acres and matches the borders and acreage of the Minidoka National Historic Site. The district contains ten contributing resources and four noncontributing resources. Significant features include Relocation Center buildings and structures dating to the Japanese internment era, as well as extant buildings and structures from the Soil Conservation Service’s Farm in A Day homesteading efforts in the early 1930s.

(See Cont. Sheet 7.1)
Contributing Resources – 9

Military Police Building – 1942

The military police building was situated at the camp's entrance on Hunt Road just north of the North Side Canal. Constructed in 1942 by internees and a WRA stonemason, H.T. Pugh, the single-story, utilitarian building measured 20' x 10' and was built on a concrete slab foundation.

When it was built, the building had two rooms, each with its own shed style roof. The south room’s shed roof sloped southward, and was taller than the roof of the north room. The walls of the south room are over ten feet high, constructed entirely of uncoursed basalt rock. This room had no windows; originally it was built with a wooden parapet on top to allow daylight in.

Originally the north room had a shed style roof sloping northward. Uncoursed basalt rocks form a roughly 3-foot tall wall base, with the upper wall constructed of wood. The front room faced the road and provided shelter for military police monitoring the camp’s entrance through large windows on the east and west elevations. From historic photos, it appears that the east and west elevations both had two 6-light wood framed windows. A doorway is located on the eastern half of the north elevation. In historic photos, the western portion of the north elevation appears to have multi-light window as well. Flagstone paving adorns the entrance.

The military police building has only a few extant remnants, including basalt walls and wall bases, the interior concrete surface, and some small remnants of interior features. The north room had its roof removed, in addition to the wood portion of the walls and the windows. The south room had its roof and parapet removed.1

In 2002, a pier of basalt rocks in front of the military police building was reconstructed with similar basalt rocks from elsewhere on the site.

(See Cont. Sheet 7.2)

---

5. Statement of Significance

Applicable National Register Criteria
(Mark "x" in one or more boxes for the criteria qualifying the property for National Register listing.)

- A. Property is associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad patterns of our history.
- B. Property is associated with the lives of persons significant in our past.
- C. Property embodies the distinctive characteristics of a type, period, or method of construction or represents the work of a master, or possesses high artistic values, or represents a significant and distinguishable entity whose components lack individual distinction.
- D. Property has yielded, or is likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

Criteria Considerations
(Mark "x" in all the boxes that apply.)

- A. Owned by a religious institution or used for religious purposes
- B. Removed from its original location
- C. A birthplace or grave
- D. A cemetery
- E. A reconstructed building, object, or structure
- F. A commemorative property
- G. Less than 50 years old or achieving significance within the past 50 years
Areas of Significance
(Enter categories from instructions.)

Ethnic Heritage - Asian
Agriculture


Period of Significance
1942-1945:
1952

Significant Dates:
8/10/1942 Camp Opens
10/28/1945 Camp Closed
1/17/1952 FIAD Event

Significant Person
(Complete only if Criterion B is marked above.)


Cultural Affiliation
N/A

Architect/Builder
US Army War Relocation Authority
Morrison Knudsen
Statement of Significance Summary Paragraph (Provide a summary paragraph that includes level of significance, applicable criteria, justification for the period of significance, and any applicable criteria considerations.)

The Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District is an important historical resource that contributes to the interpretation of the home front history during World War II — specifically the experience of people of Japanese ancestry. The Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District is significant as a site of relocation and detention of people of Japanese ancestry during World War II. Additionally, the district is significant because it contains land and buildings that were the result of a Farm in a Day event. Farm in a Day was a small part of the federal government’s efforts to encourage new farming techniques as a conservation measure in the Intermountain West in the post-World War II era. Therefore, the Minidoka Relocation Center achieves significance at the national level under Criteria A for its association with broad patterns of history in the areas of Ethnic Heritage (Asian) and Agriculture.

Narrative Statement of Significance (Provide at least one paragraph for each area of significance.)

Japanese American Relocation

In 1942 following the bombing of Pearl Harbor, the United States relocated Japanese and Japanese Americans, forcing them to leave their homes on the West Coast to live in relocation centers in the western interior where they were detained by the federal government. However, this was not the first injustice imposed on Japanese immigrants by federal and state governments. Institutionalized racism against the Japanese in the United States dates back to the late nineteenth century.

Precedent had been set with sweeping anti-Chinese legislation at both the state and federal level. Between 1849 and 1882, close to 300,000 Chinese immigrants came to North America to work in the gold mines of the West. Many territories and states levied heavier taxes on Chinese people than other groups. California’s 1879 state constitution forbade Chinese immigrants from testifying in court against whites, and they were also banned from certain kinds of employment, and excluded from land ownership. In 1882 the Chinese Exclusion Act stopped Chinese worker immigration to the United States. The restriction stayed in place until 1943, when the Magnuson Act repealed it.  

See Cont. Sheet 8.1

9. Major Bibliographical References

Bibliography (Cite the books, articles, and other sources used in preparing this form.)


See Cont. Sheet 9.1

Previous documentation on file (NPS):

___ preliminary determination of individual listing (36 CFR 67) has been requested
___ previously listed in the National Register
___ previously determined eligible by the National Register
___ designated a National Historic Landmark
___ recorded by Historic American Buildings Survey #
___ recorded by Historic American Engineering Record #
___ recorded by Historic American Landscape Survey #

Primary location of additional data:

___ State Historic Preservation Office
___ Other State agency
___ Federal agency
___ Local government
___ University
___ Other

Name of repository: ___________________________

Historic Resources Survey Number (if assigned): ____________

10. Geographical Data

Acreage of Property 388.3
Use either the UTM system or latitude/longitude coordinates

**Latitude/Longitude Coordinates (decimal degrees)**
Datum if other than WGS84: ___________
(enter coordinates to 6 decimal places)
1. Latitude: ________________________ Longitude: ________________________
2. Latitude: ________________________ Longitude: ________________________
3. Latitude: ________________________ Longitude: ________________________
4. Latitude: ________________________ Longitude: ________________________

Or
**UTM References**
Datum (indicated on USGS map):

☐ NAD 1927  or  ☐ NAD 1983

1. Zone: ________________________ Easting: ________________________ Northing: ________________________
2. Zone: ________________________ Easting: ________________________ Northing: ________________________
3. Zone: ________________________ Easting: ________________________ Northing: ________________________
4. Zone: ________________________ Easting: ________________________ Northing: ________________________

**Verbal Boundary Description**
(Describe the boundaries of the property)

The district’s southern boundary follows the North Side Canal. The western border lies approximately .3 miles west of S 1400 E. The northern border follows an access road roughly .5 miles north of the intersection of Hunt Road and the North Side Canal. The northern border follows the access road until the road turns north; here the border continues in a straight line to the east. The bulk of the district has an eastern border that lies just west of...
Minidoka Relocation Center
Jerome County, Idaho

Name of Property: Minidoka Relocation Center
County and State: Jerome County, Idaho

The district has a small panhandle that extends east to meet 1500 E and south to the North Side Canal.

**Boundary Justification** (Explain why the boundaries were selected)

The boundaries of the historic district match those of the Minidoka National Historic Site administered by the NPS. Much of the land within has been under the jurisdiction of government agencies and has not been altered to a great extent. This area contains the administrative heart of the camp as well as the warehouse area and some residential blocks, making it a good sample of the vast Relocation Center.

11. Form Prepared By

Name/title: Erin Boswick
Organization: __________________________
Street & number: ______________________
City or town: Boise
State: ID zip code: 83705
E-mail: ______________________________
Telephone: __________________________
Date: ________________________________

**Additional Documentation**

Submit the following items with the completed form:

- **Maps:** A USGS map or equivalent (7.5 or 15 minute series) indicating the property's location.

- **Sketch map for historic districts and properties having large acreage or numerous resources.** Key all photographs to this map.

- **Additional items:** (Check with the SHPO, TPO, or FPO for any additional items.)
USGS Topographic Map. 7.5 Minute Series. Hunt Quadrangle, Idaho, Jerome County, 2013.
USGS Topographic Map, 7.5 Minute Series. Twin Falls NE Quadrangle, Idaho, Jerome County. 2013.
Photographs:
Submit clear and descriptive photographs. The size of each image must be 1600x1200 pixels (minimum), 2000x2000 preferred, at 300 ppi (pixels per inch) or larger. Key all photographs to the sketch maps. Each photograph must be numbered and that number must correspond to the photograph number on the photo log. For simplicity, the name of the photographer, photo date, etc. may be listed once on the photograph log and doesn’t need to be labeled on every photograph.

Photo Log:
Name of Property: Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District
City or Vicinity: Hunt
County: Jerome     State: Idaho
Photographer: Erin Bostwick
Date Photographed: 2/11/2014
Description of Photograph(s) and number, include description of view indicating direction of camera:
1. Military Police Building
2. Reception Building
3. Barrack Building
4. Mess Hall
5. Warehouse #5
6. Fire Station #1/Garage
7. Root Cellar
8. Herrmann House
9. Milking Barn
United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service

National Register of Historic Places
Continuation Sheet

Section number 1 Page 1

Name of Property

Minidoka Internment Camp
Camp Minidoka
Hermann, John, Homestead
Location

2 ½ miles northeast of State Highway 25 on Hunt Road

Roughly bounded by the North Side Canal to the south and 1500 E to the east, the district includes the land roughly ¼ - ¾ miles to the north of the canal and 1 mile west from 1500 E.

Minidoka Internment National Historic Site (MIIN)
Narrative Description Summary Paragraph

The Relocation Center originally comprised of 34,000 acres between the North Side Canal and the Minidoka Canal - although the developed area of the center was just 950 acres. Nine of the ten WRA centers were organized based on columns and rows in a compact rectangular shape. Minidoka Relocation Center had a unique layout due to manmade and natural barriers. The southwest border was created by North Side Canal. Basalt outcroppings were a natural boundary to the north and east. The camp is organized as a crescent shape to complement the curvature of the North Side Canal.

When construction was completed at Minidoka, the Relocation Center had thirty-six housing blocks. The hospital area, military police station, administration area, warehouse, and a swimming pool sat between the housing blocks and the North Side Canal. A housing block contained twelve barracks around the mess hall and a combination laundry/bathroom building. Each block also had a recreation hall for religious or educational services.

Currently, there are few original buildings left in the district, due in large part to the temporary nature of Relocation Center construction. The extant buildings and structures from the internment era are found predominately in the entrance area, the warehouse area, and housing block 22. The Farm in a Day properties are concentrated northwest of the warehouse area of the relocation center.

Relocation Center buildings were generally built in the utilitarian style, using modified army theater of operations style structures. They were designed for quick construction and temporary use. The barracks building was commonly used as the basic building unit. Most Relocation Center buildings had timber frames and stood on concrete piers with tar paper walls. The timber frame Farm in a Day buildings and structures were built in the utilitarian or vernacular style.

The buildings that remain are in relatively good condition. The district has integrity of location, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association. The Relocation Center does not retain integrity of design, due to the loss of a substantial number of buildings. With so few remaining resources, the district does not convey the camp’s historic layout and spatial relationships.

---

Narrative Description cont.

Reception Building – 1942

The Reception Building, located 12 feet south of the Military Police building at the entrance to the camp, was constructed by the internees and W.R.A. stone mason H.T. Fugl in the utilitarian style in 1942. The single story, rectangular building measures roughly 14' x 31' long and has a concrete slab foundation. The single room building has a 3-foot tall uncoursed basalt rock wall that formed a base for upper walls of board and batten construction. The upper board and batten portion of the wall is not extant. The building also features a basalt rock fireplace and 16 foot chimney to the east side. The roof, no longer extant, was a low-pitched front gable roof. The number and type of windows on the Reception Building is not clear from the few available historic photographs.

Extant features of the Reception Building include partial-height basalt walls, the basalt fireplace and chimney, the concrete slab floor, hardware remaining from the connection of the wood frame to the basalt walls, and a partial-height basalt wall running between the Reception and Military Police buildings.

The reception building acted as a waiting room for visitors and internees traveling on buses from the center. It was built in conjunction with the military police building.

Barrack – 1942

Although the original location of the barrack within the camp is unknown, it is now sited in Barrack Block 22 for interpretation purposes. Built in 1942, the single story building measures 20' x 130' and has a standard rectangular barrack floorplan typical of the modified army Theater of Operations style. Originally the building was raised 3 feet above ground on a wood post and concrete footing foundation with vertical wood skirt boards. The side gabled roof is made of corrugated metal. The roof has a moderate eave overhang with exposed rafter ends. Three equidistant truncated chimney stacks protrude from the roof on the west elevation. During the period of significance, the building was clad in tarpaper and wooden battens.

The Barrack’s windows are all six-light hopper style windows with wood exterior trim. The west elevation is clad in horizontal wood siding and has fourteen windows six-light hopper style windows with wood exterior trim. The south elevation is clad in wooden shingles. It has a single, wood-trimmed, six-light hopper style window off-center and a square attic vent in the gable. The east elevation, clad in horizontal wood siding, has eleven windows six-light hopper windows and three wooden doors with four-light windows. The southernmost door on the east elevation has a reconstructed staircase and handrail, the middle door has no staircase, and the northernmost door has only a reconstructed staircase. The north elevation, clad in horizontal wood siding, has a rectangular wood attic vent in the top of the gable.

4 "This is Minidoka,” 26.
Typical of internment center barracks, this building originally housed six apartments of varying sizes. After the disbandment of the Minidoka Relocation Center in 1944-45, the Barrack was relocated and used for work camp housing. Typical barracks built at relocation centers had 11 windows on each of the long sides of the building. This Barrack’s reuse as work camp housing probably explains the abnormal number of windows on the west elevation. The Barrack building was later relocated in two pieces to storage, and finally relocated to Barrack Block 22.5

Mess Hall – 1942

The Mess Hall sits perpendicular to the Barrack building in Barrack Block 22. Built in 1942, the single story building was constructed in the modified army Theater of Operations style and measures approximately 40’ x 100’. It is comprised of two basic 20’ x 100’ Barrack building units, clad in tar paper and wood battening. The wood framed building sits on a post and beam foundation. The gambrel roof, clad in asphalt shingles, has a small eave overhang with exposed rafter tails. The wooden windows are six-light hopper style windows with wood exterior trim. The south elevation has eight equidistant windows, interrupted by a wooden door with a four-light window, with two more windows to the east of the door. The west elevation has two sets of wooden doors with four light windows. The east elevation has a window with a set of double wooden doors with four light windows in them. The door has a new set of stairs and handrails leading up to it. The north elevation has an asymmetrical pattern as well – three windows, a wooden door with a wooden screen door, followed by eight more equidistant windows to the right of the door.

Additions include one small gable dormer at the eave edges on the north and south elevations. The original terra cotta chimney installations were roofed over, probably when the building was converted to a canning facility.

In the 1940s, after the Minidoka Relocation Center was disbanded, the building was removed to the Jerome County fairgrounds and used as a community canning facility. The mess hall was relocated back to Minidoka to help re-establish Barrack Block 22. The original location of the mess hall within the camp is unknown.

In 2012, the Western Center for Historic Preservation undertook a window and door rehabilitation project for the Mess Hall. Twenty of the building’s windows were repaired, and two new windows were fabricated with in-kind materials to match existing windows. Five exterior doors and three screen doors were also rehabilitated.6

Warehouse #5 – 1942


4 “Historic Structures Record of Treatment: Fire Station and Mess Hall Window and Door Rehabilitation, Minidoka National Historic Site,” (Western Center for Historic Preservation, 2012), 1.
Warehouse No. 5, built in 1942, sits on a concrete slab and post foundation in the Warehouse/Motor Pool area of the camp. The building is a single story with wood post and frame construction, built in the utilitarian style. The original warehouse had a long, rectangular floorplan that consisted of twenty-one 16' x 16' bays, seven wide by three deep.

At some point after the relocation center was disbanded, the west four bays were removed and the west infill wall was constructed. The extant three bays of the warehouse create a 48' square building which occupies the eastern half of the original 48' x 12' concrete slab foundation.

The roof is a very shallow gambrel roof clad in building paper with a corrugated metal overlay with a wood barge. The walls and roof are both clad in building paper on wood sheathing with wooden battening under a corrugated metal overlay. The corrugated metal layer of roofing and siding was added sometime after the relocation center era.

The south elevation has two sets of double wood sliding doors to allow vehicle access with original concrete entry slabs. The east set of doors are original to the warehouse; the west set of doors were relocated to their current location after the western portion of the building was removed. Originally, the doors had two sets of eight light fixed sashes on each door. Only the lower sets of windows are extant; the upper sets were covered with boards. East of the doors is an original row of three wood framed nine lite windows.

The east elevation has a wood panel door with a concrete entry slab, indicating the original door opening was larger. Above the door is a row of three wood framed, fixed sash, nine lite windows. Near the center of the east elevation is a set of four lite windows, which were added to the warehouse after the original door opening was infilled. Two nine lite windows flank the north side of the center windows.

The north and west elevations have no windows or doors. The west wall is an infill wall built when the building’s west side was removed. The other three walls are original to the warehouse. Outside the building, extant concrete ramps mark the original vehicle entry points to the building.

The interior of the building is defined by an open interior with exposed timber structure, framing, and sheathing. Extant interior features include a central water pump and drain from when the warehouse was used as an auto repair garage.

Concrete entry slabs are extant on the south and east elevations. The concrete foundation for the destroyed portion of the warehouse also remains.

7 Burton, Jeffrey F., and Mary M. Farrel. *This is Minidoka: An Archeological Survey of Minidoka Internment National Monument, Idaho* Publications in Anthropology 80. 2001. 70; Minidoka National Historic Site Warehouse #5 Building Assessments, 1-6; ’Warehouse Building No. 5,' Building Condition Assessment, Minidoka National Historic Site (Fletcher Fari Aycos, Inc., 2002), 3-17.
Fire Station #1/Garage – 1942

Built in 1942, the fire station/garage was located near the crest of a hill adjacent to the Hermann residence, north of the warehouse area. Built in the utilitarian/modified army Theater of Operations style, the single-story building originally served as a relocation center fire station, then as a garage to the Hermann family. The building has a T-shaped plan and is comprised of two segments – a typical barracks attached to a garage. The barracks segment measures roughly 68′x20′, with the garage measuring approximately 29.5′x40′. The cross-gabled roof is created by the intersection of the two segments. Sometime between 2008 and 2014, the shake and corrugated metal roofing was replaced with historically accurate building paper/roll roofing (term from condition assessment) roof. The garage portion of the building has a concrete slab foundation. The barracks portion of the building is elevated on a post and beam foundation with wood skirting covering the crawl space below. Sometime between 2009 and 2014, the building was re-clad in building paper with wood battening.

The east elevation of the building has three large sets of double wooden hinged vehicle doors with a 20′x40′ concrete apron in front of the garage. The garage was expanded to accommodate fire trucks during the relocation center-era on the east elevation. The six foot extension has a shed roof.

The north elevation has two 3/3 wooden framed windows in the gable end or the garage segment of the building. Eight more identical windows repeat on the barracks segment of the elevation.

The west elevation has a wooden pedestrian door with a 2/2 glass pane window in it. Above the door in the barracks gable is a hole where a missing wooden vent would go. On the south side of the door is a 3/3 wooden framed window. The original stairs to the west entrance have rotted away.

The south elevation mirrors the north elevation, with two 3/3 windows in the gable end of the garage portion of the building and eight windows in the barracks portion of the elevation.

Significant interior features include two sets of three head board lockers flanking the entrance to the west hallway that leads to the pedestrian door. The lockers are full-height, with full-height doors. Although the interior pattern of shelving and storage within the lockers may have changed from its original configuration, the exteriors have been largely unaltered.

While the relocation camp was operating, the Fire Station was one of two in the camp, both manned by internees. The station housed fire crews and engines, which responded to any fire emergency in the camp. Firefighters bunked in the station during shifts to ensure quick response. After the camp was disbanded, the Fire Station was repurposed as a garage for the Farm In A Day homesteaders, the Hermann family. They lived in this building briefly while waiting for the FIAD house to be ready. Once the house was completed, the former fire station was used as a farm storage building.8

8 Fire Station Condition Assessment, 4-19
Root Cellar – 1943

The Root Cellar, located southeast of the warehouse area and just north of Hunt Road, was built in the utilitarian style by internees in 1943. The long, rectangular structure measures 200’ x 30’ and is built partially below ground. A windowless single story structure, earth serves as the foundation, the unfinished floor, and partial-height walls. The cellar is of log post and beam construction with a gabled roof. The roof is covered with hay bales, asphalt roll roofing, and topped with sod. Two entryways offer access at the north and south ends of the cellar. Originally, the entrances both had gabled roofs. Currently, the north entrance has a flat roof, while the south entrance still has its original roof style. Both entrances are clad with milled lumber. Two sets of double wooden doors used as part of a passive temperature control system are extant at each entrance.

The interior surfaces are unfinished, with exposed earth floors and walls, exposed log structure, and a skip sheathing and straw ceiling. The log posts are regularly spaced along the length of the cellar in six rows. The posts support log beams that run north-south and log rafters that run east-west. The posts sit directly on the earth or on cement footings, some of which were added during stabilization efforts in 2003.

Originally the cellar had storage stalls. The partitions were comprised of wooden boards. No evidence of the partitions remain except the posts which framed them. The Root Cellar originally had unglazed terra cotta ventilation chimneys regularly spaced along the ridge of the roof.

In 2003, damaged support columns and beams were replaced and/or stabilized, new log posts were installed between some of the original posts to support the roof, four major sections of the roof were raised and re-established, and repairs were made to the entranceway stud walls.

The root cellar was constructed by internees to store potato and root vegetable harvests through the winter and was later used by John Hermann for the same purpose.9

Herrmann House – 1952

Constructed in 1952, the vernacular style Herrmann house was built adjacent to the Fire Station, north of the relocation camp’s warehouse area. The single-story, wood-frame house has a rectangular floor plan, measuring approximately 27’x38’. The house sits on a concrete foundation. It is clad with cedar-shingle siding. The house is topped with a low pitch side gable roof, with gable ends clad in vertical wood siding featuring a vertical vent. The roof, clad in asphalt shingle roofing, has two plumbing vents on the north elevation and two attic vents on the south elevation. It has a moderate overhang on the north and south eaves, with no overhang on the gable ends.

The south elevation of the house has a recessed entry with a wooden front door with an aluminum storm

---

9 Condition Assessment: Root Cellar, 5-22; Minidoka Internment National Monument Cultural Landscapes Inventory, 63; Dan E. Barron, “Root Cellar Emergency Stabilization 2003.”
door. Next to the door is a large, wooden, fixed-pane window flanked by two smaller wooden 1-over-1 double hung windows. Another double hung wood window adorns the portion of the façade that is not recessed. The wooden steps that once led to the front door have rotted away and have not been replaced.

The east elevation has two wood frame double hung windows. The crawl space access hatch is also located on the east elevation.

The north elevation has three wood double hung windows of various sizes in addition to the wooden door and metal storm door. Concrete steps lead up to the back door. Metal handrails were most likely added to the steps after the property was built.

The west elevation has three wood frame double hung windows. Four metal support columns with two connecting beams remain from a metal carport not original to the house that was removed sometime between 2009 and 2014.

The Hermann house was built as part of a Soil Conservation Service “Farm in a Day” experiment. The concept was to attract donations as well as hundreds of community members to help build an entire farm. Over the course of a weekend, most of the 128-acre tract was plowed, leveled, and ditched. Fields were planted, fences were built, and the Hermann house was mostly completed that weekend. This building acted as the Hermann family’s residence on the farm for over fifty years.

**Milking Barn – 1952**

The milking barn was constructed in 1952 from materials recycled from relocation center buildings. It measures 20' x 40' and sits on a concrete perimeter foundation north of the Hermann house. The single story vernacular style barn has a low pitched gable roof covered in building paper. The barn is clad in a combination of horizontal plain boards, tongue-and-groove boards, and ship-lap siding.

The west elevation has two windows, both infilled.

The south elevation has three infilled windows, one of which was truncated so the window did not extend past the end of the new building. The south elevation also has an infilled door.

The east elevation features a large door and window. The siding on the east elevation extends past the edge of the building, evidence that the siding and the framing were recycled from different buildings. When it was used as a milking barn, the east side door opened up to the corridor.

The north elevation has three full windows, two of which are infilled. It also has two truncated windows at the ends, which are also infilled. A doorway is also infilled.  

Significant interior features include the original floorplan of two smaller rooms on the west side of the barn, which open up into a large milking room on the east side. The milking room has a stallion for milking six cows.

The milking barn was constructed during the weekend of the Farm in a Day event. The infill of doors and windows, the mismatched siding materials, and siding that does not match the length of the wall are all evidence of the recycling and adaptation of relocation camp buildings and materials into new buildings. The building was used as a milking barn by the Hermann family for years before it was used as a storage space and workshop. The cow door was sealed, although it is not known when.

Non-Contributing Resources – 6

Parking Lot - 1942

The parking lot is located at the entrance area of the relocation center, adjacent to the military police and reception buildings. Historically, the parking lot was comprised of dirt and gravel. The modern parking lot sits on the same location, but is roughly 1/3 the size of the historic parking lot. The modern lot was paved with asphalt and sidewalks and basalt boulders were added to mark the lot's edges. Currently, it serves as the visitor parking lot for the Minidoka National Historic Site.

Farm in a Day Outbuilding - date unknown

The Farm in a Day Outbuilding, located east of the FIAD Milking Barn, measures 20'x30' with a concrete perimeter foundation. Like the Milking Barn, the outbuilding was made from recycled parts of relocation center barracks in the utilitarian style. The use of recycled relocation center buildings indicates that it was built after the relocation center was closed, but the exact date of construction is unknown. The single story building has a side gabled roof clad in building paper. The roof has a slight eave overhang with exposed rafter ends. The building's south elevation has a wooden door and two wood fixed-pane windows, one of which has been infilled. The west elevation has an infilled rectangular vent in the top of the gable. The building's south and north elevations have a wooden door and two wood framed fixed-pane windows, one of which has been infilled on each side. The building's interior has a vestibule and two rooms, matching the typical layout for two apartments in WPA barracks. The east room has plywood wainscoting, while the west room has wainscoting of tongue-and-groove wood.13


House on Warehouse #6 Slab – date unknown

Located in the warehouse area of the camp on the concrete slab where warehouse #6 once stood is a single story vernacular style house. Possibly a former WRA apartment, the building was moved to the warehouse area and placed on a brick foundation. The building measures approximately 31' x 84'. The side gabled roof is covered with asphalt shingles. The roof's slope features an interior brick chimney. Gable ends are clad in vertical wood siding and have vertical vents at the top of the gable end. The walls of the house are clad in board and batten.

The north elevation has three wood framed double hung windows and one larger sliding window. Concrete steps lead up to the wood door. The south elevation has two wood framed double hung windows and one wood door with a four light window in it. The east and west elevations both have two double hung wood framed windows.

Formerly on Bureau of Reclamation property, the agency performed extensive remodeling on the building. It is not known when the building was built or placed in the warehouse area.  

Duplex on Warehouse #9 Slab – date unknown

Originally a WRA staff housing building this single story building was removed from the staff housing area to the warehouse area where it now sits. The building measures 31.5' x 94' and lies on a 48' x 112' concrete slab where a refrigerated warehouse sat during the relocation center era. The side gable roof is clad in asphalt shingles. Gable ends are clad in horizontal wood siding. The duplex is clad in horizontal wood siding.

A porch area, siding, and roofing have all been added to the building. The building features a mix of vinyl single hung windows and aluminum horizontal sliding windows.

Guard Tower - 2014

The utilitarian style guard tower, reconstructed in 2014, is located close to its original location indicated by blueprints and historic photographs—west of the entrance buildings south of Hunt Road. The wood tower was reconstructed from historic photographs and blueprints. The reconstruction, like the original, is constructed of wood and sits on concrete footings. It has a pyramidal hipped roof covered with wood shingles. The square structure has one small room. The structure is clad in horizontal wood siding. The east elevation has a wood door with a four light window. A full-width wood deck extends out from the façade. The north, west, and south elevations all have large double hung 8/8 wood framed windows.

During the relocation center, the guard tower was used by military policemen to get a good vantage point from which to guard the center. The current guard tower was reconstructed at the center’s entrance in 2014 through collaboration between the NPS, the Friends of Minidoka, Boise State University’s Department of Construction Management, and local farmers and community members.15

Honor Roll - 2011

Interned Nisei were allowed to take leave from internment centers to volunteer for military service as part of the all-Nisei 442nd Regimental Combat Team. The 442nd fought in Italy, France, and North Africa with the 100th Infantry Battalion. Many internees from Minidoka served overseas. The three-panel Honor Roll was built by internees to honor the Nisei men and women from the camp serving in the U.S. Army during the war. On the sign was a quote from President Franklin Delano Roosevelt, “Americanism is a matter of the mind and heart. Americanism is not and never will be a matter of race or ancestry.” Internees also built a garden behind the sign in 1944.

The original Honor Roll, constructed of wood, was destroyed over time. The 3 panel Honor Roll was reconstructed in 2011 based on historic photographs. It was placed in the same location as the original—northeast of the cluster of buildings at the entrance to the center, across Hunt Road.

---

The center panel is large and rectangular, adorned with a painted bald eagle on top. The panels are supported by four wood posts. Two smaller square panels flank the main board. Only some of the names from the original Honor Roll could be deciphered and placed on the reconstruction.16

Narrative Statement of Significance

Significant numbers of Japanese immigrants did not begin arriving in the United States until the 1890s. Roughly half of the Japanese immigrants, known as Issei, pursued agricultural work, while the rest gravitated to urban centers to work in small commercial establishments—often for themselves or other Issei. Anti-Japanese sentiment existed from the beginning of their immigration to the United States, but intensified around 1903 as a result of increased immigration and the Japanese victory in the Russo-Japanese War. The Russo-Japanese War marked the first modern defeat of a western power by an Asian country. Anti-Japanese organizations formed on the west coast and agitated for things like segregation of schools in San Francisco. The school segregation issue exacerbated tensions between the Japanese government and the United States to an extent that it directly led to the Gentlemen’s Agreement of 1907. The Gentlemen’s Agreement was an attempt by President Theodore Roosevelt to smooth things over with Japan. Roosevelt stopped San Francisco from segregating its schools and encouraged the California legislature to quit passing anti-Japanese legislation. In return, Japan agreed to limit emigration to the United States, while the U.S. agreed to allow the immigration of Japanese laborers’ family members. This ironically resulted in a higher rate of immigration of Japanese due to the large number of family members who chose to join laborers already living in the U.S.1

The Gentlemen’s Agreement did not stop the flow of anti-Japanese sentiment. The Naturalization Law of 1870 barred Asian immigrants from becoming naturalized U.S. citizens. This had far-reaching repercussions. Perhaps most importantly, lack of citizenship kept many Japanese from owning land. Beginning as early as the 1880s and continuing on through the post-World War II era, states throughout the West and Midwest passed laws prohibiting non-citizens from owning land. During the time, the “yellow peril” was also propagated in the news media. Asians were portrayed as a political and cultural threat to the U.S. globally and domestically. Paranoid of Japanese American espionage and sabotage soared. Many white Americans competed with Japanese farmers. In the railroad industry, Issei workers worked for low wages, frustrating white workers competing for those jobs. Yellow journalism and economic competition engendered racism against the Japanese all along the West Coast.2

Congress passed a series of immigration laws during this time period restricting immigration to the United States from Asia. The first was the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882. The Immigration Act of 1917 denied immigration to anyone from the “Asiatic Barred Zone” except the Japanese and Filipinos. However, Japanese immigration was already limited by the Gentlemen’s Agreement. The Immigration Act of 1924, also known as the Johnson-Reed Act, barred anyone from immigrating who was “by virtue of race or nationality” ineligible for citizenship. Since Asians were barred from the naturalization process, they were not allowed to immigrate to the U.S. under the new law. The Johnson-Reed Act was the first immigration legislation that explicitly banned Japanese immigration. This violation of the Gentlemen’s Agreement further escalated tensions between the U.S. and Japan.3

---

3 U.S. Department of State, Office of the Historian, “The Immigration Act of 1924 (The Johnson-Reed Act),” Milestones:
After its victory in the Russo-Japanese War, the military might of Imperial Japan caused western powers concern. Just before the U.S. entered World War One, in 1917, the alarming prospect of Germany allying with Japan and Mexico was discussed in the Zimmerman Telegram, a German internal diplomatic communication that was intercepted by British intelligence. In 1927, Japan sent troops into China—however this effort was cut short by the onset of the Depression. Although the Washington Naval Agreement of 1921 limited Japan to a few battleships, by the late 1920s, the Japanese began an ambitious warship construction effort under a new conservative government dominated by military figures. Then, in 1931, Japan invaded Manchuria, declared it an independent kingdom and installed a pro-Japanese government. In 1936, a diplomatic process was begun that eventually resulted in the military alliance of Axis powers in World War Two—Germany, Italy, and Japan. Imperial Japan's blatant territorial expansion and disregard for international agreements ratcheted up distrust Western powers felt toward Japan.⁴

In terms of foreign policy, the U.S. experienced decades of military and political distrust of Imperial Japan. Domestically, the propagation of the “yellow peril” myth, economic competition, limited immigration, and discriminatory land laws, helped to establish prejudices against Asians living in the U.S. It is within this context that the U.S. suffered a devastating military attack at their naval base at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii on December 7, 1941. The Japanese attack inflicted 3,500 American casualties. The U.S. declared war against Japan on December 8th, 1941. That same day, Presidential Proclamation 2525 specified that Japanese aliens could be apprehended and removed as enemy aliens. Soon after the attack, the Justice Department arrested 1300 Issei, identified as enemy aliens, who were considered subversive and dangerous. Many of those arrested were community leaders and local businessmen. American branches of Japanese banks were also closed, further impacting the Japanese American community. Distrust of the Japanese community on the West coast was growing stronger—reports of subversive activities were mounting as was the paranoia and fear regarding Nikkei espionage.⁵

In February of 1942, the General in charge of the Western Defense Command, John L. DeWitt, recommended that people of Japanese ancestry be moved from the West Coast based on military necessity. Under pressure from military leaders in an atmosphere of heightened paranoia and racism, President Franklin D. Roosevelt signed Executive Order 9066. The Executive Order was explained in a report by the WRA completed shortly after the war ended:

Executive Order No. 9066 cleared the way for a commanding general to exclude individuals or groups of individuals, regardless of their citizenship, from any region he might designate. The language of the order was devised to avoid the appearance of discrimination against any specific racial or national group, but there was no pretense on the part of Government officials or on the part of the press that the executive order was intended for any purpose other than to effect the...
exclusion of the Japanese from the West Coast.\textsuperscript{7}

The area comprised of the western halves of California, Washington, and Oregon, in addition to the southern portion of Arizona, was designated Military Area #1. People of Japanese ancestry in Military Area #1 were encouraged to voluntarily relocate out of the restricted area. Thousands of people with Japanese ancestry did in fact relocate voluntarily, only to be met with hostility in their new communities. On March 7, 1942, the War Relocation Authority (WRA), a civilian agency, was created by Executive Order No. 9102. The WRA's mission was to create a plan to effectively remove the people designated under Executive Order 9066 from the military areas created by the Secretary of War. The WRA was also charged with their relocation, maintenance, and supervision of detainees. If possible, the WRA was to provide for the employment of relocated Japanese at "useful work in industry, commerce, agriculture, or public projects."\textsuperscript{8}

The WRA quickly recommended that General DeWitt cease uncontrolled, voluntary evacuations. A curt and travelling limits for people of Japanese ancestry in Military Area No. 1 were in place. Soon after voluntary evacuation was ended, the first involuntary evacuations of people of Japanese ancestry began. General DeWitt issued Civilian Exclusion Order No. 1, which required all people of Japanese ancestry to evacuate from the militarily sensitive area of Bainbridge Island, Washington. This process was repeated along the West Coast until eventually over 110,000 Japanese Americans were evacuated from the exclusion area.\textsuperscript{9}

The WRA became involved in the process of relocation, implementing a standard removal procedure. Evacuees were to report to collection points known as Civil Control Stations near their homes. From the Control Station the Army transported them to Assembly Centers. Eventually fifteen Assembly Centers were in use up and down the West Coast, primarily in California (See Figure 11). Assembly Centers were located at old fields, racetracks, work camps, mills, and livestock exhibition buildings. They were intended to be temporary accommodations while the evacuated waited to be moved to one of the ten Relocation Centers. The conditions at the Assembly Centers were poor—some only had latrines, while others utilized hastily-constructed livestock stalls as living quarters. However, most evacuees at Assembly Centers lived in hastily-constructed barracks buildings in the "Theater-of-operations style." The barracks were divided into 20' x 20' living quarters. Existing buildings were used as mess halls, offices, and warehouses. The Assembly Centers were often surrounded by barbed wire fences and patrolled by armed military police.\textsuperscript{10}

By August 7, 1942, the West Coast Japanese had all been evacuated to Assembly Centers or Relocation Centers. By November 3, 1942, the transfer to Relocation Centers was complete. At this


\textsuperscript{10}Morgan, Historic Resource Study, 106-107.

Military Area No. 2 was evacuated as well. WRA Relocation Centers were built in seven states—usually on underutilized federal land in sparsely populated areas. Relocation Centers were intended to be self-contained communities. They were to include hospitals, post offices, schools, warehouses, offices, factories, fire stations, and residential areas—generally surrounded by barbed wire and guard towers.7

The ten Relocation Centers all had the same general layout and design based on a grid system of blocks. Residential blocks had ten to fourteen barracks buildings, one mess hall, latrines for men and women, a laundry, and a recreation hall. Administrative blocks, warehouse areas, and military police areas were generally separate from residential blocks. The Relocation Centers typically had a main entrance leading to a local highway, with access roads to agricultural areas on the perimeter. Some of these roads were paved, but most were simple dirt roads.8

The built environment at the relocation centers presented a unique construction quandary. The War Department wanted to build something quickly that was not permanent. “Theater-of-operations” style barracks seemed the best solution. However, the buildings had to be suitable for habitation by women, children, and the elderly. A compromise was reached in the standard set by the Army, which modified the theater-of-operations style to make them more comfortable for families while fulfilling the requirements of being low cost, quick-building, and limiting the use of critical materials.9

Typical Army barracks were 20’ x 120’ with six rooms or “apartments” of different sizes in order to accommodate families of varying sizes. Each apartment was separated from the next with a partition, but the partition extended only to the eaves, leaving a gap between partition walls and the roof. Barracks were generally of timber beam construction, with wood battening and a layer of plaster. A rectangular wooden vent covered the gable ends, a common Army construction detail. Raised floors were constructed of wooden boards. Windows were either sliding square windows or double hung windows with divided lights. Even though construction standards were set, relocation centers differed slightly due to local interpretation of plans and use of local contractors for construction.10

The barracks was the basic building unit at relocation centers. Most relocation center buildings are barracks buildings with slight modifications. Recreation halls were very similar to barracks, except they measured 20’ x 100’ and did not have interior rooms partitioned. Mess halls were essentially a double-wide barracks, measuring 40’ x 100’ with an added kitchen, storage area, and scullery. Administration buildings were also based on the barrack unit, with a white clapboard exterior instead of the tarpaper exterior.

Life in relocation centers was a shock to people of Japanese ancestry evacuated from the Pacific Coast. Weather conditions at the camps were much more volatile than the temperate coastal climate to which most detainees were accustomed. Dust was also a menace. The act of disturbing the soil by buildings hundreds of buildings within a very short period of time caused extremely dusty conditions at most of the relocation centers. Dirt roads turned into mud pits with heavy rains. The residential blocks

---

13 Burton et al., Confine and Ethnicity, 40-41.
14 Burton et al., Confine and Ethnicity, 41.
15 Burton et al., Confine and Ethnicity, 43.
16 Burton et al., Confine and Ethnicity, 43.
had such stark monotony, detainees made efforts to personalize and improve their space. One popular way of improving the area they lived was by making small gardens in front of their living quarters.  

The camps began to slowly grow into fledgling communities. School systems were built and each camp had its own newspaper. Popular pastimes included baseball, swimming, cards, and the game Go. Some detainees worked in agricultural fields to help cultivate food for the camp. The WRA set up a system by which the detainees could govern themselves to a limited degree by electing community councils with representatives from each residential block. This was intended to facilitate communication between WRA officials and detainees. However, the councils did not work as envisioned. They lacked any real power or authority. Their implementation also helped to widen a generational gap between Issei and Nisei by only allowing Nisei to serve on councils, therefore muting the voice of the older Issei generation in the camp community.  

There were extremely limited opportunities for approved leave from the camp—all of which were predicated on the individual being demonstrably loyal to the United States. Over 4,000 students were allowed to leave assembly and relocation centers to attend college. However, the students still faced obstacles. The government offered them no financial assistance for school and many schools refused to admit the Japanese American students. Agricultural workers could also be eligible for leave for seasonal work. Detainees could be hired by agricultural companies experiencing an industry-wide labor shortage due to the war. This relationship was highly beneficial to the agriculture industry in the Intermountain West, especially the sugar beet industry. Some detained women volunteered for the Red Cross or became nurses to meet the wartime shortage. Eventually, the government allowed detained men and women to volunteer for military service as well.  

Although Nisei men had been eager to volunteer for military service, the government had not yet allowed them to serve. In February of 1942 that policy changed when volunteers for military service were called from the relocation centers. The first wave of volunteers numbered 1,200 Nisei. Nisei volunteers were placed in a segregated unit, the 442nd Regimental Combat Team, comprised entirely of relocation center volunteers. In 1944 the 442nd was combined with the 100th Infantry Battalion, a battalion comprised mostly of Japanese Americans who were expelled from the Hawaiian Territorial Guard and the Hawaiian units of the National Guard following Pearl Harbor. Together, the combined 100th Battalion/442nd Regimental Combat Team became one of the most decorated units in the U.S. Army. In a unit of 4,000 men, they earned over 18,000 individual citations and over 9,000 casualties in the European theater. The sacrifice of volunteers was honored at relocation centers with the construction of Honor Rolls, listing the men and women who were serving their country.  

Detainees in relocation centers expressed resistance by staging protests and strikes. The severity of protests varied. Some took the form of relatively mild actions, like circulating petitions for the removal of the barbed wire fence at the Heart Mountain Relocation Center. Others were more serious At Manzanar, military police fired tear gas at a disruptive crowd of detainees protesting the arrest of an interned who attempted to expose corrupt camp operators. The incident ended with military police firing

---

17 *Japanese Americans in World War II*, 40; Burton et al., *Confinement and Ethnicity*, 45.
into the crowd of protestors; two detainees were killed and at least ten others were wounded in the incident. Draft resistance was another form of protest that a few hundred detainees engaged in.\footnote{Japane
s Americans in World War II, 50-51.}

Resistance to relocation was also present in the legal system. In 1943, Hirabayashi v. United States came before the Supreme Court. The court decided that it was constitutional for the military to apply a curfew to a specific group of people based on military necessity. Korematsu v. United States was decided in December of 1944. In a split decision, the court upheld the government's right to exclude people of Japanese ancestry from the West Coast. In Endo v. United States, the Supreme Court unanimously decided that the WRA did not have the authority to subject a loyal U.S. citizen to the indefinite leave procedure. This decision effectively freed the remaining Japanese living in relocation centers without having to address the issue of the constitutionality of the government holding citizens without cause in wartime.\footnote{Burton et al., Confinement and Ethnicity, 58; Japanese Americans in World War II, 55.}

On December 17, 1944, the day before the Korematsu and Endo decisions were announced, the War Department announced that the exclusion order on the West Coast would be lifted as of January 2, 1945. At that time there were still approximately 80,000 detainees living in relocation centers. Roughly 35,000 had been released already for military service or through WRA leave clearance.\footnote{U.S. Department of the Interior, War Relocation Authority, WRA: A Story of Human Con伴随on, (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1948), 142.} Some detainees left immediately, while others were more reluctant. By the early summer of 1945, most of the centers were stripped of amenities and mostly empty of detainees. Eventually, the WRA was forced to evict a small number of detainees after giving them a two-week eviction notice, then a three-day notice, and finally a 30-minute notice. Those who refused to leave were forced onto trains. The WRA provided each departing detainee $25, train fare, and meals for the trip for those with less than $300 cash. Resettling detainees turned out to be a logistical nightmare. Many had lost most of their possessions and money upon internment, and had no place to return home to. Returning detainees experienced housing shortages in Los Angeles and the San Francisco Bay area. Detainees that did relocate back to the West Coast faced intolerance from locals. In total, roughly 57,000 detainees returned to the former exclusion zone after leaving relocation centers; 52,000 moved to other parts of the U.S.; 3,000 remained in Department of Justice custody.\footnote{Burton et al., Confinement and Ethnicity, 58-57; War Relocation Authority, A Story of Human Con伴随on, 149-152.}

After the relocation centers closed, most of the remaining property was turned over to the government agency that had administered the land before the war—most commonly the Bureau of Reclamation (USBR), the Farm Credit Administration, and the Government Land Office. WRA lumber and equipment was sold off. barracks were put into stand-by with their doors and windows nailed shut. At Minidoka Relocation Center, the land reverted back to the Bureau of Reclamation. The USBR had a lottery system for allotting homesteads to veterans. Many of the leftover buildings were given to the homesteaders. The remaining buildings were used in other USBR projects in Idaho. What was not used was sold or destroyed.\footnote{NPS, Cultural Landscapes Inventory, 51-52.}

Rebuilding their lives and attempting to re-integrate into American society was a challenge for

\begin{footnotesize}
\begin{itemize}
  \item \footnote{Japanese Americans in World War II, 50-51.}
  \item \footnote{Burton et al., Confinement and Ethnicity, 58; Japanese Americans in World War II, 55.}
  \item \footnote{Japanese Americans in World War II, 56-57; War Relocation Authority, A Story of Human Con伴随on, 149-152.}
  \item \footnote{Burton et al., Confinement and Ethnicity, 58; NPS, Cultural Landscapes Inventory, 51.}
  \item \footnote{NPS, Cultural Landscapes Inventory, 51-52.}
\end{itemize}
\end{footnotesize}
former detainees. They suffered serious property and wealth loss. Talks of financial reparations began almost as soon as the relocation centers closed. Japanese Americans became geographically scattered as a result of dispersal from relocation centers. New centers of power emerged in the Japanese American community. In 1932, the McCarran-Walter Immigration Act passed. Among other things, the McCarran Act removed racial barriers from U.S. citizenship, making Asian eligible for naturalized citizenship. It also put immigration quotas in place for every country, allowing a small quota for Japanese immigrants.  

After decades of debate regarding reparations for former detainees, President Ronald Reagan signed the Civil Liberties Act of 1988 into law. This landmark law acknowledged the unfair removal and confinement of people of Japanese American ancestry during World War II. It called for public education programs to spread knowledge and awareness of relocation. Additionally, restitution payments were made to detainees. In 1992 President George H.W. Bush signed the Manzanar National Historic Site Act into law, which established a historic site at the former Manzanar Relocation Center to be administered by the NPS. A theme study was also called for to identify other sites that reflect the wartime experience of Japanese Americans.  

Area of Significance—Associations with Broad Patterns of History: Ethnic Heritage, Asian  

The Minidoka Center Relocation District is significant on a National level for its associations with the broad patterns of history in the area of Asian ethnic heritage. The district has a period of significance from 1942-1945, when it was used by the U.S. government as a Relocation Center for people on the West Coast of Japanese ancestry. The district represents the culmination of prejudices felt by Japanese immigrants and Japanese Americans on the West Coast dating back to the 19th Century. The nine extant buildings and structures at the district reflect bleak conditions detainees were forced to live under during World War Two as a result of prejudice and hysteria. The Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District represents one of only ten WRA Relocation Centers built.  

Farm in a Day (FILD)  

After the Minidoka Relocation Center was closed, the land reverted back to the Bureau of Reclamation (USBR). In June of 1947, the first land lottery in Jerome was held. The lottery included 43 farm lots totaling roughly 3,500 acres of the former relocation center. 16 of the 42 original parcels had been partially or completely developed by detainees at the Relocation Center. Most of the lottery participants were veterans, as they were given a 90 day advantage to bid on buildings. Each farm would have between 75 and 170 acres of farmland with access to irrigation canals. Despite the significant starting advantage, homesteaders were required to move in within six months and live on the land for three years, cultivating 1/16th of the land. In April 1949 a second land drawing was held for nine farmsteads averaging 80 acres a piece. Each homestead was granted two 20' x 120' barracks and one smaller building. They were also given surplus personal items from the WRA. Despite the significant  

38 *Japanese Americans During World War II*, 51-59.
starting advantage, homesteaders still required significant capital to build a farm practically from scratch. The farmers also suffered from undeveloped roadways, lack of schools, and a lack of homesteading laws in the areas they settled. The first few years, homesteaders worked to clear the barrack area, remove rubble, and establish their ranches. In the early 1950s, 94 more farms, totaling 10,464 acres, were opened for homesteading. 39

One of the winners of the land lottery, John Hermann, was granted 128 acres of land within the site of the former Relocation Center. The parcel contained one of the former Relocation Center’s water towers, a fire station, a baseball diamond, a sewage treatment area, residential blocks 21 and 22, and parts of other housing blocks. Hermann also “inherited” the Relocation Center’s Root Cellar, built by detainees. Although Hermann was granted the land, in 1950 he was recalled to active duty, which delayed the development of his homestead. 40

While on duty, he received a letter from the Soil Conservation District (SCD) in Idaho. Conservation districts are subdivisions of the state government with locally elected governing bodies. In 1939 the Idaho Soil Conservation Commission was created to address the issue of soil erosion as a result of the Dust Bowl. According to archeologists Jeffery F. Burton and Mary Farrell, the Soil Conservation Districts use

...state, federal, and private sector resources to solve conservation problems, assisting landowners with conservation management of natural resources through education (including demonstration projects), technical assistance and financial incentives. 31

The SCD wanted to use John Hermann’s land for an experiment — Hermann’s land was ideal because it had never been farmed before. Hermann specifically was chosen because he was a veteran of World War II and the Korean War. Additionally, due to his service in 1951, he was behind his neighbors in the development of his homestead. The district wanted to use the Hermann farm to demonstrate different machinery and display new soil conservation practices. The latest examples of land leveling, land curves, soil classification, and crop-specific irrigation and row spacing would be demonstrated on the Hermann farm. 32

Farm in a Day was a rarely-used publicity stunt put on by SCDs. The Hermann Farm project was put on by the North Side Conservation District and the Jerome County Farmers Equipment Dealers Association. The Hermann farm was an ideal candidate for a Farm in a Day because the farm was behind development-wise and because the farm had an oiled access road, an abundance of parking, and was centrally located in southern Idaho. The site could accommodate the hundreds, if not thousands, of Idahoans the SCD hoped to attract to the event. 33

The goal of the Farm in a Day experiment was to showcase new techniques and equipment, but the result was a working farm built by community members over the course of a couple of days. The

---

32 Burton and Farrell, “Farm-In-a-Day Property,” 8.
Minidoka FLAD project was heavily advertised in local newspapers. Community members were encouraged to come out to the farm to volunteer their labor for the project. The proposed schedule covered ten hours a day and set a frantic pace. The day’s activities included woodlot and rose planting, land leveling and planing, chiseling, concrete pipe and rise installation, weed control discussion, land leveling, plowing, harrowing, discing, haying, seeding grain and fertilizing, alfalfa, grass and pasture seeding, corrugating and ditching, pipeline and water control structures, fencing, woodlot and rose planing, a break for lunch and a program including a concert put on by a local high school band, pond and silo trap construction, waste pump and steel pipe, trenching for pipeline, culverts, wheat grass seeding, fish and wildlife management, post treating and corrals, graveling roads, landscaping and windbreaks, home building and furnishing, freezer demonstrations, and a soils exhibit.  

The FLAD project was an exceptional event in rural southern Idaho— and was exceptional among FLAD projects in other parts of the country. The Minidoka FLAD project was the only FLAD project that occurred on land that had never been farmed before. Over 11,000 Idahoans attended the Farm in a Day spectacular on April 1, 1938. Some came only to find that there was no work for them to do—the project enjoyed a labor surplus. The materials donated were numerous. Trees, roses, shrubs, clothesline poles, chicks, feed, fencing, pipes, corrals, the use of over 100 pieces of machinery, and much more were all donated for the FLAD effort. That day, Hermann’s 128-acre tract was plowed, leveled, and ditched. Fields were planted and the National Guard built a fence around the property. The Hermann house was also almost entirely built on Saturday, the concrete foundation having been poured the previous day. Other farm buildings were made from converted barracks buildings from the Relocation Center. The chairman of the project, Emery Shellenbarger, claimed that the buildings, soil preparation, seeding, and irrigation, in addition to the free labor, increased the farm equity by $50,000.

John Hermann was not the only beneficiary that day—the event was, in fact, intended as a teaching tool. The Soil Conservation District brought in 1,500 people to demonstrate the new land use techniques to area farmers. The SCD hoped that the FLAD project could spread this information to many farmers all at the same time, saving them the expense of visiting each farmer individually. Attendees of FLAD could watch as workers demonstrated various conservation techniques. Demonstrators communicated with the crowds via mobile sound trucks.

Although the FLAD farm was a great gift to the Hermann family, they were never able to subsist on the farm alone. John Hermann worked another job in addition to the farming to support his family. While the Hermann family was grateful for the FLAD experience, they did incur unforeseen costs as a result of the project. They were also the subject of nearby envy—Hermann felt that his neighbors always considered him to be someone who got everything for free. In reality, Hermann’s out of pocket costs for the farm’s startup totaled more than $14,000. In 2001, when Minidoka Internment National

---

56 Roberts-Wright, Hunt for Idaho, 223; Meigs, Historic Resource Study, 159.
Monument was designated, Herrmann began negotiating with the NPS to exchange his farm for another. In 2008, the HIAD land was transferred to the NPS.  

Area of Significance—Associations with Broad Patterns of History: Agriculture

The Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District is historically significant on a national level under National Register Criteria A — associations with broad patterns in history – for its association with the Soil Conservation Service’s Farm in a Day event. The period of significance is 1952, when the Farm in a Day event occurred. The Farm in a Day event was part of an effort by the Soil Conservation Service to educate western farmers about new farming practices that would conserve the soil. The Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District reflects this history through three extant buildings built or used by Farm in a Day participants.

Integrity

Integrity is difficult to assess for the Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District, and most properties associated with the relocation of Japanese Americans, due to the purposefully temporary nature of relocation center buildings. In the National Historic Landmark theme study for Japanese Americans during World War II, the author suggests that sites with exceptional significance with few extant above-ground resources depend more on integrity of location, setting, feeling, and association. The other three aspects of integrity—design, workmanship, and materials—“may be evaluated with less rigor because of the exceptional national significance.” With that in mind, the Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District does achieve most of the aspects of historic integrity.

Location

The Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District retains integrity of location. The district is 72.22 acres, situated within the 900-acre core of the Relocation Center. The core, which contained most of the center’s built environment, was surrounded by approximately 33,000 acres used for farming and various other activities to sustain the Relocation Center. The current district is located in what used to be the Relocation Center’s entrance area, administrative area, warehouse, and housing areas.

Design

Integrity of design is not retained at the Relocation Center, due mostly to lack of extant buildings to convey the center’s overall style and plan. Design is defined as “the combination of elements that create the form, plan, space, structure, and style of a property.” The Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District only has a couple of extant buildings in each area of the former Relocation Center. With so few buildings extant, the district does not offer visitors a sense of the Relocation Center’s original layout, nor does it convey the monotonous and impersonal qualities of the center.

---

99 National Park Service, National Register Bulletin 15: How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation (US Department of Interior, revised 1997), 44.
Setting

The Relocation Center retains integrity of setting. During the years of significance, 1942–1945 and 1952, the area that surrounded the current district was farmland and sagebrush. The setting has changed little since that time. While the Relocation Center was in operation, the detainees farmed thousands of acres surrounding the 900-acre core of the camp. Those areas are still under cultivation today. The district retains its geographical isolation as well as its high-desert setting, characterized by wind, dust, and plentiful sagebrush.

Materials

The Farm in a Day buildings in the district retain incredible integrity of materials. The buildings stand nearly exactly as they were built—either from scratch or from other existing buildings—in 1952. The Relocation Center buildings have fewer original materials remaining, although the NPS is making efforts to replace historically inaccurate materials with more historically accurate materials in-kind with the originals. In total, roughly half of the contributing buildings and structures in the district have integrity of materials. Therefore, as a whole, the district does not retain integrity of materials.

Workmanship

Workmanship, in the case of the Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District, refers to the ability of the extant buildings to showcase the “craftsmanship” that went into building the Relocation Center buildings. Although some of the buildings in the district have been altered, most still convey the temporary and quick-building aspects of the Relocation Center’s built environment. The buildings associated with the FIAD experiment also have integrity of workmanship because they showcase the ways in which Relocation Center buildings were reused for homesteading purposes.

Feeling

Feeling is defined as “a property’s aesthetic or historic sense of a particular period of time.”40 The Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District retains integrity of feeling by successfully conveying the bleak, isolated, and uncomfortable conditions of the Relocation Center. The stark rural landscape of the district also conveys the historic feeling of agricultural life and homesteading in the post-World War II homesteading era.

Association

Integrity of association, defined as “the direct link between an important historic event or person and a historic property,”41 is retained at the district. The extant Barracks and Mess Hall buildings convey the district’s association with the relocation and detention of people of Japanese ancestry during World War II. The Hermann House and Milking Barn convey the association between the site and the federal government’s special project to educate farmers that manifested as a fully functioning homestead built in little more than a day’s time.

---

40 National Park Service, National Register Bulletin 15, 45.
41 National Park Service, National Register Bulletin 10a: How to Complete the National Register Registration Form (US Department of Interior, 1997), Appendix B.
Summary

The Minidoka Relocation Historic District, significant from 1942-1945 and in 1952, was originally constructed to house relocated Japanese Americans during World War Two. Eight extant buildings and structures in the district contribute to the district's historical significance. The extant built environment embodies the treatment of Japanese immigrants and Japanese Americans on the homefront during World War Two. Secondly, the District is significant for its embodiment of the federal government's unique efforts to teach western farmers about new farming techniques that would conserve soil in the post-World War Two era. The Farm in a Day event took place in 1952 on land formerly part of the WRA Relocation Center. Three Farm in a Day buildings are extant and convey the history of the district. The Minidoka Relocation Center Historic District is nationally significant under Criteria A, associations with broad patterns of history, due to its association with Asian ethnic history and agricultural history. The district retains integrity and offers good examples of the built environment in relation to these areas of significance.
Bibliography


144

United States Department of the Interior
National Park Service

National Register of Historic Places
Continuation Sheet

Section number 9 Page 2


Tamura. “Gardens Below the Watchtower.”


Western Center for Historic Preservation. Historic Structures Record of Treatment: Fire Station and Mess Hall Window and Door Rehabilitation, Minidoka National Historic Site. 2012.

BIBLIOGRAPHY


Western Center for Historic Preservation. *Historic Structures Record of Treatment: Fire Station and Mess Hall Window and Door Rehabilitation, Minidoka National Historic Site.* 2012.
