

**National Register of Historic Places
Determination of Eligibility Report,
Bacon Island Rural Historic District,
San Joaquin County, California**



PAR ENVIRONMENTAL SERVICES, INC.

June 1993

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Cover Photograph: George Shima demonstrating the one-horse plowing method, ca. 1919
(source: Ira Brown Cross collection, Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley).

**NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES
DETERMINATION OF ELIGIBILITY REPORT,
BACON ISLAND RURAL HISTORIC DISTRICT,
SAN JOAQUIN COUNTY, CALIFORNIA**

Final Report

by

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submitted to

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ABSTRACT

In August of 1992 PAR ENVIRONMENTAL SERVICES, INC., conducted an extensive investigation of 13 sites on Bacon Island that were identified during an earlier Phase I survey of four delta islands. The purpose of the Phase II work was to assess the resources in terms of National Register of Historic Places criteria (36 CFR 60.4). The project was carried out under contract to Jones & Stokes Associates, Inc., in order to satisfy federal and state regulations regarding the environmental process. Delta Wetlands, a California corporation, proposes to store winter flows of water and develop seasonal wetland waterfowl habitat on four islands in the Sacramento-San Joaquin River delta, one of which is Bacon Island.

Twelve of the 13 sites identified during the Phase I survey of Bacon Island were constructed around 1915 by well-known Japanese entrepreneur George Shima. In addition, one of Shima's camps was used as a landing before 1900. The thirteenth site served as the headquarters for the ferry operator and later the bridge tender during the heyday of farm activity on the island and was also built by Shima. Most of the Bacon Island sites are still in use today as farm labor camps and, in some cases, remain in Japanese American ownership. Other resources considered during the Phase II work include a pumphouse, siphons, a ditch system, and agricultural fields.

The evaluation phase focused on identifying and assessing the historical landscape on the island, and on the resources contained within the landscape. Methods used during the investigation included extensive archival research, comparative research, and oral interviews to develop island contexts, and pedestrian and windshield surveys on Bacon Island and nearby islands to examine similar resource types.

Research results indicate that the entire island should be considered a historical landscape or district that includes elements relating to both land reclamation and maintenance and subsequent farming efforts. Properties included within the district consist of engineering, agricultural, architectural, and archaeological resources. Combined, these resources represent an integrated view of an agricultural system that has remained intact on Bacon Island for more than 75 years.

Bacon Island Rural Historic District appears eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places under Criteria A, B, C, and D for the following reasons: 1) it is a representative example of reclamation and agricultural endeavors relating to Japanese Americans between 1913 and 1942; 2) it was used by and associated with George Shima, a pivotal figure in Japanese American history; 3) it is an example of a type of landscape (seen in spatial organization of features and camps) and architectural style not seen in the delta today; and 4) it contains archaeological materials, particularly Japanese manufactured items, with comparative value. While some alterations have occurred since 1942, the district as a whole retains a remarkable degree of integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and

association. It represents one of the last examples of early farming ventures in the delta and is important at a state level.

Current project plans would impact the rural landscape evident at Bacon Island. A programmatic agreement (PA) among the State Historic Preservation Officer, Advisory Council on Historic Preservation, the United States Army Corps of Engineers, and the State Water Resources Control Board is currently being prepared and will provide guidelines for treatment of the landscape as a whole, and of individual structures, camps, and archaeological resources. The implementation of the plan outlined in the PA will result in detailed recordation and treatment of the important resources found within the Bacon Island Rural Historic District.

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INTRODUCTION

Project Description

Delta Wetlands, a California corporation, proposes to store winter flows of water and develop seasonal wetland waterfowl habitat on four islands in the Sacramento-San Joaquin delta (Bacon and Bouldin islands and Holland and Webb tracts). The islands are all located within Contra Costa and San Joaquin counties, west and north of Stockton, California. The water would be pumped from the islands into the delta in summer for sale for beneficial uses. During fall, the islands would be managed as waterfowl habitat where private waterfowl hunting would be permitted. Delta Wetlands proposes to strengthen the levees on the perimeters of the four islands, construct new interior levees, install additional water siphons and pumps, and manage wetland vegetation.

The California State Water Resources Control Board (SWRCB) is the lead state agency for environmental compliance under the California Environmental Quality Act (CEQA). The United States Army Corps of Engineers (Corps) is the lead federal agency under the National Environmental Protection Act (NEPA). A joint environmental impact report/environmental impact statement (EIR/EIS) is being prepared by Jones & Stokes Associates (JSA), a Sacramento-based environmental planning firm.

The proposed project involves both state and federal permits. Under CEQA, the SWRCB must consider the effects of permit issuance on cultural resources. The Corps 404 permit requires compliance with the provisions of the National Historic Preservation Act (NHPA) of 1966, as amended (16 USC 470-470w). This law and governing regulations promulgated by the Advisory Council on Historic Preservation for the protection of historic properties (Title 36 CFR Part 800) require the consideration of potential effects of the proposed undertaking on historic properties (i.e., those resources determined eligible for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places [National Register]). The Advisory Council on Historic Preservation must also be afforded a reasonable opportunity to comment on the project.

Project Background

In order to fulfill federal and state regulations regarding the environmental process, JSA contracted with PAR ENVIRONMENTAL SERVICES, INC. (PAR), in 1988 to perform Phase I archaeological and architectural investigations on the islands. The Phase I fieldwork concentrated on surveying a sample of all land and structures, visiting all historically documented locations, and identifying any prehistoric or historic archaeological sites, isolated artifacts, features, or buildings on the four islands. PAR identified 25 sites and 22 isolated features and artifacts on the four islands during the survey. Thirteen sites (including 117 standing structures) were located in San Joaquin County on Bacon Island (Maniery and Syda 1988) (Figures 1, 2) and are the subject of this document.

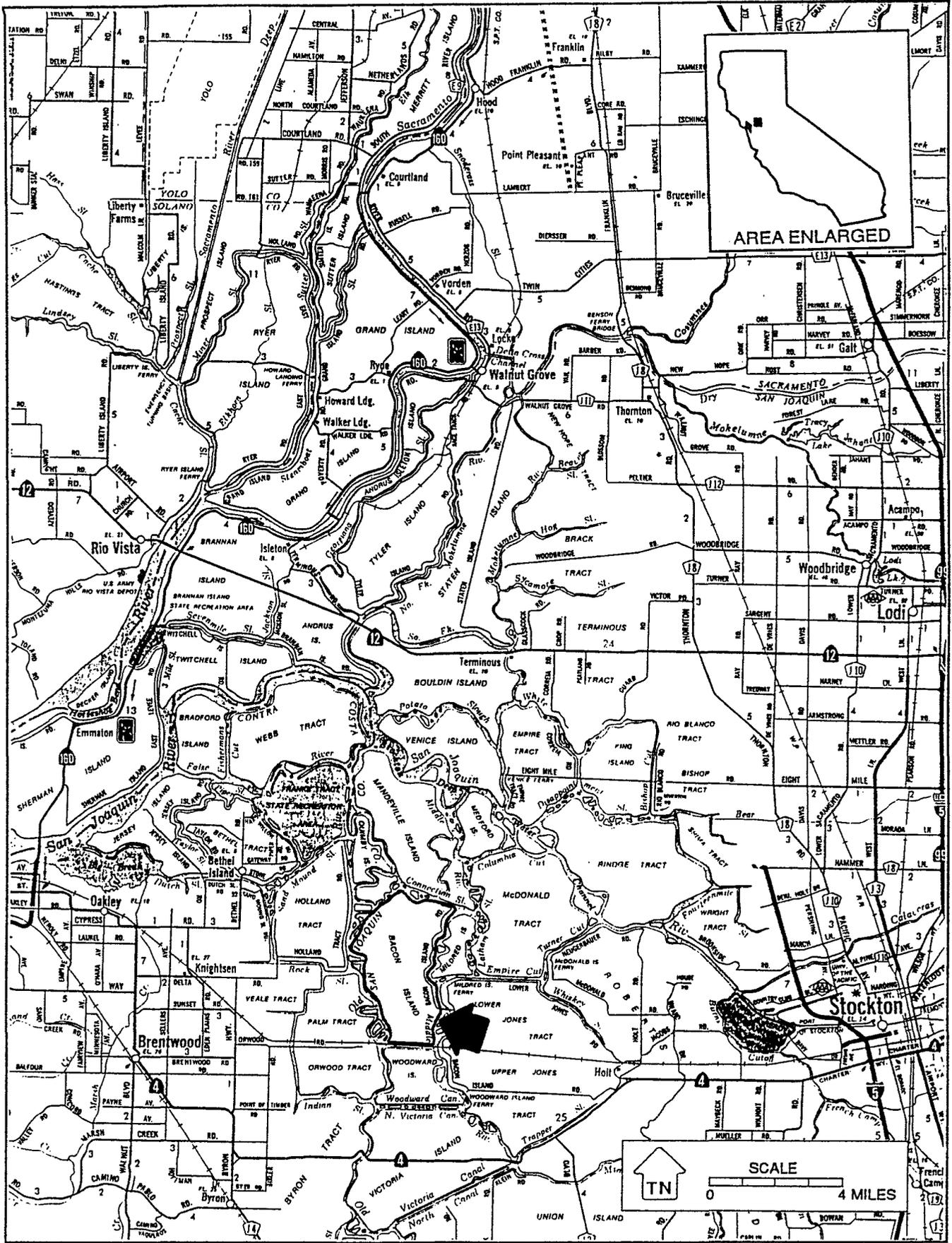


Figure 1. Vicinity Map

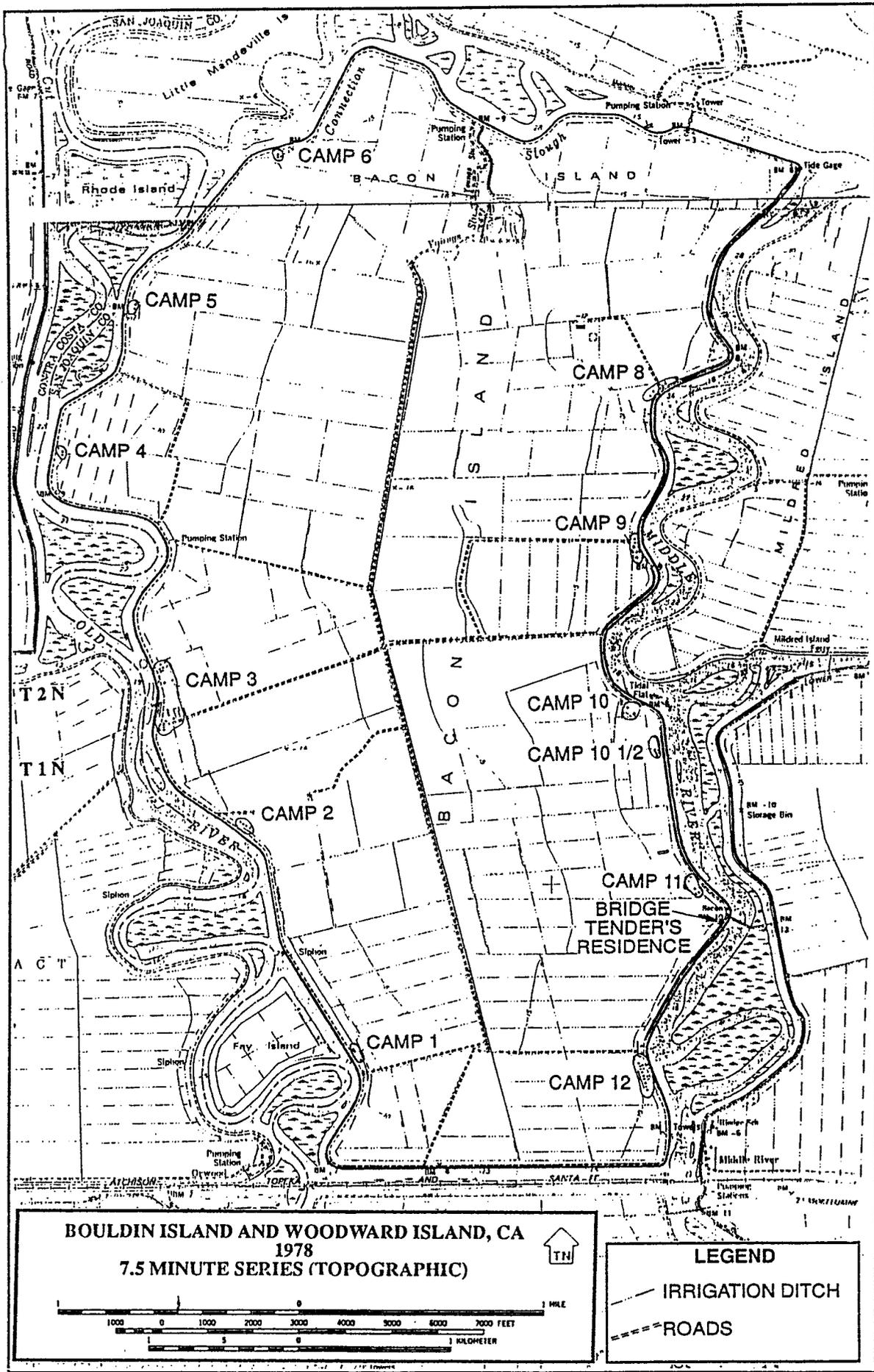


Figure 2. Bacon Island Cultural Resources

Twelve of the 13 sites were constructed around 1915 by well-known Japanese entrepreneur George Shima. In addition, one of Shima's camps was used as a landing before 1900. The thirteenth site served as the headquarters for the ferry operator and later the bridge tender during the heyday of farm activity on the island. Most of the Bacon Island sites are still in use today as farm labor camps and, in some cases, remain in Japanese American ownership.

Preliminary evaluations conducted by PAR in 1989 indicated that the 13 resources and associated structures on Bacon Island might be eligible for inclusion in the National Register for 1) their association with the development of agriculture in the delta, 2) their use by Japanese American laborers and their association with George Shima (a renowned Japanese American entrepreneur instrumental in establishing the delta as an agricultural center), 3) their architecture, and 4) the potential value of the archaeological deposits at several of the Bacon Island resources (Maniery and Syda 1988). PAR also suggested that the island might qualify for the National Register as a historical district based on the relationship of the camps with the engineering features on the island and the surrounding cultural landscape. Further assessment work was recommended in the Phase I document.

In 1992 JSA asked PAR to prepare a determination of eligibility report for the resources on Bacon Island. The purpose of the Phase II work was to assess the resources in terms of National Register criteria (36 CFR 60.4). Extensive archival research, oral interviews, comparative research, and fieldwork were conducted during the Phase II investigations of Bacon Island. Results of this research and an assessment of the significance of Bacon Island are presented below.

NATURAL AND CULTURAL SETTING

Environmental Background

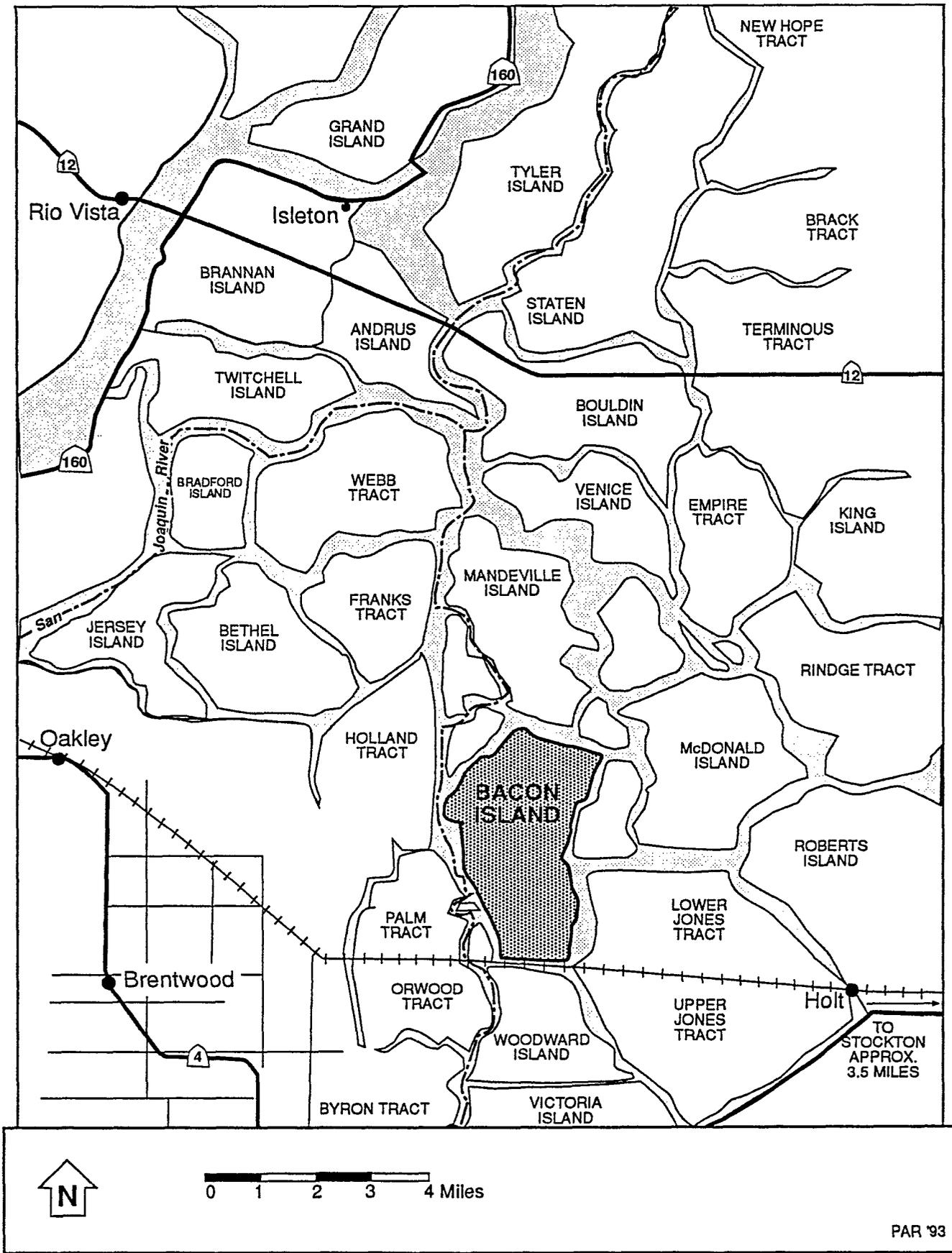
Prior to the Pliocene flooding of the San Francisco Bay (approximately 11,000 years ago), the present day delta was part of a large river valley of the Lower Sacramento and San Joaquin rivers. The environment was entirely different than today, with oak woodlands and savannah bordering the rivers. With the advent of the Pliocene period, sea levels rose, flooding the lower part of the Sacramento Valley. The rivers slowed their flow to the sea and deposition of inorganic and organic matter increased, slowly forming the delta marshland. The marshland, being at or below sea level, contained a variety of ecological zones cut by many sloughs and meanders. Numerous sand mounds provided high spots throughout the marshes (Desgrandchamps and Chavez 1984; Hackel 1966:217-238).

Reclamation of the delta marshes began in the 1850s but reached its peak in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. During this time levees were built, the marshes were drained, and the subsequent reclaimed land was utilized for agriculture, pasture lands, and recreation (Figure 3). Intensive agricultural use has resulted in land subsidence caused chiefly by intensive pumping of ground water and oxidation of peat lands (Poland and Evenson 1966:239-248). Today the islands support a variety of crops including potatoes, sunflowers, onion, asparagus, and corn; in addition to food crops, Bacon Island contains vineyards.

Historical Context

The delta region has been occupied longer than many regions of California, but its early history is sketchy because of the unique physical characteristics of the delta's wetland environment. The inland waterways of the delta are a maze of marshland islands composed primarily of sand and covered with layers of loam from repeated inundation and layers of organic peat soil resulting from the decomposition of the characteristic tule vegetation. Early efforts at charting the region were hampered by the continuously changing appearance of the landforms as they were either exposed or inundated by changing water levels.

Early settlement of natural delta land by both native and Euroamerican groups was limited to scattered sand mounds and natural banks of higher elevation that occurred throughout the otherwise wet and uninhabitable area. Native prehistoric and ethnographic populations made use of the elevated sand mounds in the region (Bennyhoff 1977; Levy 1978; Waugh 1986). The first Euroamerican inhabitants of the delta occupied areas along the more accessible banks of the rivers. Drier parcels of land were used for cattle ranching and cultivating summer crops, while the river channels were used as transportation routes to market cities (Paterson et al. 1978:5, 17-18).



PAR '93

Figure 3. Delta Islands

Historical use of Bacon Island, as with the delta region as a whole, has centered around reclamation and agriculture. While recreational use of the waterways and islands has gained importance in the second half of the twentieth century, it did not play a crucial role in the early history of the region.

Initial Settlement and Reclamation: 1850-1900

The Swamp and Overflow Land Act was passed in 1850, transferring delta lands from federal to state ownership and officially opening the region to settlement (Thompson and West 1879). American settlers, then referred to as "tule hoppers," moved onto the drier and more accessible areas along the rivers, but did not begin to purchase larger amounts of land until the second half of the decade (Chu 1970:23). In 1855, the State Legislature enacted a law for the purchase of swamp lands by individuals in lots of 320 acres (Paterson et al. 1978:5).

Initial efforts made by individual owners to reclaim their land were on the whole unsuccessful; the history of reclamation in the delta indicates that this enormous task generally required a larger amount of capital expense and labor than individual owners could normally provide. In 1852 and 1853, farmers attempted to hold back flood waters by building small, irregular banks referred to as "shoestring" levees, but their efforts proved futile against anything more than high tides (Chu 1970:23; Thompson 1957:208-210). Groups of individuals or companies were soon formed in order to acquire larger holdings, and the maximum individual parcel of 320 acres was doubled to one section (Paterson et al. 1978:5).

In the winter of 1860-1861, most of the islands in the delta region were reportedly inundated in a severe flood (Thompson 1957). Rio Vista, the only port town in the delta that was regularly visited by commercial steamers, was swept away in the flood (Waugh 1986:19). In the following year, the Arkansas Act provided a mandate for the state legislature to aid in the reclamation of the delta lands by organizing districts and appropriating swamp land funds for levee and dam construction (Paterson et al. 1978:5).

After 1868, prospective land owners were able to acquire an unrestricted acreage of swamp land. Investment in such land began to draw the interest of corporate land speculators and wealthy entrepreneurs from San Francisco who had benefitted from the gold rush trade. George T. Roberts (Roberts Island), Henry Bacon (Bacon Island), James Haggin (Staten Island), T. H. Williams (Victoria Island), and the Sargent brothers of Bouldin and King islands were just a few of the individuals who, on their own or in collaboration with a company of others, began an organized effort at reclamation for ranching or agricultural purposes in the 1860s (Paterson et al. 1978:6-20).

Henry Bacon, Sherman Day, and S. C. Hastings purchased a 9,000-acre tract of land from the Tide Land Reclamation company in 1872, with the purpose of reclaiming the land and selling it for profit. A levee was constructed around the island in that year, and Bacon burned the vegetation on the reclaimed island and planted his first crop during the winter of 1872-1873.

The levee lasted only six months or so; it broke in June 1873, destroying Bacon's crop (Paterson et al. 1978:14).

Bacon and Day once again began levee work on the island. Over the next five years they tried many methods of levee construction, including driving piles into the river, using brush mattresses to tie levees together and protect the outer levee surface, and using mud from the river bottom, held together with posts and boards, to form levees. The interior of the island was cross-leveled to separate Day's western holdings from Bacon's east side property. According to Thompson (1957:251), this was a common technique during this period as insurance against flooding from a neighbor's land. Day's Landing was established on the west side of the island; Bacon also owned a landing (Paterson et al. 1978:14-15; Punnett Brothers 1901, 1907; Rose 1895).

Methods used by Bacon and Day on Bacon Island were those employed throughout the delta in the 1870s. Generally, various methods of scraping and soil transportation were utilized for the construction of early levees. Horse-drawn scrapers or dredges pulled soil from the river or sloughs into a levee channel, which was often formed by driving wooden piles into rows in an effort to contain the soil that formed the levee (Paterson et al. 1978:10-16; Thompson 1957:262-264).

Nearly all of the landowners also recognized the advantage of having a source of cheap, hard working manpower, and therefore used Chinese labor for some or all of their levee and dam construction. A corresponding decrease in railroad construction, for which Chinese labor was also extensively used, resulted in an ample work force for reclamation in the late 1860s (Chu 1970:23). These Chinese laborers became the major work force for the levee project (Chan 1986; Leung 1984:15; Maniery and Costello 1986:38).

There is some indication that Chinese were employed by Bacon, Day, and Hastings in the reclamation efforts that occurred on Bacon Island. A note written to Henry Bacon from Sherman Day in June 1873 noted that "George the foreman" had arrived from Middle River and reported "all safe and quiet there, . . . Ah Sing has finished his job on the boundary." Day's note was written from Day's Landing, his home on Bacon Island (Day 1873).

S. C. Hastings, one of the early owners of Bacon Island in the 1870s, said of the Chinese:

I think the Chinaman has been, so far as developing some of the resources of California is concerned, indispensably necessary, as in the reclamation of our submerged lands. I have spent more than fifty thousand dollars in the reclamation of these submerged lands. I have done it with Chinamen [United States Congress 1877].

Most of the work performed by Chinese in the delta was completed through a contract labor system first established for railroad construction work. Generally, one English-speaking

Chinese acted as foreman and interpreter, hiring and paying laborers and overseeing completion of a job. Men were hired through tong associations located in nearby towns or cities; Walnut Grove, Stockton, and Sacramento in particular provided hundreds of workers. Lodging was usually provided by the developer at the job site. The foreman hired a cook, and the cost of board was deducted from each man's pay (Chinn 1969:57; Leung 1984:15-16; Thompson 1957:260-261).

After providing the intense physical labor needed to construct the levees and waterworks for reclamation of an island ranch, the Chinese proceeded quickly to agricultural labor, usually working the fields for tenant farmers who leased ranch land from larger incorporated enterprises operating on an absentee basis (Chan 1986; Minnick 1988; Waugh 1986:24). The same contract labor system used during levee construction was in place for agricultural work. The camp dwellings, often two-story wood frame buildings, were generally provided by the landowner or tenant farmer, as were horses, tools, and seed (Chu 1970:26; Paterson et al. 1978:16).

The vast majority of the Chinese in California in the 1860s had immigrated from the Pearl River delta in the Kwantung Province in China (Leung 1984) and they adapted quickly to the marshy living conditions and frequent wash-outs in the delta. They soon became the predominant group in the delta, followed closely by the Portuguese and Italians (Chu 1970:24-27). After Japan lifted its restriction on emigration in 1866, small numbers of Japanese laborers joined the Chinese in the delta. This group did not, however, begin to rise in importance until after 1900 when the Chinese labor force began to decline in response to the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882 (Chu 1970:26; Thompson 1957; Waugh 1986:25).

The decline of the Chinese labor force in the late 1890s coincided with the decline of the 1860s and 1870s levee system. The deposition of silt in the Sacramento delta as a result of upstream hydraulic mining activities caused rising water levels in the delta. This, combined with the restricted flow of water over the lowland as a result of leveeing, proved disastrous. Early levees constructed from peat soil were prone to sinking, cracking, and breaks and nearly every year the high waters of winter and spring resulted in breaches around the perimeters of many islands. The exorbitant cost of levee maintenance caused many of the San Francisco companies who had purchased the swamp land districts in the 1860s and 1870s to move their invested monies elsewhere rather than fight the continual floodwater of the rivers. By the turn of the century, large tracts of land in the central delta, including Bacon Island, had reverted to their pre-1860s stage, used only seasonally for pastureland or farming, if at all (Thompson 1957:261).

Final Reclamation and Farming: 1900-1926

Permanent reclamation of the delta region began in direct response to the invention of various dredging machines in the late 1800s that were capable of digging and building large levees. Clamshell, hydraulic, and steam-driven dredges allowed for levees to be constructed using river bottom sediment instead of the unstable interior peat soil, decreasing the problems of shrinkage, cracking, and breaking. Clamshell dredges, in particular, cut the cost of levee

construction from \$20 to \$50 per acre in the mid 1880s to about \$15 to \$20 per acre in the early 1900s (Thompson 1957:283).

In conjunction with the construction of levees, drainage ditches and minor irrigation canals had to be dug on each island. Initially, these ditches were dug by hand; by 1918 mechanical ditch diggers were in an advanced state of development and had begun to replace the manual laborers. A ditcher removed a strip of soil two feet deep by 10 inches wide at a rate of 30 to 60 linear feet per hour; in a 24-hour period one of these machines could do the work of 800 men. Before 1920 ditches were regularly cleaned of vegetation using knives, potato hooks, or cutting tools dragged by horses; after 1920 mechanical backhoes replaced the hand and animal labor force (Thompson 1957:273).

An important part of land reclamation in the delta was the ability to dry out the soil and keep it from saturation. During the levee construction phase, sluiceways and gates were built to allow captive water to be released from the islands at low tide. This drainage system worked well during normal water flows, but broke down during flood periods when seepage onto the islands was accelerated. Spring planting often had to be delayed until the soil dried out, and crops were sometimes ruined when the peat became saturated (Thompson 1957:275-276).

Farmers in the delta began experimenting with pumps as early as the 1870s, but it wasn't until after 1900 that they were successful. The first pumps were powered by horses and were quickly replaced with steam-driven machines. Steam-powered centrifugal pumps were put into use near Walnut Grove by 1885 and soon began appearing on various islands around the delta. The pumps were housed on piling-supported foundations to protect against flooding and usually cost less than \$20,000 to install (Thompson 1957:279).

The pumps became instrumental in draining land and were sometimes mounted on barges to pump water off islands as levees were being constructed. Once the levees were firm, permanent pumping stations and boilers were installed on the islands. Soon after 1900 electricity was introduced into the delta and steam-powered pumps became obsolete (Thompson 1957:279).

By 1905 to 1906, electric pumps were the most widely used in the delta, and by 1920 steam-powered pumps had disappeared from service. Electricity was provided by a network of lines that was extended across all islands and throughout the delta region. Installation of electric lines peaked between 1911 and 1915 (Thompson 1957:279-282). Electric lines connected the two pumps on Bacon Island by 1917 (Widdows 1917).

While the cost of setting electric poles in peat soil and transporting electric transformers was high, once the pumps were installed maintenance and fuel costs were low enough compared to other types of pumps that the initial expenditure was justified. Early pumps required an engineer, a fireman, and the transportation of fuels; these costs were eliminated with the electric pumps. Like their predecessors, pumps were installed on heavy pile frameworks to protect them from possible flood waters (Thompson 1957:280-282).

Constructing levees, installing pumps, and establishing a drainage/irrigation system of ditches required substantial financial capital, consolidated ownership of large tracts of land, and competent engineers. While several companies began reclamation projects after 1900, one of the most successful and well-known companies was organized by three men: Lee Phillips, George Cochran, and Frederick Rindge (Tinkham 1923:323). Based in Los Angeles, these men began buying tracts of land in the delta as early as 1902, with the intention of draining the islands and reselling the newly acquired farm land for a handsome profit. Initially, the three men established separate companies for each island (e.g., Holland Land and Water Company, Webb Land Company). By 1907, Phillips had parted with his partners and had consolidated the separate companies into the California Delta Farms Company (McGroarty 1921:20-22; Thompson 1957:235). It was through the efforts of Phillips that Bacon Island was finally leveed around 1915 (Walker 1992:134) (see Figure 3).

Phillips's company obtained the unreclaimed land, built levees, and then leased the holdings to Asians and Anglos for reclamation and farming purposes. The creation of productive farmland from the reclaimed islands was an expensive and time consuming process. Generally, it involved clearing off vegetation and breaking up the virgin organic or mineral-organic soil. Fire was the cheapest method of eliminating the tule remnants, but was also chancy; peat soil burned and, once lit, was often hard to extinguish. Experiments to break up the soil with horse-drawn equipment—and later with steam plows, steam traction engines, and mechanically powered equipment—also proved successful (Thompson 1957:289-191).

GEORGE SHIMA, THE POTATO KING

One of Phillips's biggest customers between 1902 and 1926 was a Japanese man by the name of George Shima. Born in 1864 in Jurume, Fukuoka Prefecture, Japan, Shima (née Kinji Ushijima) was the son of a government official. Ushijima was educated in various schools in Japan and had a background in agriculture. In 1888 Shima emigrated to the United States with \$1,000 in his pocket, given to him by his father. Possessed of a sharp mind and quick learning abilities, Shima went to work immediately as a laborer in the potato fields of San Joaquin County. He worked in the fields on river ranches for three years, studying American planting methods during the day and American business conditions and customs at night (Hata and Hata 1986:56; *San Francisco Call* March 10, 1912; Tinkham 1923:323; Walker 1992:128).

As he worked, Shima added to his initial \$1,000, trying to earn enough money to become independent. After three years he entered into a partnership with an American farmer, leasing 60 acres of land and planting beans. By 1893 he was on his own, having leased his own parcels and bought horses, equipment, and implements (*San Francisco Call* March 10, 1912, pg. 6).

Shima met with great failure initially. In 1896, after three years of losses, all of his farming belongings, including livestock, was seized by creditors and he was left with nothing. An American friend, who admired his stamina and optimism, even in the face of bankruptcy, came to his aid and purchased new equipment for Shima. In a 1912 interview, Shima remembered the following:

whenever I have needed money I have always found some American friend to help. . . . I never made written contracts . . . I keep my word . . . if anyone breaks his word with me I have nothing more to do with him [*San Francisco Call* March 10, 1912, pg. 6].

Shima's integrity, hard work ethic, and farming techniques stood him in good stead and his fortune increased rapidly after 1896.

Shima chose potatoes as the most likely crop for him to grow. He had studied potato farming techniques for years and had learned that many of the potatoes raised along the river and in the delta were too watery to compete with others on the market. After trial and error he discovered that the reason for this lay in the saturation level of the land at the time of planting; the drier the field the better the potato. In 1897 and 1898 he made his first profit, and with every successful season began to lease more land (Naka 1913; *San Francisco Call* March 10, 1912, pg. 6).

Shima began with 150 acres of leased land and rapidly increased this to over 1,000 acres. A flood in 1901 ruined his crop and he again lost both his principal and profit. This time, however, he was able to retain his farming equipment and began over again. In 1902 he grew a successful crop, but market prices were low; the years 1903 to 1905 also brought small profits. Shima's farming luck began to change for the better in 1906 when potatoes were scarce elsewhere. A temporary setback occurred in 1907 when a major flood swept through the delta and wiped out many people; Shima lost over \$160,000 in that year. This, however, appears to have been the last year of bad luck for the enterprising Japanese farmer (*San Francisco Call* March 10, 1912, pg. 6; Walker 1992:129).

Shima joined forces with Lee Phillips around 1902, beginning a good friendship and business relationship that lasted the remainder of his life. According to a newspaper quote that appeared in the *Stockton Record* in 1951, Phillips recognized Shima as a producer and Shima realized that Phillips had financial backing and knew how to use it to his advantage (Walker 1992:130). Usually, Phillips acquired ownership to land, built levees and ditches, and secured an island. He then leased it to Shima, usually under an oral agreement and a hand shake. Shima then provided labor and equipment to burn off vegetation, prepare the land for planting, and farm. Usually, Shima was interested only in virgin peat soil; after three years of farming the land no longer yielded quality potatoes (Walker 1992:130). Between 1908 and 1920 virtually every island reclaimed by Phillips was farmed by Shima (Thompson 1957; Walker 1992:134).

Shima's experiments in the delta received little attention until 1906. In that year he dug over three million bags of potatoes on his leased land, setting new records in the region and gaining nationwide attention. A lengthy article appeared in the *Central California Record* on December 26, 1906, noting that Shima leased nearly 8,000 acres of land and was making a killing off of his potato crops. Follow-up articles in the *Record* appeared on December 29,

1906, and January 19, 1907. This newspaper was the first to dub him "The Potato King," a label that remained with him until his death.

The years following the release of the article until World War I were Shima's best, both personally and professionally. In 1907, a year of flooding, ruined crops, and bankruptcy among farmers, Shima grossed \$450,000 because many of other potato farmers in the delta lost their crops, increasing the demand for Shima's. Generally, he made considerable profit from 1907 on, and continued to reclaim and lease thousands of acres of land (Walker 1992:134). Although Shima made a personal profit in 1907, nationwide agitation against Japanese immigrants was escalating at this time, primarily through the lobbying efforts of white supremacist groups, labor organizations, and some California politicians. In 1908, after nearly a year of campaigning, a "Gentleman's Agreement" was signed between the United States and Japan. This agreement curtailed further immigration of laborers from Japan, although wives and children of laborers were allowed into America (Waugh and Yamato 1980:162).

Personally, 1908 was a pivotal year for Shima. In January, the Issei (Japanese Americans born in Japan) in California organized the Japanese Association of America (JAA), headquartered in San Francisco. George Shima was elected president of this national association, a position he held until his death. Generally, the Association, and all of its regional branches, had several responsibilities. As outlined in Naka's 1913 thesis (1913:36), the JAA

- had charge of all social affairs relating to Japanese in the district;
- acted as a general information bureau;
- registered all Japanese in America;
- recorded the value of property, acreage of farms, numbers of families, births, deaths, and marriages;
- certified all reports or permissions/requests to be submitted to the Japanese consul in San Francisco;
- cooperated with the Consulate General of Japan in San Francisco for the betterment of the Japanese condition in California and the nation.

The local chapters of the JAA often took it upon themselves to regulate the behavior of Japanese within their jurisdiction in attempts to downplay their role in the local community and to prevent trouble from anti-Asian leagues (Walker 1992:135).

As president of the JAA Shima worked continually to enhance the image of Japanese among the Angloamerican communities and press. Beginning in 1908 he annually entertained buyers, politicians, and reporters at year-end parties, taking them by launch to his islands for dinner, entertainment, and speeches. One newspaper article related that the 1909 menu was

"thoroughly American" and entertainment consisted of exhibitions of sumo wrestling and broadsword dueling. The night ended with a moving rendition of the Star Spangled Banner (*Central California Record* October 16, 1909).

Shima also promoted the local economy of the delta. He, in partnership with Lee Phillips and others, financed the construction of the Stockton Hotel. In 1910 Shima was part of a group that organized the Fall Potato Festival in Stockton, as a way to promote the area's main crop. Apart from contributing money to this venture, Shima provided one free baked potato to every visitor at the festival (Walker 1992:137).

As president of the JAA, Shima met with leaders of the Japanese government often to discuss the future of immigrants in the United States. He also met with American legislators and officials and coordinated meetings between the Japanese government officials and their American counterparts. Through his role in the JAA Shima became the most influential and important national Issei leader and spokesman of his day (Walker 1992:128, 137-138).

Shima's visible position and popularity may have indirectly led to perhaps the biggest anguish of his career: the passing of the California Alien Land Act in 1913. Until 1910 Shima's fortune was based on leasing land from Phillips and developing crops. In 1910, however, Shima purchased his first delta ranch, a holding of over 800 acres on the east edge of the delta. In 1911 he purchased another 800-acre farm in the delta and became a stockholder in Phillips's California Delta Farms. According to an article that appeared in the 1912 Special Booster Edition of the *Byron Times* (pg. 81), Shima owned more than 5,100 acres of prime, reclaimed farmland by that time, as well as a fleet of barges used to transport the sacks of "Shima's Fancy" to market. The publicity received from these land purchases played into the hands of anti-Asian groups, who increased their lobbying for laws to prohibit Asians from owning land (Walker 1992:139-140).

By 1912 momentum was building in the state capital against Asian groups, particularly the Japanese. Report after report was issued, discussing the number of acres farmed by Japanese as opposed to other groups and estimating the number of jobs "taken" from Anglos by Japanese. Despite hard politicking by Shima, Phillips, and others, the law was enacted early in 1913. Generally, the law stated that persons ineligible for citizenship were also ineligible to own land. It also limited leasing property to three year intervals (Bunje 1957:10-13; Pajus 1937:49). Unlike many Issei farmers, Shima's personal stock and land acquisitions were protected because they were acquired before the law passed. As always, however, Shima worked tirelessly for rights of all Japanese living in California, not just for himself (Walker 1992:140-141).

Immediately following passage of this law, Shima met with a committee composed of delegates from district JAA branches to discuss the ramifications of the Alien Land Act and to explore any possible countermeasures. As a result of this meeting, Shima and a companion, journalist Kyutaro Abiko, traveled to Washington, D. C. to meet with the Japanese ambassador and plead for help from the Japanese government. The ambassador was not encouraging and suggested that the best they could do was launch a publicity campaign to try and change public

opinion. The United States Secretary of State refused to discuss the matter with the emissaries. Dejected, Shima and Abiko returned to California (Walker 1992:141-142).

From 1913 on Shima's life, both personally and on a business level, was a series of ups and downs. His camps were visited in 1913 by Kaizo Naka, a graduate student at the University of California, Berkeley. Naka noted that Shima's farms were the largest among the Japanese farmers in California and recounted his labor force in terms of ethnic background, primarily as a way to prove that he did not hire only Japanese. According to Naka (1913:57), Shima was farming approximately 10,000 acres of land—most of which was in potatoes—and had the following work force:

TRANSPORTATION:	TOTALS
Licensed boat captains (Angloamerican)	2
Truck men on barges (Angloamerican)	11
Truck men on barges (Japanese)	7
ENGINEERS/MACHINISTS:	
Machinists (Angloamerican)	2
Machinists (Japanese)	1
Traction engineers (Japanese)	3
Farmers in charge of farms (Japanese)	14
LABORERS:	
Drivers (Japanese 85%; Mexican 5%; East Indian 10%)	74
Laborers (Japanese 50%; East Indian 30%; Mexican & other 20%)	450

While Naka enumerated these 600 employees, he did not count the many tenant, crop sharing, and cash crop farmers working land leased or owned by Shima and their employees (Walker 1992:143).

Shima did not do well in the potato market in 1914 and 1915 because the crop was overproduced. On a personal note, 1915 was the year when the Emperor of Japan decorated him with the Fifth Class Order of the Rising Sun for his role in bridging the gap and easing tensions between American organized labor groups and Japanese farmers (Walker 1992:144). Shima also began reclaiming Bacon Island in 1915 and probably constructed the camps during this time (San Joaquin County 1918).

The year 1916 had all the earmarks of disaster for the Potato King. Shima leased 5,600 acres on Bacon Island, but a frost in early June killed all of his potato plants on the island, resulting in a loss of over \$1,000,000. As always in times of disaster, Shima turned to American friends, who lent him money to purchase more seed potatoes and pay his employees. By October Shima and his tenants were able to harvest a bumper crop, which sold for incredibly high prices because of the demand for potatoes in the overseas war effort. Shima made back

all of his losses and then some, and his tenants were also able to make a profit (Walker 1992:145).

Shima's success in 1916, particularly remarkable after the severe frost, had negative backlashes, with anti-Asian groups accusing him of trying to establish a monopoly on potatoes.

In rebuttal, Shima granted several interviews to the *San Francisco Examiner*—his first in many years—and defended himself and his potato crops. The first interview, published December 4, 1916, noted that Shima owned and/or controlled approximately 25,000 acres of "potato land." The article concluded that George Shima "has not cornered the market, nor is he attempting to do so." Rather, he was holding potatoes in the ground, hoping that prices would rise higher before harvesting his crop (*San Francisco Examiner* December 4, 1916, pg. 7).

By the time Shima harvested his crop in February 1917, he was being accused again of manipulating the market by holding back over 10,000 sacks of spuds, forcing prices to rise. This latest series of attacks motivated Shima to defend himself once again through the press. In an interview published February 23, 1917, Shima provided the *San Francisco Examiner* with statistics on the number of sacks of potatoes raised by 1) him and his tenants (750,000), 2) in the delta (2,500,000), and 3) in the remainder of California (400,000). The conclusion reached was that Shima only controlled one-quarter of the state's potato crop (*San Francisco Examiner* February 23, 1917, pg. 2).

In the remainder of the article Shima discussed potato production in other states, recounted his profits and losses since 1912, and noted that he received good prices for potatoes in Chicago and New York. He then discussed the effect of the war on potato farming and the labor situation. As quoted in the newspaper, Shima said the following:

I do not know what we are going to do for help before long. I started in by employing Chinese, but I cannot get them now. I have had my own fellow countrymen, and they strike out for themselves after awhile. I have tried Hindus and now I am working largely with Mexicans. I have people of every nationality working on shares, I furnishing the land and the seed and they the remainder of what has to be done to make the crop. This question of who will do the work is getting to be a big thing in California, and not what prices are for a short time [*San Francisco Examiner* February 23, 1917, pg. 2, col. 1].

Despite his labor problems, Shima continued to be the largest leaser of land in the delta. In 1917, for example, 17 new leases were issued to Asians; George Shima had 11 of these. Six of his 11 were located on Bacon Island; others were on McDonald and King islands (see Figure 3). Shima's Bacon Island leases were then subleased for \$27.50 an acre (Walker 1992:146). According to Walker, Shima grossed more than \$410,000 on his Bacon Island property that year (1992:146).

County Reclamation district records indicate that Shima was formalizing his Bacon Island work at this time. He, on behalf of California Delta Farms, filed a petition for creation of a Bacon Island Assessment District on March 4, 1918. According to Shima's description, the district was subject to flooding and was only partially reclaimed. It was originally leveed in 1915 but the levees needed enlarging and strengthening. In 1918 there were 13.5 miles of levee surrounding the island, 6.5 miles of drainage canals, and one pumping plant. Shima had made \$450,000 worth of improvements and estimated that additional work on levees, irrigation systems, and bridges would cost \$560,000 (San Joaquin County 1918).

Shima's petition notice was posted at the pumphouse on the west side of the island, at his headquarters, and at a house at Camp 2. An election to pick officers for the district occurred on March 21, 1918, at Shima's headquarters—a residence at the southwest corner of the island. The assessment district, called Bacon Island #2028, was approved by the county on August 5, 1918 (San Joaquin County 1918).

Shima's reclamation of Bacon Island coincided with World War I. With the war in Europe escalating, the need for crops, particularly potatoes, was high. Delta landowners began to rent their lands on a percentage basis, as opposed to a pure cash rental arrangement. Shima requested that his tenants give him 45% of potato crops in payment and 35% in beans. Since the government supported the bean prices, growers made about \$40.50 per acre in 1918, and Shima's profits soared accordingly. According to some sources, Shima doubled his profits between 1916 and 1918 due to the war-time prices (Walker 1992:146). Crops grown on Bacon Island during the war years included potatoes, beans, and barley (Rhea 1911; Stockton Chamber of Commerce 1915).

As World War I came to an end and soldiers returned home, the United States economy began a down cycle caused by returning soldiers looking for work, cessation of government financial support to many industries, including farming, and overproduction. This depression situation was particularly evident in the farm industry, where a surplus of crops nationwide caused prices to spiral downward, resulting in business failures nationwide. For Shima, 1919 once again saw him scrambling to make ends meet, as his bank, affected as much as any financial institution, called in his loans. Suffering from a life-threatening high blood pressure condition and faced with the potential of financial ruin, Shima wrote a poem expressing his feelings (as quoted in Walker 1992:146):

An anti-Japanese group inflicts persecution upon us on one side,
My business goes wrong on the other.
Many hardships afflict me, one after another . . .
But I am in high spirits,
I never yield to anyone or to anything,
As a plum tree never breaks—even under snow.

While he may not have been broken, he appears to have realized that he needed to slow down and think about his health. In 1919 he tried to resign the presidency of the JAA, and he turned over direct management of his leasing and farming operations to Lee Phillips (Walker 1992:147).

Shima's retirement was shortlived, however. In early 1920 some California press members and politicians once again began a campaign against Japanese—particularly in the farming industry—and the JAA refused to accept Shima's resignation as president. Shima obviously was reluctant to assume the presidency again. He published a second poem in 1991 that said:

I have been in office as president of the Japanese
Association of America for twelve years,
for many years I have met many difficulties, suffered
pain, received troubles.
Very recently I retired from it; I was unable to
contain my joy.
But I was elected president again against my will [Yoshimura 1981:26].

Thus he began another battle against prejudice that lasted for more than three years.

The 1913 Alien Land Law restricted land lease holdings to three years and prohibited Issei from owning land. The farmers managed to get around the act, however, by buying or leasing land in the names of their American-born children and then acting as guardians for the land. In addition, the need for workers and for produce and crops was so high during the war years that the three-year lease law was often ignored by delta land owners. With the war over, however, anti-Asian leagues began to focus attention on tightening up the 1913 act (Bunje 1957; Pajus 1937:49-50).

The Initiative Land Law of 1920 prohibited Issei from acting as guardians for minor children, leasing land at all, or from owning stock in corporations that purchased agricultural land. Directed primarily at the farming industry, the act essentially forced all Japanese to remain in the role of employees, circumventing them from managing their own farms, even on a crop-sharing or tenant agreement (Bunje 1957:27-33; California State Board of Control 1920).

As he had done in 1912, Shima put his energies into educating and entertaining the members of the federally appointed Congressional Committee on Immigration and Naturalization and the State Land Act Commission, taking them to his many island holdings and putting on a banquet for them in Stockton. The delegation visited 21 of Shima's landings, traveling on his barges and steamships, and ate lunch on Bouldin Island. The commissioners were given a pamphlet written by Shima and distributed by the JAA entitled "An Appeal to Justice" (Shima n.d.). Shima gave testimony, defending accusations against the JAA, and stressed that the organization had no political program. He also stated that he did not own large tracts of land,

noting that he had sold 3,000 of the 5,300 acres once owned by him (*San Francisco Examiner* July 13, 1920, pg. 3, col. 6).

At the Stockton banquet held at the end of the day, Congressman J. W. Taylor from Tennessee commented on Shima's achievements and said "it is almost beyond comprehension that a man could come here like Mr. Shima, a poor laborer, and accomplish what he has accomplished" (*San Francisco Examiner* July 16, 1920, pg. 1; *Stockton Record* July 13, 1920, pg. 2). Other people at the banquet, however, spoke against Shima, noting that everything he had done, including supporting the war effort and donating money locally, was done only as good business sense and did not mean he was assimilated to American culture. In the end, all Shima's efforts were useless: the Initiative Land Law was passed in December 1920 by an overwhelming majority (Walker 1992:147).

In 1923 the Japanese received another blow when the California legislature outlawed sharecropping through passage of the California Land Act (Bunje 1957). By this time, the majority of Shima's crop sharers and tenants were Anglos and he was little affected. He had also purchased land in Oregon and was working with crops in that state, where alien land laws were non-existent (Walker 1992:148). Other Japanese farmers were not as lucky as Shima. County records indicate that there was a notable decline in the number of tenant agreements and sharecroppers in the early 1920s, as a direct result of the land acts. For example, only seven lessees rented land in 1922 and all were conducting their business with Lee Phillips's California Delta Farms corporation (Walker 1992:177). Shima continued to swap older parcels of land for new, unclaimed parcels from Phillips. In 1922, for example, he gave King Island to Phillips and in return took Mandeville Island (Walker 1992:150).

Even though legislation was passed, Shima did not give up. Through the JAA he again published pamphlets against the anti-alien land acts, pointing out the desire of the average Japanese Issei to become a citizen and a part of American culture. He described the achievements of the Issei and the benefits to the American people. Even with his efforts, he was fighting a losing battle, as evidence of the new push on a national level to pass an Immigration Act prohibiting immigrants ineligible for citizenship from entering the United States. In particular, Japanese were singled out in this new Immigration Act as "unworthy and undesirable" (Walker 1992:150). The bill was signed by the President of the United States on May 26, 1924 (Kennedy 1967). Wives, children, and parents of Japanese living in the United States were allowed to enter the country until July 1, 1924, creating a mad scramble among Japanese bachelors to return at once to Japan and marry before the deadline (Walker 1992:150).

While many Japanese both in America and in Japan decried this poor treatment and urged boycotts of American goods, visible support of Nisei (American-born Japanese), and more direct competition with Americans, Shima appears to have given up at this point. In poor health and sick at heart about the increased racial tension and prejudice, Shima, according to Walker (1992:151), had a home built for himself and his family in Japan and may have intended to return to his native country permanently. In March 1926, however, he suffered a massive stroke and passed away on the 26th of the month, five days before he was scheduled to leave for Japan

(*Stockton Record* March 27, 1926). Shima was buried in Colma, south of San Francisco, and his grave was marked by a massive obelisk covered with characters that recount his career, his contributions to American agriculture, and his unending fight against racial persecution for himself and his fellow countrymen (Kelly 1993).

During his illness and after his death, his family continued to suffer from discrimination. By December 1925 his children were forced to file suit in Superior Court to establish that they were citizens. Since their birth records had been destroyed in the 1906 San Francisco earthquake, they anticipated that their American births would be challenged upon Shima's death (*San Francisco Chronicle* December 12, 1925, pg. 3, col. 6). In January 1926, after hearing testimony from the doctors and nurses who attended the births of Shima's children, they were declared citizens and their right to inherit was acknowledged (*San Francisco Chronicle* January 8, 1926, pg. 3, col. 1).

In death, Shima's legend grew. He became recognized as a superb agriculturalist who advanced methods of cultivating and marketing still used today. In particular he was the first farmer to wash, grade, and bag potatoes for the market and the first to use techniques to keep them light colored and shiny (*Byron Times* 1912, pg. 81). He farmed 20 islands, reclaimed more than 100,000 acres of land (Waugh and Yamato 1980:164) and weathered 17 natural floods and numerous personal disasters, yet he always persevered. As a spokesman for fair treatment of Japanese, he was eloquent, passionate, and sincere. As he neared death, his long-time friend and partner Lee Phillips gave him a watch inscribed "To the man who does, from the man who tries" (Japanese American Citizens League 1983). This is truly an epitaph fitting for George Shima.

At the time of Shima's death, potatoes had been in decline for about three years. Following his death they were not grown in mass numbers again, but were superseded by onions, beans, sugar beets, and other crops (Thompson 1957) (Table 1). While the delta was changing both in farm crops and in laborers, many of the islands reclaimed by Shima are still farmed today. In addition, some of the camps Shima built for his agricultural laborers in the delta still stand as mute testimony to his drive, ambition, and success.

CAMP LIFE - CA. 1916

While data on camp life, diet, social events, and scheduling are sketchy, various inspection reports, theses, and remembrances provide information on workers in the delta camps at the heyday of Shima's ventures. Generally, Shima built two sizes of camps used both by crop-sharing or tenant farmers and by employees. Small camps usually had a boarding house, cook house, toilet facilities, barn and corral, and sometimes a foreman's house (Figure 4). Larger camps had several boarding houses (Figure 5), bunkhouses, offices, a blacksmith shop (later garage and machine shop), a barn or two, washrooms, mess halls, kitchens, and usually one or more single residences (Figure 6) (Fujita 1980; Thompson 1957:433). Camps housed from 20 to 50 men in a small camp to as many as 350 or 400 men in a larger setup (Waugh and Yamato

Table 1. Agricultural Production on Bacon Island (in acres)

Product	1924	1931	1938	1945	1952
Truck Crops	-	-	40	80	-
Potatoes	2,000+	1,200	440	320	3,000
Beans	2,000	-	-	-	40
Asparagus	400	-	320	260	2,000
Celery	40	60	300	180	340
Sugar Beets	-	1,600	1,400	1,000	-
Onions	200	180	280	40	240
Seed Crops	-	160	-	-	-
Small Grains	none	1,100	1,100	800	400
Corn	200	400	-	60	-
Alfalfa	40	-	-	-	-
Pasture	-	40	-	-	20

1980:1). Many of the camps in the delta, especially those constructed after the Alien Land Law was passed in 1913, were flimsy, reflecting the three-year lease limitations placed on Japanese. (Often, elevated platforms against each wall of a large room provided the only beds for dozens of men; privacy was non-existent [California State Board of Control 1920]). Shima's camps, however, appear to have been constructed with care (Naka 1913), perhaps as a result of Shima's own memories of the crowded conditions in a labor camp, combined with the stability of his work force and his association with Lee Phillips.

No matter who owned the camp, the life of a laborer residing in a camp in the 1910s and 1920s was not easy. Typically, Japanese laborers worked in the fields from sunup to sundown six days a week (Figures 7, 8). Tenant or crop farmers, who subleased land from larger owners such as Shima, often worked seven days a week, year round (Naka 1913; Shimamoto 1990).

Like most farmers in the delta, Shima built one camp for every 100 to 500 acres of land. Camps were always located around the perimeter of the islands, close to the river transportation routes. Camp size depended on the number of acres each camp was responsible for farming.

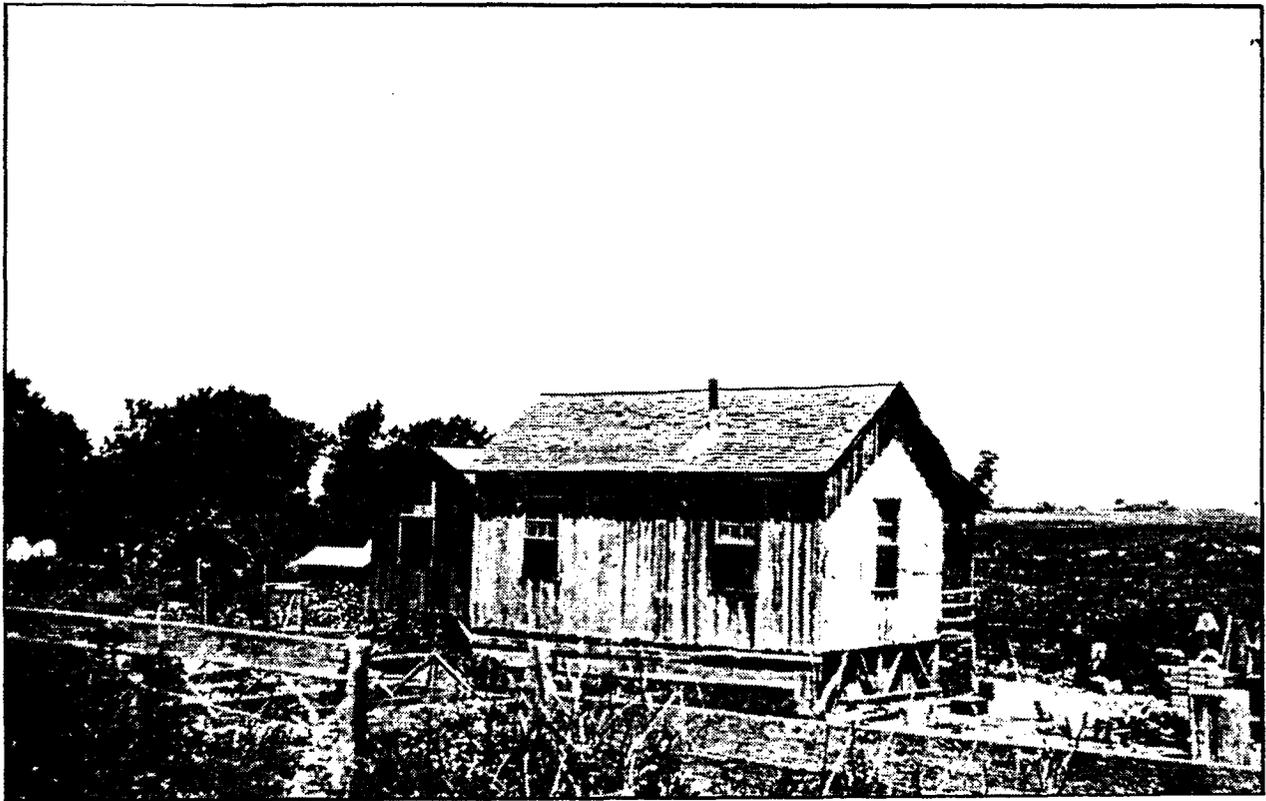


Figure 4. Foreman's House along the Sacramento River, ca. 1905-1920 (source: Ira Brown Cross collection, Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley)

Each camp functioned as an autonomous unit under the direction of a foreman (Fujita 1980). Shima's camps were known as the best in the delta because of their overall cleanliness and better living conditions when compared with other camps (Naka 1913).

Working conditions were particularly nasty in the delta. Many of the fields were 10 to 15 feet below sea level and regularly emitted nauseating marsh gases. The fields were cold and foggy many months of the year, and workers commonly suffered from pneumonia, bronchitis, and other lung ailments. Bad drinking water was common, and water had to be chemically treated or boiled prior to consumption. Swarms of mosquitos bred in the canals and ditches on islands and often carried malaria. Extreme heat in the summer dried out the peat soil, and near-gale force winds frequently resulted in zero visibility as the top soil was blown into the atmosphere. To top off the natural hardships, sanitary conditions in most camps were appalling (California State Board of Control 1920:222-223).

Many of the state health inspectors who visited various camps in the 1910s and early 1920s commented extensively on the unsanitary conditions to which the workers were subjected. Of

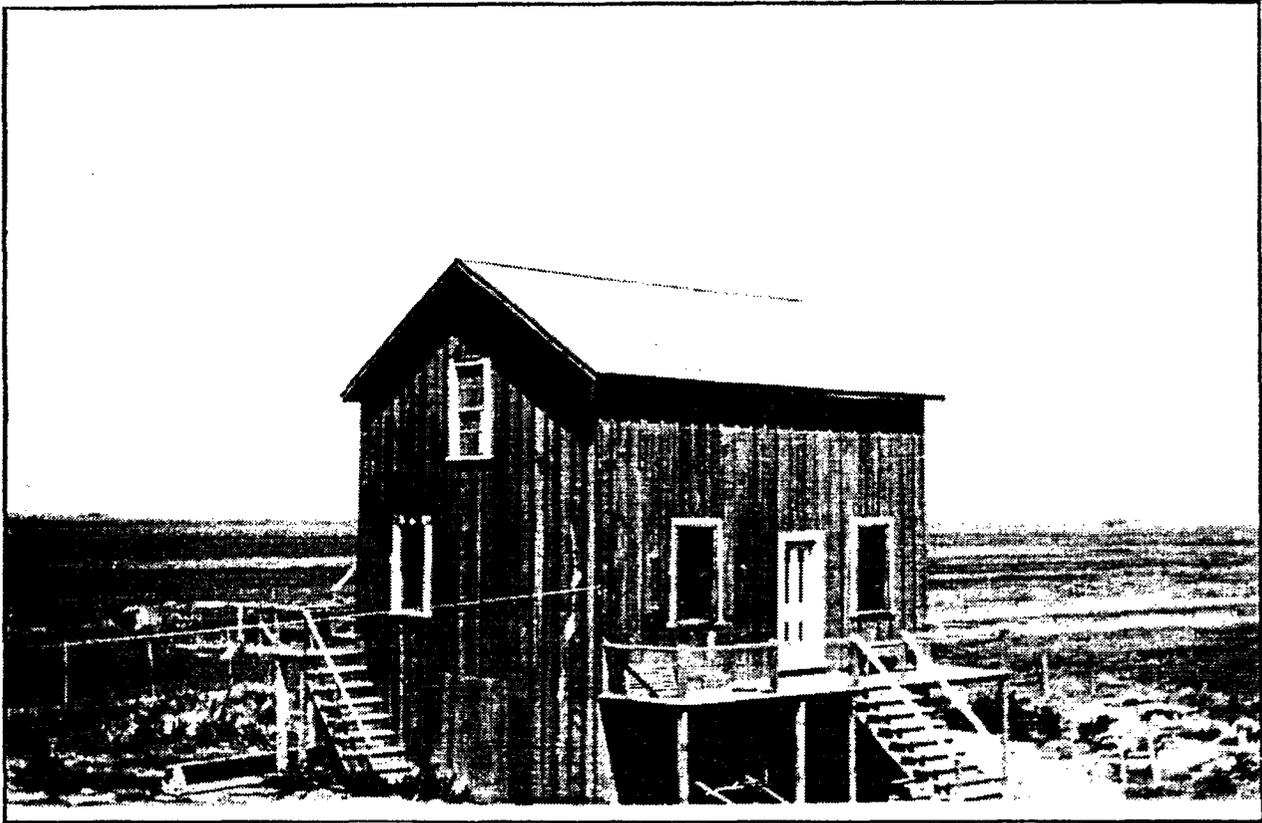


Figure 5. Boarding House, Possibly on Bacon Island, ca. 1905-1920 (source: Ira Brown Cross collection, Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley)

particular interest is that, even though the camps and living conditions were filthy, the personal hygiene of the Japanese workers was reported as excellent, due in part to the Japanese style baths that were present at every camp (Bunje 1957; California State Board of Control 1920).

As described by Shimamoto, every farm had a bathhouse. The bathhouse was built "Japanese style" and included a large redwood tub with a metal bottom elevated on a foundation of bricks. A fire was lit under the tub to heat the water. Bathers sat on the platform on the sides of the tub and scooped pans of hot water from the tub with which to wash and rinse. Once their bodies were clean the bathers slipped into the tub and sat on floating platforms that protected sensitive body parts from the hot metal bottom (Shimamoto 1990:13).

Barns and corrals were also present at every camp (Figures 9, 10). In the 1910s teams of draft horses were used to break up the tule vegetation after draining the land, digging and clearing ditches, and preparing the fields for farming. Tenant farmers might have used only one horse capable of pulling a plow. The farmer would walk behind the horse holding the plow steady, creating even rows to plant the seeds (Shimamoto 1990:14) (see cover photograph). The

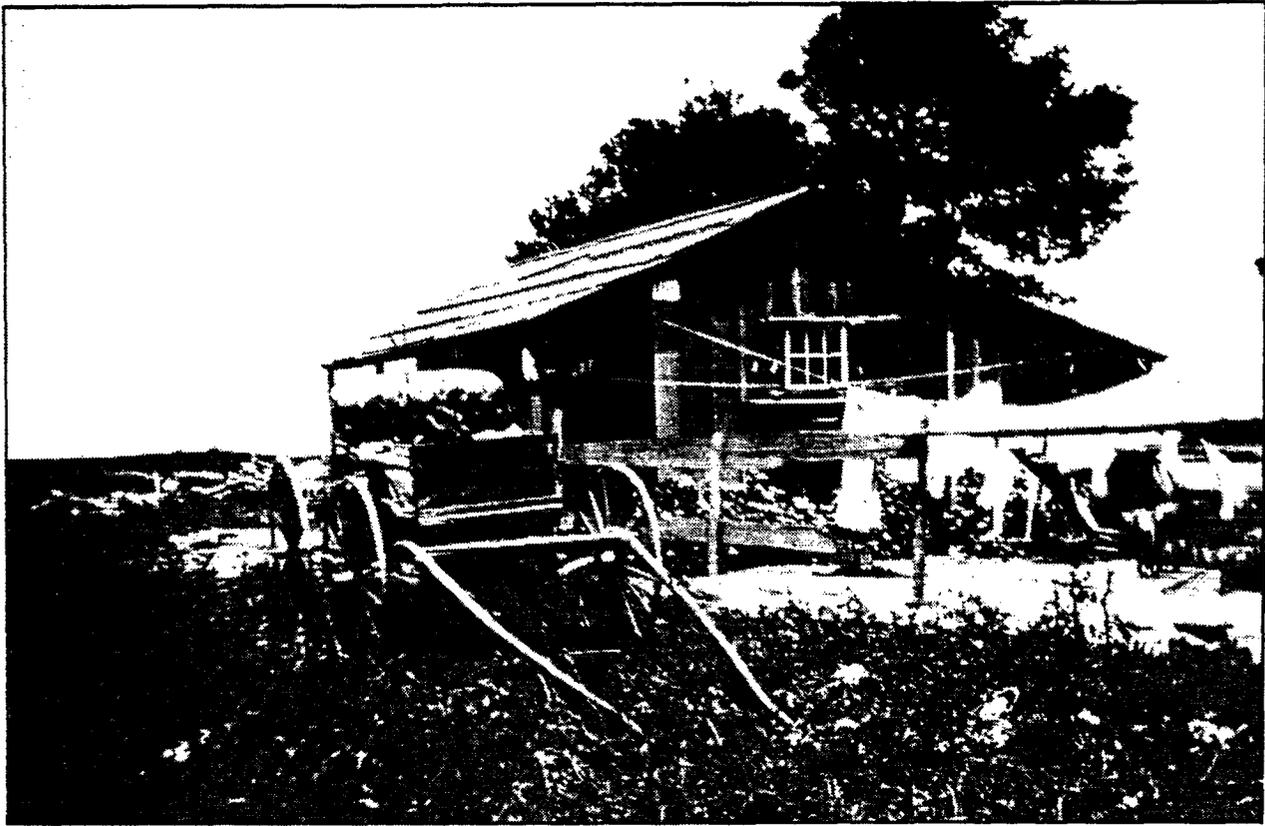


Figure 6. Residence with Carriage in Front, ca. 1905-1920 (source: Ira Brown Cross collection, Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley)

number of animals used depended on the size of the camp and the number of acres it was responsible for planting. By 1912 Shima was experimenting with using steam traction engines for plowing, and gasoline trucks and barges for transportation; it is probable that his barns were also used as equipment sheds (Pajus 1937:85; *San Francisco Call* March 10, 1912, pg. 6). Other outbuildings included small equipment sheds, ice and laundry houses, packing sheds, a wharf or dock, and offices (Fujita 1980).

As with other camps, Shima's camps provided a Japanese cook in the mess hall, bathhouses, and a foreman who translated orders and sometimes acted as a substitute father figure for the new men arriving in the fields from Japan (Shimamoto 1990:8). Generally, American food was prepared in a detached kitchen and was served in a dining hall. Although red meat was available at "white" stores and was sometimes eaten, fish was preferred (Naka 1913:37). Fresh fish was available in the sloughs, rivers, and waterways of the delta and laborers often fished off the levees. Canned fish was also purchased (Amioka 1991:42).

White rice and tea were always provided with meals. Tea may have been served throughout the day as well. In addition, fresh vegetables and *tsukemono* (pickled vegetables)



Figure 7. Japanese Potato Diggers in the Delta, ca. 1905-1920 (source: Ira Brown Cross collection, Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley)

completed the meal (Amioka 1991:42). Food was prepared with a "Japanese" touch, made by adding sugar. For example, sugar was added to mashed potatoes, gravy, stew, and other dishes. Stew was also prepared with plenty of liquid so it could be poured over steamed rice (Shimamoto 1990:11). A 1922 thesis written by University of California student Shichiro Matsui noted that workers consumed chiefly the food items that they were accustomed to in Japan, although soft drinks were a popular item. Most camps also had kegs of sake and Japanese beer available (Matsui 1922:96).

According to Naka (1913:37) food was usually purchased on credit from local Japanese grocery stores. The account was paid off once the crop was harvested. Generally, a laborer spent about 30 cents per day on food. The food was purchased by the tenant farmer or camp cook and the cost was subtracted from each man's daily wages. Waugh and Yamato (1980:165) note that some Japanese entrepreneurs who operated general stores regularly visited surrounding camps, taking orders and making deliveries of food and other supplies.

While doctors were scarce in the delta, medicinal products were obtained through traveling salesmen. Japanese peddlers visited camps regularly, lugging around three or four suitcases



Figure 8. Japanese Laborers in the Fields of the Delta, ca. 1905-1920 (source: Ira Brown Cross collection, Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley)

filled with medicines, potions, and other personal products familiar to the laborers. Most products were manufactured in Japan and included eyedrops, blood purifiers, hair dye, condiments, liniments, stomach and headache pills, tincture of Korean ginseng, capicum, and camphor menthol. Peddlers usually specialized in a type of product or goods made by a certain company, increasing the chance of a sale at a camp (Kaukali 1974:10-11). The Nippon Hospital, built in 1919 in nearby Stockton to serve the Japanese population, was used by delta laborers for serious health problems or to seek a doctor's aid (Vaugh and Yamato 1980:191).

Japanese occupied camps, unlike many labor camps in the delta, usually contained women (Figure 11). Due to restrictions placed on immigrants by the Japanese government, laborers could not marry; only businessmen were allowed this privilege. This law was in effect until 1915 (Amioka 1991:19; Shimamoto 1990:10). Once a laborer saved some money he usually tried to lease land, either by himself or with a few other men, and strike out on his own. As a renter or lessee, he was considered a businessman and was allowed to marry and bring his wife to America (Amioka 1991).



Figure 9. Laborers in one of Shima's Camps, Stockton, ca. 1905-1920 (source: Ira Brown Cross collection, Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley)

Sometimes married people were provided with separate quarters, but at other camps they were given a room in a boarding house with thin, single-layered partitions separating the room. Women usually helped cook, cleaned out the bathhouses and toilet facilities, raked the yards, maintained a small garden, and did laundry for payment. Often, the women worked much harder than the men because they were also expected to be out in the field working the crops. One woman, recalling her experiences in the delta in the early 1930s, reminisced (McBane and Winegarden 1979:179):

I am an agricultural working woman. I came to this camp with my husband and baby. I have to get up before the men get up. I feed my baby and then I am supposed to help in the kitchen. If I don't help in the kitchen people will say "what kind of woman is she?" Although there is a paid cook I am supposed to help. I have to go out to work with the men at the same time, taking my baby with me. When we finish work at suppertime, I have to do the cooking and wash the dishes. At night when the baby cries, I have to be extremely careful because we live in a rooming house, and the partition has thin walls. Sometimes I have to take the baby outside in order to quiet it. I am suffering doubly.



Figure 10. Barn, Corral, and Stable in a Farm Camp along the San Joaquin River, ca. 1905-1920 (source: Ira Brown Cross collection, Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley)

In 1990 Chiyo Mitori Shimamoto recalled the life of her mother, Katsume Mitori, who arrived in California in 1918 to join her new husband, Kango. Like most women living in Japan at this time, Katsume's marriage was arranged by her parents and she and her groom knew each other through an exchange of photographs. Unlike other "picture brides," Katsume knew her proposed husband slightly; he was her second cousin who had left Japan when she was a child of eight. Kango had been in America for 10 years, working as a laborer in the delta (Shimamoto 1990:8-10).

Like many picture brides arriving in America in the 1910s, Katsume was a second daughter. As such, she was not taught how to keep house or clean; her education focused on sewing, flower arrangements, and raising silkworms. These pursuits did not prepare her for the harsh life in a delta labor camp. The culture shock Katsume must have experienced is almost unfathomable. The lack of privacy generated by community outhouses and bathhouses, boarding houses, and shacks did not help a new marriage. In Japan, thick mats and quilts laid on the floor were the norm—not rickety metal cots. Finally, the cooking implements, kitchen equipment, and household goods were completely alien to Katsume (Shimamoto 1990:10).

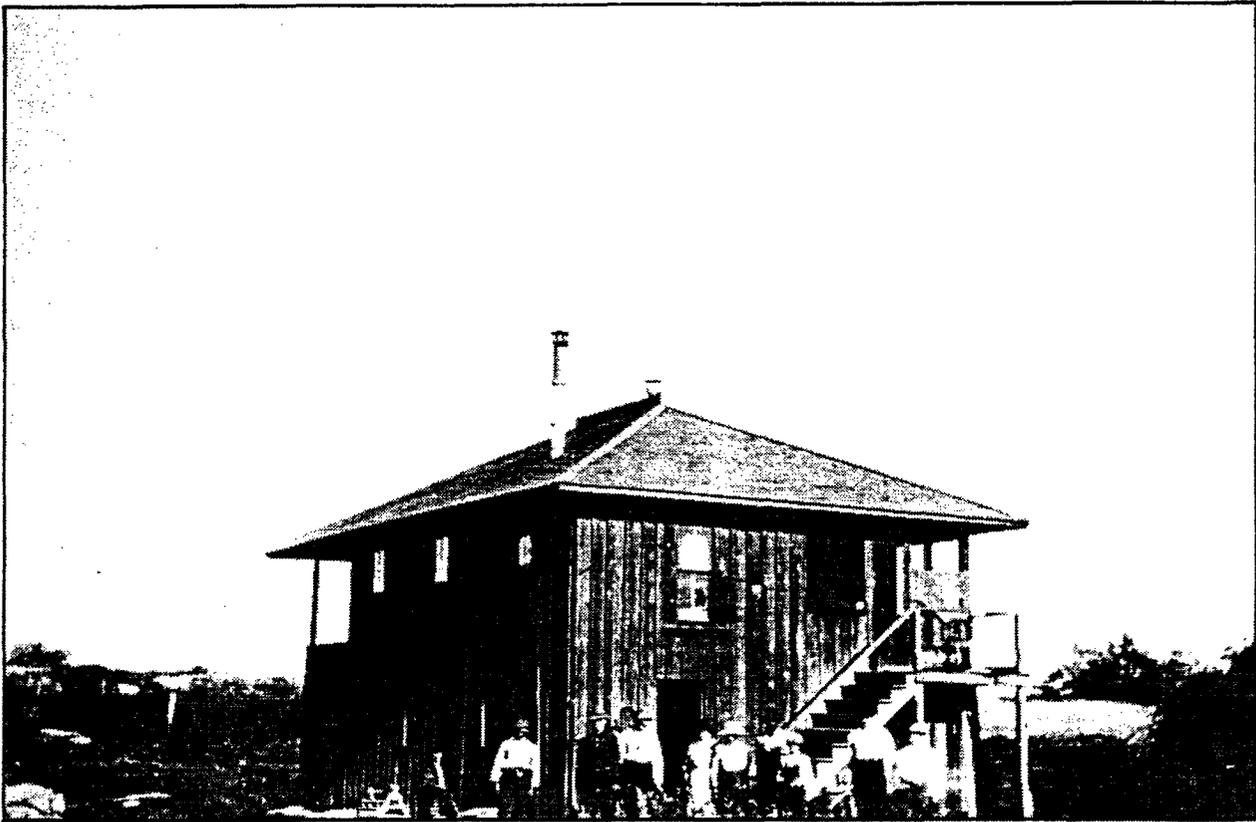


Figure 11. Bunkhouse on Palm Tract, Stockton, with Occupants Standing Outside, ca. 1905-1920 (source: Ira Brown Cross collection, Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley)

Fortunately for Katsume Mitori, she was living in a camp with people from her homeland. Other women in camp who had lived in America longer than she helped her adjust, teaching her how to make do with little and still create a home for her and her new husband. Recycled boxes were used as cupboards, dressers, and shelving. Rice sacks provided material for drapes, flimsy room dividers, tablecloths, shirts, planting aprons, and other items. In addition, they could be sewn together to line vegetable bins or act as tarps. Strings from the rice sacks were tied together and crocheted with chopsticks into useful items (Shimamoto 1990:13-15). A woman in camp delivered Katsume's first child, assisted by Kango (Shimamoto 1990:11).

The Mitoris left the delta after several years and entered the truck farm business south of Stockton. They always remembered their experiences in the delta, however, and passed on stories to their daughters (Shimamoto 1990:16). Even though the Mitori's were working on King Island, their experiences could have applied to any of the laborers and tenant farmers working in Shima's camps during the same period.

Life in the camps was not all work, although workers' leisure time is not well documented. Usually, laborers were given one day off a week, as well as evenings after sundown. As noted

above, tobacco, kegs of sake, and Japanese beer were usually found at camps, although excessive drinking does not appear to have been a problem. Walker notes the presence of a prostitute living at Camp Nine on Middle River in 1910. The woman, Rin Tazawa, worked for six months at Camp Nine before the police intervened (*Central California Record* April 2, 1912, pg. 8; Walker 1992:125).

Generally, however, men went to the nearest *Nihonmachi* (Japanese sections of nearby towns) to find businesses that catered to immigrants and for entertainment. For example, Christian, Buddhist, or Shinto churches, barber shops, bathhouses, restaurants and saloons, pool halls, gambling establishments, bordellos, theaters, and social halls were all available at nearby Lodi, Stockton, Isleton, or Walnut Grove (Costello and Maniery 1988; Maniery 1990a, 1990b; Maniery and Costello 1986; Waugh and Yamato 1980:163). A woman barber working in one of the Japanese shops in Walnut Grove in the 1920s recalled cutting hair on weekends for 12 or more hours straight, trying to accommodate the hundreds of laborers who poured into town on their day off (Kawamura 1987; Maniery 1990b).

In contrast to the quiet life experienced in a camp, visits to town were full of hustle, bustle, and excitement. The type of lifestyle described above was typical of the period between ca. 1912 and 1924, during the peak of both Shima's involvement in the region and the "picture bride" immigration. By Shima's death in 1926, life in the delta was already changing.

Changing Tides: 1926-1942

While Shima's death signaled a psychological change in the makeup of the delta community, in reality change began soon after World War I ended. Several reasons have been given for the changing face of the delta after about 1920. First, horses and hand labor were slowly replaced with mechanized equipment. Second, many farmers switched to contract day laborers, rather than share-cropping gangs. Third, the use of fertilizer encouraged plant growth and eliminated hand labor methods of turning soil and nurturing the plants. Fourth, many of the large land holdings were being subdivided into small (20 to 100 acre) parcels and sold as small farms. Finally, the traditional rotation of potato, barley, and beans became less common as new crops were introduced (Thompson 1957:314).

One important change was the replacement of beans with sugar beets. The construction of refineries at Manteca and Clarksburg contributed greatly to the success of this crop. According to Thompson (1957:354-355) the central delta islands raised two percent of the total Sacramento-San Joaquin delta sugar beet crop in 1924. By 1931 this number had increased to 20 percent, and in 1938 it stood at 38 percent of the total sugar beet crop. Bacon, McDonald, and King islands and Empire Tract were the most consistent sugar beet producers (Thompson 1957:355).

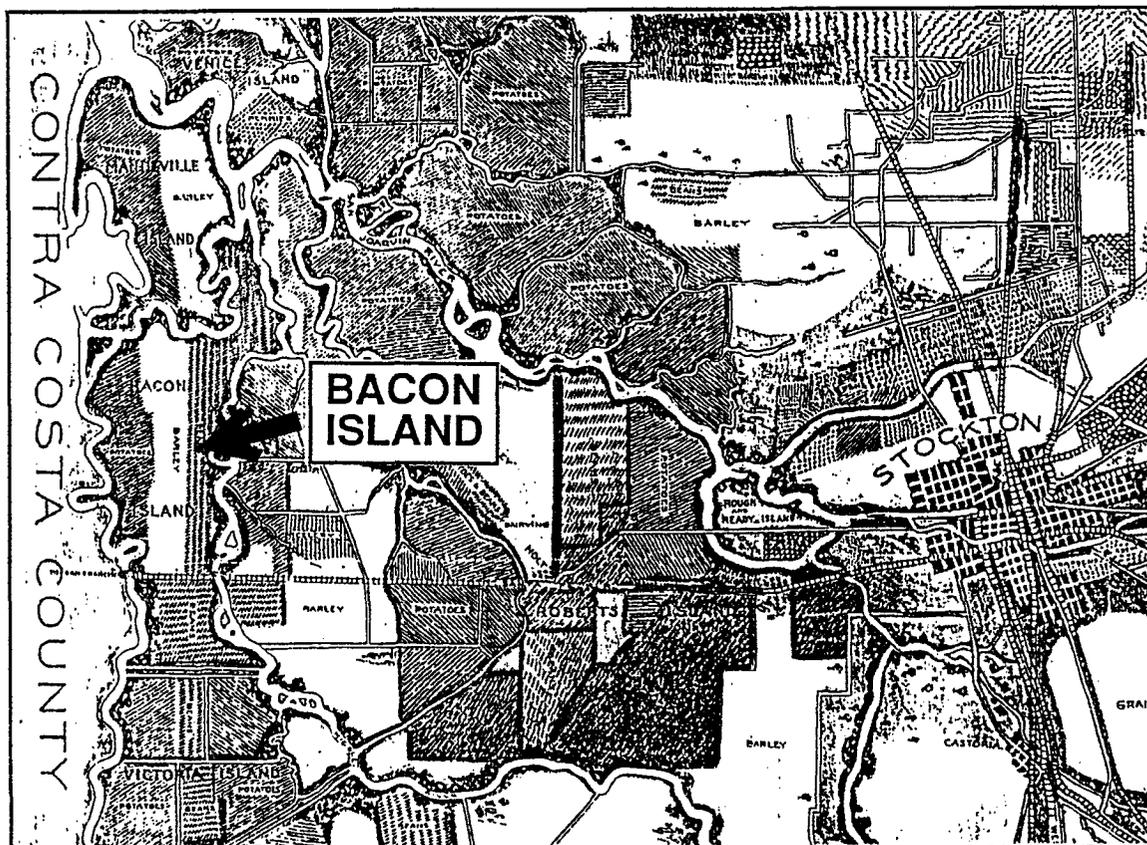


Figure 12. Bacon Island Crops, 1915 (source: Stockton Chamber of Commerce 1915)

Grain crops such as corn, milo, barley, and alfalfa also gained popularity after World War I. Barley, in particular, grew well on peat soils and was the primary winter grain in the 1930s. Barley and wheat, planted in December and harvested in June or July, grew on 91,000 acres of delta land in 1931 and 115,000 acres in 1938. These numbers represent 25 to 35 percent of the total delta crop land (Thompson 1957:376). Barley was grown on approximately one-third of Bacon Island in the 1910s and 1920s (Rhea 1911; Stockton Chamber of Commerce 1915) (Figure 12). Other crops that gained importance in the late 1920s and 1930s included asparagus, onions, sunflowers, and other seed plants (Thompson 1957). Crops on Bacon Island continued to be rotated during this period, reflecting the general changes occurring in the delta (see Table 1).

While types of crops and ways to plant, maintain, and harvest were changing, so was the delta labor force. The California Land Acts of 1913, 1920, and 1923, combined with the Federal Immigration Act of 1924, had the same results as those experienced after the Chinese Exclusion Acts of the 1880s. As expected, the numbers of Japanese available for farming or as day laborers dwindled. In addition, discrimination continued against the Japanese between

1924 and 1942, further limiting the farming efforts of the Asian groups and affecting the overall labor pool needed for harvesting and growing crops (Thompson 1957).

According to the 1920 Land Act and its 1923 amendment, the burden of proving American citizenship of individuals of Japanese ancestry fell on the State of California. After several court cases arose in the mid 1920s, the California Legislature amended the 1923 Land Act amendment on May 16, 1927. Under the new statutes, the burden of proving citizenship fell on the Japanese, not the state. Often, only the registered fingerprints of American-born Japanese infants was accepted as proof of citizenship. Subsequent court cases in 1930, 1932, and 1933 upheld the constitutionality of the newest discrimination laws (Bunje 1957:62-63).

Anti-Japanese sentiment increased rapidly in the 1930s, fed by depressed economic conditions and world politics. The depression that gripped America throughout the majority of the 1930s resulted in high unemployment rates, low demand for products, and closure of many businesses. In 1934 a group of 200 unemployed white tenant farmers from Phoenix, Arizona, frustrated at the economic situation of the country, petitioned the governor of the state to oust the Japanese farmers legally. When the governor rejected their petition, they resorted to physical violence to force the Japanese tenant farmers to flee, taking over their holdings (Bunje 1957:63).

The actions of the Phoenix group had repercussions across the west, particularly in California where many non-Asian farmers, feeling the pinch of the depression, thought that putting the Japanese out of business would solve their problems. In February 1935, another anti-Japanese exclusion bill was submitted to the California State Legislature for consideration. This latest bill asked for a prohibition of Japanese people from engaging in agriculture under any circumstances. The bill made its way through several levels of review to the judicial committee, who found that it deprived the Japanese farmers of the right of agriculture and conflicted with the United States Constitution. Nonetheless, the committee submitted the bill to the plenary session suggesting approval. The bill was eventually shelved at the Upper House level of the legislature and was not approved (Bunje 1957:63).

Agitation continued in the late 1930s, however, pushed by Senator Law of Imperial County. In 1937 Law introduced a bill that would prevent Japanese people ineligible for citizenship (all Issei) from acting as caretakers for land held in their children's names. In addition, they could not possess, have custody, care, or control over any real property, agricultural lands, or lands fit for agricultural purposes. Penalty for violating this law was proposed at two years in state prison and a \$5,000 fine (Bunje 1957:64-65).

At this latest affront, several Japanese organizations in California publicly spoke out against the proposed legislation. The Japanese Association of the United States, in fact, hired attorney A. H. Elliott to act as counsel for them in combatting the bill. Other organizations who opposed this newest attempt at discrimination included the Young Japanese Associations of California and the Japanese Agricultural Association (Bunje 1957:64). As attention became focused on the events in Europe, this bill lost momentum and was not passed.

As the Japanese labor force decreased, other groups began to fill the void. Filipinos began to arrive in the delta around 1923, primarily to cut asparagus. By 1930 5,000 to 6,000 Filipinos arrived in the delta to work the asparagus. According to Minnick (1983:9), approximately 80 percent of the asparagus cutting crews were Pinoy by 1930. Other Filipinos picked grapes and planted celery. By 1935, the Filipino population also began to decline, aided by federally sponsored exclusionary legislation aimed at forcing all Pinoys to return to the Phillipines (Minnick 1983:9, 12). Public opinion of the Filipinos did not change until the 1940s when their efforts during World War II made headlines on a regular basis.

The Japanese workers who remained in the delta in the late 1930s were not as lucky as their Filipino counterparts. Some, like George Shima's wife and children, took advantage of a voluntary evacuation program and left the state. Mrs. Shima voluntarily evacuated to New York around 1938 and missed the incarceration of many Japanese that occurred during the war years. Other Japanese families, accustomed to living as an often-hated minority in a predominately white society, kept to themselves by farming and continuing their normal lifestyle until 1942 (Japanese American Citizens League 1983:n.p.).

The War Years: 1942-1945

Throughout the late 1930s America watched Hitler march through Germany and debated whether or not to get involved in the military struggle occurring in the European theater. On December 2, 1941, the decision was taken out of America's hands when Pearl Harbor, a major United States military base, was bombed by a German ally, Japan. The bombing of Pearl Harbor and subsequent hysteria that occurred on the west coast led to the most significant discriminatory act against the Japanese to date.

On February 19, 1942, President Franklin D. Roosevelt signed Executive Order 9066 designating military zones and excluding certain persons from those zones. Although the order did not single out a specific group of people, or say that they were to be locked up, it was common knowledge that it was designed primarily to remove Japanese Americans and imprison them away from the west coast. Temporary detention centers were built to hold them until camps in remote sections of the country could be completed. While Californians wanted the Japanese out of the state, local farmers recognized the potential disaster of hundreds of Japanese leaving the fields. Efforts began throughout San Joaquin Valley to gain dispensation for Japanese farmers and laborers until after the newly planted crops were harvested. When these attempts failed, farmers were urged by the military to produce their crops and not to destroy or abandon their fields. As they left the fields on their way to confinement, Japanese farmers were forced to register and provide information about their crops to facilitate finding substitute farm operators (Masumoto 1987:46-48).

By June 2, 1942, all Japanese Americans in California—more than 92,000 people—had been retained (Okamura 1980:174; Waugh and Yamato 1980:171). The majority of Issei and Nisei in the delta region were sent either to the temporary camp at the Stockton Fairgrounds or

to Walgera, a large labor camp located near Sacramento. Many of the delta farmers spent the war years at Tule Lake Relocation Camp in Modoc County, California. Others were sent to the Rohner Relocation Camp in Arkansas because of their farming experience (Shimoaki n.d.; Yoshikawa Collection n.d.).

The Rohner Relocation Camp was the easternmost in the United States and the largest of all the wartime camps. Located in Arkansas, the camp was a four-day train trip from Stockton. Internees were set to work constructing a 55-mile drainage canal and reclaiming 10,000 acres of farmland. Many of Shima's laborers from the delta worked on this reclamation project. In fact, George Shima's key manager, a man by the name of Hanji Inouye, was put in charge of the agricultural reclamation and farming efforts at Rohner (Japanese American Citizens League 1983:n.p.).

With the Japanese removed from the west coast, and Filipinos entering the service in droves, the labor force in the delta dwindled to a few older Chinese men and people traveling up from Mexico. Many of the fields remained fallow during the war years, while others were planted only on a limited basis. With the return of troops and internees to California in 1945 and 1946, following the end of the war, agriculture once again escalated.

A New Era: 1946-1992

Following the war the character of the delta changed once again, due in part to the explosion of production and new techniques that developed as a result of the war effort. In the delta, change was seen in the installation of new portable sprinkling systems that relied on aluminum pipe and truck-mounted pumps. These systems became commonplace after World War II and were used for irrigating sugar beets, alfalfa, hay, and corn (Thompson 1957:318).

Efforts after 1945 also focused on developing selective weed-killing sprays. By the mid 1950s these sprays were in widespread use and were "of inestimable value" in the delta, where weed control had always been a problem (Thompson 1957:318). The successful development of these weed killers eliminated yet another task that was once completed by hand labor. Bulk handling of grain and grain elevators were also innovations that started in the late 1940s and 1950s (Thompson 1957:318).

By the time Thompson did his research and wrote his dissertation in the mid 1950s, the days of the large ranches were over and most of the camps were abandoned or used for only a short time during peak harvest season. As early as the 1920s the huge island tracts were being subdivided into small parcels of 20 to 100 acres. This trend continued after World War II (Thompson 1957).

After 1952 Japanese Americans once again began purchasing and leasing land for farming. While many court cases were filed after World War II, two, in particular, were instrumental in the repeal of the 1913 Alien Land act. The case of *Oyama v. the State of California* in 1948

resulted in a decision that non-citizen parents could purchase land as gifts for citizen children. The *Fujii v. State of California* case in 1952 resulted in the declaration that the 1913 Alien Land Law was unconstitutional (Waugh and Yamato 1980:172), and once again Japanese were able to actively participate in farming efforts in the delta.

Since 1952 the pace of farm efforts has not changed drastically, although the types of crops planted has varied depending on demand, production costs, and soil nutrient levels. The use of horses, still evident as late as 1957 because of the high cost of fuel for mechanical equipment, all but disappeared by 1960, and corrals and barns were dismantled across the islands (Sweat 1993). Camps were also burned or dismantled; this effort escalated in the 1970s as the delapidated condition of the surviving camps from the 1910s became a safety hazard (Singh 1992). Today, few intact camps remain in the delta, although isolated buildings occur on nearly every island.

Until the late 1980s Bacon Island remained in control of only three companies: one Chinese and two Japanese owned. The Asian heritage of the island remained constant throughout the changing and tumultuous years since Shima's death. Today, Bacon Island is still partially owned and farmed by Nisei and Sansei. If George Shima were to visit the island today, more than 65 years after his death, he might still recognize his personal involvement in the initial years of delta reclamation and farming through the nine camps that stand as mute testimony to an era long gone.

Archaeological Background

Archaeological research focusing on overseas Chinese sites began in the 1960s with work in Tucson, Arizona (Olsen 1978), and California (Chace and Evans 1969). The distinctiveness of the overseas Chinese material culture and the interest these artifacts generated resulted in a rash of descriptive reports focusing on the material culture (cf. Maniery 1992). By the mid 1980s attention shifted to an examination of Chinese acculturation and ethnicity, and recently to viewing overseas Chinese sites in terms of site structure, historical associations, and subtle, complex models of social and cultural interaction based on sociological and economic theory (cf. Praetzelis and Praetzelis 1990).

While overseas Chinese archaeological studies have developed over a 25-year period, the study of overseas Japanese in the United States is in its infancy. Work at Chinese sites occasionally turns up Japanese manufactured items (e.g., sake bottles, bowls), but these are not common and are usually not associated with Japanese occupation. Only two excavations have been conducted at Japanese American occupied sites: one at Walnut Grove, California (Costello and Maniery 1988; Maniery and Costello 1986), and a second at the Presidio of Santa Barbara (Seifert 1984; Wegars 1993). Work at the Chapel site of El Presidio de Santa Barbara State Park in the 1960s uncovered a trash pit associated with a Japanese occupation from ca. 1900 to 1942 (Seifert 1984). The Walnut Grove material was deposited *en masse* following a devastating

fire that occurred in 1915. It represents Japanese occupation in the Chinese quarters of town from ca. 1896 until the 1915 conflagration (Costello and Maniery 1988:30).

Of these two collections, the Walnut Grove material is most relevant to the current project. Located in the Sacramento River delta less than 30 miles from the sites under study, Walnut Grove served as a commercial center for the outlying agricultural camps in the delta. Tablewares recovered at Walnut Grove consisted primarily of products of the Meiji Period's technological revolution and are inexpensive porcelains largely overlooked in studies of Japanese potters and manufacturing industry. Glass containers were also recovered that were made in Japan. These included alcoholic and medicinal products.

Generally, the overall lack of documentation of Japanese American sites in the west emphasizes the relative importance of intact archaeological and architectural remains and pertinent historical data. The adaptations and relationships between rural and urban centers, American and/or Chinese versus Japanese cultures, settlement geography, assimilation, camp structure, and a host of related topics have yet to be explored archaeologically or through historical documentation.

RESEARCH ORIENTATION

The 13 sites and associated structures under investigation were assessed using the eligibility criteria of the National Register (36 CFR 60.4 [48 R 46306]). The resources on Bacon Island all relate to agricultural endeavors in the delta and were assessed as elements of a larger district. By definition, a district "possesses a significant concentration, linkage, or continuity of sites, buildings, structures, or objects united historically or aesthetically by plan or physical development" (National Park Service [NPS] 1991:5). Therefore, significance criteria were applied to the district as a whole and then to each of its elements.

The project that necessitated this investigation requires compliance with both federal regulations and CEQA. The criteria of importance outlined in Appendix K of the CEQA guidelines are not, however, as clearly defined as the National Register standards. In light of this, the more stringent federal criteria were applied to the resource and island assessments. A property that is considered eligible for inclusion in the National Register is implicitly stated to be "important" as defined in the CEQA guidelines.

National Register Criteria

The National Register specifies four significance criteria and seven types of integrity. In order to be considered eligible for inclusion, a resource or a district must meet a minimum of one criterion and two types of integrity. The standards of the National Register, used in all resource assessments, are as follows:

The quality of significance in American history, architecture, archaeology and culture is present in Districts, sites, buildings, structures, and objects of state and local importance that possess integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association, and;

- (A) That are associated with events that have made a significant contribution to the broad pattern of our history; or
- (B) That are associated with the lives of persons significant in our past; or
- (C) That embody the distinct characteristics of a type, period, method of construction, or that represent the work of a master, or that possess high artistic values, or that represent a significant and distinguishable entity whose components may lack individual distinction; or,
- (D) That have yielded, or may be likely to yield, information important in prehistory or history.

Sites younger than fifty years, unless of exceptional importance, are not eligible for the National Register.

An integral part of assessing cultural resource significance, aside from applying the above criteria, is the physical integrity of the resource. Prior to assessing a resource's potential for listing in the National Register, it is important to understand the subtleties of the seven kinds of integrity mentioned above. To summarize a NPS bulletin entitled *How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation* (NPS 1991:44-49), the types of integrity are defined as follows:

- LOCATION is the place where the historic property was constructed or the place where the historic event occurred;
- DESIGN is the combination of elements that create the form, plan, space, structure, and style of a property;
- SETTING is the physical environment of a historic property;
- MATERIALS are 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;
- WORKMANSHIP is the physical evidence of the crafts of a particular culture or people during any given period in history or prehistory;
- FEELING is a property's expression of the aesthetic or historic sense of a particular period of time; and
- ASSOCIATION is the direct link between an important historic event or person and a historic property.

Integrity is based on significance: why, where, and when a property is important. Only after significance is fully established is the issue of integrity addressed. Ultimately, the question of integrity is answered by whether or not the property retains the identity for which it is significant.

Approach to Research

In order to determine the eligibility of a resource for inclusion in the National Register, a concise framework of analysis is required. The approach to the evaluation of the 13 sites and associated buildings documented within the project area involved a review of previous regional research, an assessment of the specific resources under investigation, the collection of comparative data, and the refinement of discrete research questions. Research focused on identifying the historical context of the island and assessing the association of each site and camp

to each other, to others in the delta, and with events or persons important to the development of the region or state. Architectural merit and archaeological potential were also assessed.

Historical archaeological sites are often evaluated based on their potential to address identified research questions or topics that pertain to that type of resource. The scientific or historical value of a site must be related to its historical context, previous archaeological research, and identified research questions. In order to accomplish this, relevant archaeological literature was reviewed to identify current, significant research topics under analysis in the region. The data potential of each archaeological property was then considered relative to the identified research goals and objectives.

Usually, a subsurface excavation program is necessary to assess the integrity and composition of archaeological remains and their potential to address pertinent questions. The Bacon Island camps, however, contain sufficient information from surface deposits and structural remains to assess the archaeological potential of each.

Research Goals

In light of the above considerations and the National Register criteria, the goals of the intensive historical research were

- 1) to develop a historical context for the resources on Bacon Island and to aid in establishing District boundaries;
- 2) to evaluate the importance of the resources on Bacon Island within the overall context of Shima's farming empire;
- 3) to evaluate the importance of Shima, and consequently of the sites, in the development of agriculture in the delta;
- 4) to ascertain the role of each camp, period of use (both seasonally and long term), layout of a typical 1910s labor camp, and relation of each camp to the nearby agricultural fields; and
- 5) to determine the role of associated features (pump stations, water pumps, outbuildings) to each camp and to the agricultural development of the island as a whole.

In order to assess the scientific value and potential of the archaeological material under Criterion D, PAR compared and contrasted recovered artifactual material and features from sites on other islands (e.g., Bouldin) to surface manifestations found at the Bacon Island camps and to a collection of Japanese artifacts from Walnut Grove, California. In general, these analyses

focused on defining the potential of each archaeological site to address specific research questions concerning spatial arrangement, chronology, material cultural preferences, economic exchange, and ethnic continuity. Questions pertaining to archaeological research are presented below.

Chronology

Verifying the ages of the sites on Bacon Island and placing them within a chronological and historical framework in the delta is a critical element of site evaluations. Site assessment focused on ascertaining if each resource contained enough integrity and material to address the following questions.

- Does occupation at the site correspond to the developments by Shima indicated in historical documentation?
- What time markers are present at each site? How do these compare to those found at Walnut Grove?

To address the above questions, specific types of artifacts, such as bottles, ceramics, and dateable items, are required. In addition, oral interview and historic records data can add to the chronological placement of each site.

Spatial Organization

The geographical layout and organization of Japanese labor camps has not received much attention in the past. Specifically, the relationship between living quarters, kitchen and dining areas, washroom facilities, work areas, equipment and animal storage facilities, and foreman's quarters has only been briefly explored (Maniery and Syda 1988). Questions concerning the use of space within a camp include the following.

- Is there an evident organization of space at each camp?
- How does each camp's spatial use compare to others in the region? Were there differences between each camp or was spatial organization a constant?
- Were there changes in the general spatial organization through time, or is there evidence of consistent layout patterns?
- If organizational change is evident, can it be related to functional improvements in efficiency, ethnic changes, or technological advances? What are the causes for change or stability?

- How do the physical remains at camps compare with historical documentation of camp layout? With oral interview data?
- Do the camps present at Bacon Island typify spatial organization for all labor camps constructed in the early 1900s in the delta? If not, how do they differ?
- If some of the sites are related to non-Japanese ownership and use, what are the differences between Japanese constructed camps and Euroamerican constructed camps? What are the similarities?

Feature locations and interpretations, standing structures and their functions, oral interview information, and historical documentation are required in order to address the issues of spatial arrangement and use. Information derived from a variety of sources and distributional studies was used to determine the potential of Bacon Island camps to contribute data concerning this research topic.

Ethnic Continuity

Overseas Chinese studies have paid much attention to the continuity of traditional culture in an overseas context. Materials gathered from historical research and archaeological sites have been used to establish how the Chinese maintained their traditional customs and cultural identity in a predominantly Euroamerican culture, and which traits were maintained. Studies on ethnicity are also important in overseas Japanese archaeology to understanding behavioral adaptations of the Japanese laborer in an Anglo context. The capacity of site and archival data to address questions of ethnicity and ethnic continuity increases the significance of each resource. Questions concerning ethnic continuity include the following.

- What traditional behavioral traits can be identified on site? Are there indications of retention of traditional Japanese practices or material goods? If so, are these related to limited aspects of Japanese American society or to a widespread tradition?
- Does ethnic continuity persist throughout the period of occupation or did it subside at later dates?
- Is there evidence of specific Japanese traits versus American at each camp?
- How does the material from the Japanese camps compare to other Asian sites (e.g., Chinese or East Indian)?
- What is the relationship of these camps to other documented sites?

- Is there evidence that certain Euroamerican goods were used regularly? Was this a result of preference or availability?

Japanese and Euroamerican manufactured artifacts, feature interpretation, historical associations, and oral interview data are important elements required to adequately address the above questions. Material from these sites will also be compared to other sites in the region (e.g., Walnut Grove) to establish significance of the material.

Material Culture Preferences and Associated Trade Networks

Analysis of material from Walnut Grove indicated that the local Japanese community preferred inexpensive, mass-produced tablewares from the Meiji Period in their everyday households. More traditional items of some apparent value, such as Imari platters and dishes, may represent heirlooms brought over from Japan upon immigration into the United States (Costello and Maniery 1988). Economic trade and communication networks may have been essential in supplying traditional wares and goods to urban and rural centers. The analyses of data from Bacon Island are oriented to assessing their potential to address the following questions.

- Is there evidence that traditional tablewares and domestic goods were preferred by the laborers?
- Are the majority of recovered Japanese manufactured materials related to the technological boom of the Meiji Period?
- How does the variety of pattern types and functional use of ceramics compare to that established for Walnut Grove?
- Were the household goods obtained locally? Is there evidence of a Japan-San Francisco cycle?

Glass and ceramic objects of Japanese origin represent the most significant body of data for reconstructing trade networks and material culture preferences. Comparing those materials recovered from rural contexts with those from an urban environment (i.e., Walnut Grove) may reveal patterns of exchange, trade, and preferences. These comparative data are important components in establishing eligibility.

Methods

The Phase II investigations of Bacon Island focused on the research questions posed above. Considerations during the investigations included the concept of Bacon Island as an integral district composed of fields, pumping and irrigation systems, and camps. An extensive program of archival research and oral interviews, with limited fieldwork was undertaken. The methods used during this phase of the project are discussed below.

Archival Research

PAR conducted extensive archival research at a number of repositories housing information on the history and development of the delta region (Table 2). The focus of this effort was to provide a detailed historical context for the island as a whole and for its individual resources and to collect comparative data necessary to assess the National Register significance of the overall district. Archival research was supplemented with an oral interview program.

A large quantity of information on the history of the delta and the surrounding area was obtained from the Bancroft Library at the University of California, Berkeley. Of particular interest were the Japanese American Citizens League photographic collection, the Japanese Association of American publications, the Ira B. Cross labor notes, the Honeyman Collection of manuscript files, and the Delta Land Association newsletters and court proceedings. In addition, incorporation papers, yearbooks, and agricultural information were consulted.

The Holt-Atherton Pacific Center for Western Studies at the University of the Pacific in Stockton also housed several useful resources, including the Yoshikawa Collection of manuscripts and the Guy Cook Nisei Collection. School yearbooks, city and county directories, maps, and personal sketches were reviewed as well. Information from relevant documents at the San Joaquin County Historic Society and Museum was collected and included photographs, information files, agricultural histories, the George Shima photograph collection on potato farming, and San Joaquin County Reclamation District Records.

To augment the archival research, additional information on the Japanese laborer experience, camp life, and the development and use of Bacon Island was collected by personal and telephone interviews with local residents, interested parties, and various city, state, and federal agency personnel. Usually, these interviews were conversational, rather than adhering to a set of questions. No interviews were taped, but notes were taken during the discussion and were written up following the visit. A list of persons contacted during the Phase II investigation is also presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Sources Consulted During Archival Research

Repository/Individual	Information
San Joaquin County Historic Society and Museum, Lodi	photos, agricultural histories, county reclamation district records and maps, information files, newspaper index, books, San Joaquin County records
Holt-Atherton Pacific Center for Western Studies, University of the Pacific, Stockton	yearbooks, directories, historic maps, Guy Cook Nisei collection, personal sketches, Yoshikawa manuscript collection
Doe Library, University of California, Berkeley	unpublished M.A./Ph.D. documents
Bancroft Library, University of California, Berkeley	theses, Ira B. Cross labor notes, photo collections, newsletters, court proceedings, incorporation papers, manuscript files, agricultural information, yearbook
Sacramento History Museum	Japanese American exhibit, photos, general history
Hagin Museum, Stockton	Shima biographical information, Shima relatives
California State Library, California Room	newspapers, U.S. census records, historic maps, county histories
California State Library, Government Publications	historic maps, state and federal documents
California Office of Historic Preservation (OHP), Sacramento	Ethnic survey data, historic sites survey file, architectural data
Don Walker, archivist/librarian San Joaquin County Historic Society and Museum	dissertation, source information
Sacramento Archives and Museum Collection Center	Japanese American ethnic study notes, photographs, historic maps
Tom Sweat, Delta Wetlands, Inc.	information on island camps and farming
Mr. Singh, Bouldin Island foreman	information on island camps and farming
Eugene Itagawa, OHP	Japanese American Community contacts, general data on Shima and camps
Hong B. Huey, farmer	general data on Bacon Island farming ventures
Virginia Takechi, Ishimaro Takechi farms	general data on Bacon Island farming ventures
Kyser Shimasaki, farmer	general data on Bacon Island farming ventures

Field Methods

In combination with the archival research, PAR conducted a limited field program. Generally, this work consisted of a lengthy windshield and pedestrian survey of the entire island. The field work had several primary goals: 1) to acquire up-to-date information on numbers of structures (both historic and modern) at each camp; 2) to assess changes in overall integrity of the island and its resources since the 1989 Phase I work; and 3) to examine the siphons, pumphouses, irrigation ditches and gates, and cultural landscape of the island to ascertain their relationship with the overall use of the island.

During the field work notes were made on existing inventory forms noting changes and additions at each camp. A few buildings have been removed since 1989, and portable housing (e.g., trailers) has been brought into the camps. These changes were depicted on the original camp maps. Photographs of camps, buildings, pump stations, siphons, and general island landscaping were also taken during the field visit to augment the notes.

RESULTS

Resources on Bacon Island consist of labor camps, a bridge tender's residence, pump and siphon systems, irrigation ditches, and agricultural fields. Labor camps contain from just a few to dozens of buildings, both modern and historic (Table 3), and are fairly evenly distributed around the perimeters of the island (see Figure 2). Some of the camps also have indications of archaeological deposits, as seen in surface scatters of ceramic sherds, glass, and metal bits. All of the camps on the island appear to have been constructed by George Shima between 1915 and 1916 (Fujita 1980). Many of the buildings are similar as a result of Shima's use of architectural patterns. Examples of the various building types are presented in Appendix A.

The following discussion describes the island resources, beginning with a general overview of the engineering features and landscape, and ending with summaries of the architectural and archaeological elements found at each camp. For ease of discussion, the architectural and archaeological remains have been discussed camp by camp. Past and existing impacts to each camp are included in this discussion.

Engineering Features and the Cultural Landscape

As with all reclaimed land in the delta, Bacon Island is maintained through a series of pumps and siphons. Siphons extend through the base of the levee to the sloughs surrounding the island. Operated by valves, the manipulation of the system allows farmers to regulate the amount of water brought onto the island from the delta waterways. Water is released from the siphon pipes directly into irrigation canals and from there flows throughout the island. The water is finally returned to the delta waterways by pumps during low tides.

Two pumphouses are present on the island—one at the north end of the island and one in the central western section. Both are situated near the levee. The northern pumphouse is metal and is modern in appearance; it releases water into Connection Slough. The second pumphouse is located on the west side of the island, is set on piers, and is a frame structure; it releases water into Old River. This pumphouse was built in 1915 by George Shima and contains electrical pumping equipment, gauges, and regulating devices.

As mentioned above, the water brought into the island is released into irrigation ditches. Generally, the island consists of approximately 5,500 acres of land divided into numerous fields by small irrigation ditches. As depicted in Figure A, these small ditches surround fields ranging in size from less than 10 acres to nearly 100 acres. Water flow is regulated by small gates and valves located on the primary ditches, and ditches are maintained by each farmer. Some water is taken from Youngs Slough, a natural slough located in the north central portion of the island. Youngs Slough flows into the large irrigation ditch that divides the island and the water is then dispersed throughout the agricultural fields.

Table 3. Architectural Data Summary of Bacon Island

Descriptive Name	Single Residence	Duplex Residence	Boarding House	Bunkhouse	Barn	Shed	Packing Shed	Modern Building	Other	Total No. of Buildings
Camp 1	-	-	-	1	-	-	-	-	dining hall, washroom, toilet, cookhouse	5
Camp 2	-	-	2	-	-	1	-	3	2 garages, small footbridge, domestic trees	8
Camp 3	3	-	3	2	2	3	-	15	2 washhouses, kitchen, garage, orange and acacia trees, wooden sidewalks, wooden footbridge	32
Camp 4	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	-	3 garages, walnut trees, grapes	5
Camp 5	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	large concrete pad, fig trees	0
Camp 6	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	concrete pad	0
Camp 8	-	-	1	-	-	-	1	3	possible office, washhouse	7
Camp 9	1	-	-	-	1	2	1	4	garden	9
Camp 10	1	-	-	-	1	-	-	1	2 garages	5
Camp 10½	1	1	-	1	-	-	-	2	cookhouse, garage, fig tree	7
Camp 11	1	-	-	-	-	-	1	5	yard	7
Bridge Tender's Residence	1	-	-	-	-	1	-	-	wharf or landing dock	2
Camp 12	2	2	2	1	-	2	-	18	bathroom, icehouse, garden, shrubbery, roses	29
Other	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1*	2 pumping stations (one modern, one historic)	3
Totals	10	4	9	5	4	9	3	52	23 buildings	119

* Modern warehouse/packing shed in center of island.

Crops grown on Bacon Island vary from year to year and season to season. In the last few years asparagus, sunflowers, small grains, and beans have been observed in the fields of Bacon Island. Fields are maintained by workers housed in camps located around the periphery of the island at the base of the levee.

Twelve camp locations have been identified around the perimeter of the island; 10 of these contain standing structures and many also have archaeological elements. In addition, a bridge tender's residence (originally used by the ferry operator) is located just south of the Bacon Island Bridge entrance on the east side of the island. The final architectural resource, the Bacon Island Bridge, connects the island to the rest of the county. Generally, the camps and other resources on the island date to the mid-1910s, when George Shima was actively involved in developing agriculture in the delta.

In 1989 each camp was recorded both in the state archaeological inventory system and in the State of California Historic Resources Inventory. Both programs are maintained by the State Office of Historic Preservation. Camp numbers used in this report correspond to the historical designation of each resource as depicted on historic maps. State assigned trinomials are also provided in parentheses.

Camp 1 (CA-SJO-211-H)

Camp 1 is situated at the extreme southwest corner of the island. Virtually abandoned, at one time (ca. 1918) it was used by Shima as his residence and headquarters when he was on the island (Fujita 1980; San Joaquin County 1918). Today, the camp contains five structures in varying degrees of decay, foundation remains, and artifacts (Figure 13).

ARCHITECTURAL ELEMENTS

Bunkhouse (Building 1)

This Craftsman Vernacular two-story bunkhouse is elevated on wooden piers. It has a front-gabled roof, wooden shingles, and exposed rafters. The doors have five vertical panels and the windows are sliding, four-pane horizontal sash. Exterior stairways provide second story access and are flanked by doorways to the lower story. The interior lower floor is divided into three rooms by tongue and groove walls that extend three-quarters of the way to the ceiling. The upper story has two rooms, divided by the same type of walls with shelving around the walls. The house, although in original condition, is deteriorated and is currently used as a storage facility for fertilizer and bags of powdered chemicals.

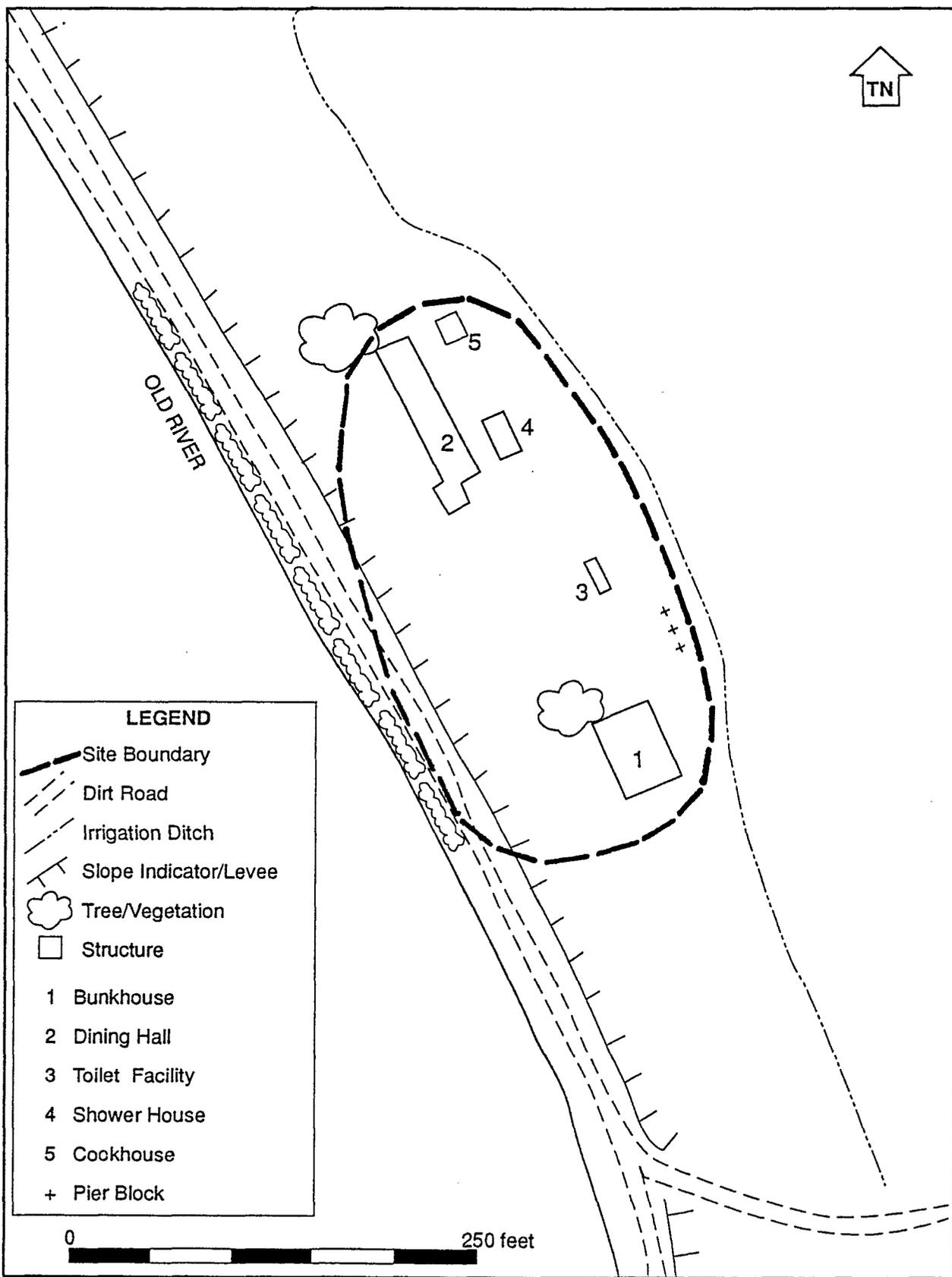


Figure 13. Camp 1 Sketch Map

Dining Hall (Building 2)

The Camp 1 dining hall is a long (90 feet) and narrow (20 feet) structure with a low-pitched gable roof and exposed rafters built in a Craftsman Vernacular style. The building is clad with vertical board siding on the ends and horizontal board on the sides; the boards are currently covered with tarpaper. The east and west sides have several 12-pane sash windows along their length. Most of the doors are of five vertical panels, but one on the east side is an inverted cruciform panel door. The interior of the hall consists of a large eating room with composition floor and plywood ceiling; original tables and benches are still in place. Two storerooms are on the north side and a shed-roofed addition is present on the south.

Toilet and Shower Houses (Buildings 3, 4)

The utilitarian toilet facility has a shed roof and a concrete floor. Five standpipes extend beyond the roof line. The windows are small, single-pane sash. The Craftsman style shower house (Building 4) has a low-pitched gable roof and exposed rafters and louvers in the end gables. The floor is of concrete and there are metal stalls in the interior. The buildings average 27 feet by 9 feet and may have been built several years after the bunkhouse and dining hall, around 1925.

Cookhouse (Building 5)

Located east of the dining hall, the Vernacular style cookhouse is wooden and has a gable roof and horizontal board siding. It measures 12 feet by 16 feet and is supported by wooden piers. The interior has been gutted and some of the boards removed, but the hot water heater and stove are still present.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL ELEMENTS AND SITE IMPACTS

The archaeological component at Camp 1 encompasses approximately 70,000 square feet. Associated artifacts are scattered across the surface of the site and include Japanese blue and white transferprinted porcelain fragments, clear and amber glass fragments, white improved earthenware ceramic sherds, and bits of metal. Artifacts reflect the personal and domestic use of the camp.

Remnants of a structure that was removed in the past are found in three concrete pier blocks located at the edge of the field.

The camp is vacant and is rapidly deteriorating. Buildings have been invaded by insects and rodents. The cookhouse, in particular, has numerous large bee hives that have been constructed inside the walls and in the eaves.

In addition to the dilapidated condition of the buildings, the surrounding ground has been sporadically subjected to grading and plowing. Artifacts are found scattered in plow furrows

extending east from the site, as well as in the cleared areas around each structure. In spite of the disturbance, the layout of the camp and its architectural design elements have been retained.

Camp 2 (CA-SJO-212-H)

This camp is located on the west side of the island, north of Camp 1. It consists of two large boarding houses, one in use and one abandoned, and other architectural features (i.e., garages). A small, wooden footbridge provides access over the irrigation ditch that crosses the camp (Figure 14). Modern trailers are also present, as are small gardens and a scattering of historical and modern artifacts.

ARCHITECTURAL ELEMENTS

Boarding House (Building 1)

This Craftsman style boarding house is two stories in height with an end-gabled shingled roof and exposed rafters; it measures 26 feet by 36 feet. Concrete piers support the structure. There is a central dormer in the front with three double-paned windows. The dormer is covered with shingles while the lower story has horizontal siding. A two-story porch, enclosed after initial construction, is present across the front or west facade and has vertical siding.

A central entry on the lower floor and an upper entry on the south side of the front-facing facade provide access into the structure. The doors have five vertical panels, while the majority of the windows are either six-pane or single-pane sash. A small porch with a shed roof measures 6 feet by 10 feet and is present on the north side of the building. This boarding house, which is abandoned, is similar to another one at Camp 2 and to structures at Camps 3, 4, and 12 (see Appendix A).

Boarding House (Building 2)

Similar to Building 1 in mass and style, this Craftsman structure lacks the dormer and enclosed porch of its camp mate. Instead it has a two-story porch located on the west front of the building with entrances on both floors; the second story door is in the center front and the first story is located to the south. A shed-roofed addition is situated to the east rear of the structure and measures 6 feet by 10 feet. Windows are either six-pane or single-pane sash. The building measures 36 feet by 26 feet and is supported on concrete piers. It appears to be in original condition and is currently in use.

Shed (Building 3)

This small Craftsman style shed is located to the north of Building 2 and has a gable shingle roof and horizontal board siding. There is a diamond-shaped louvre in the end gable and the shed has exposed rafters.

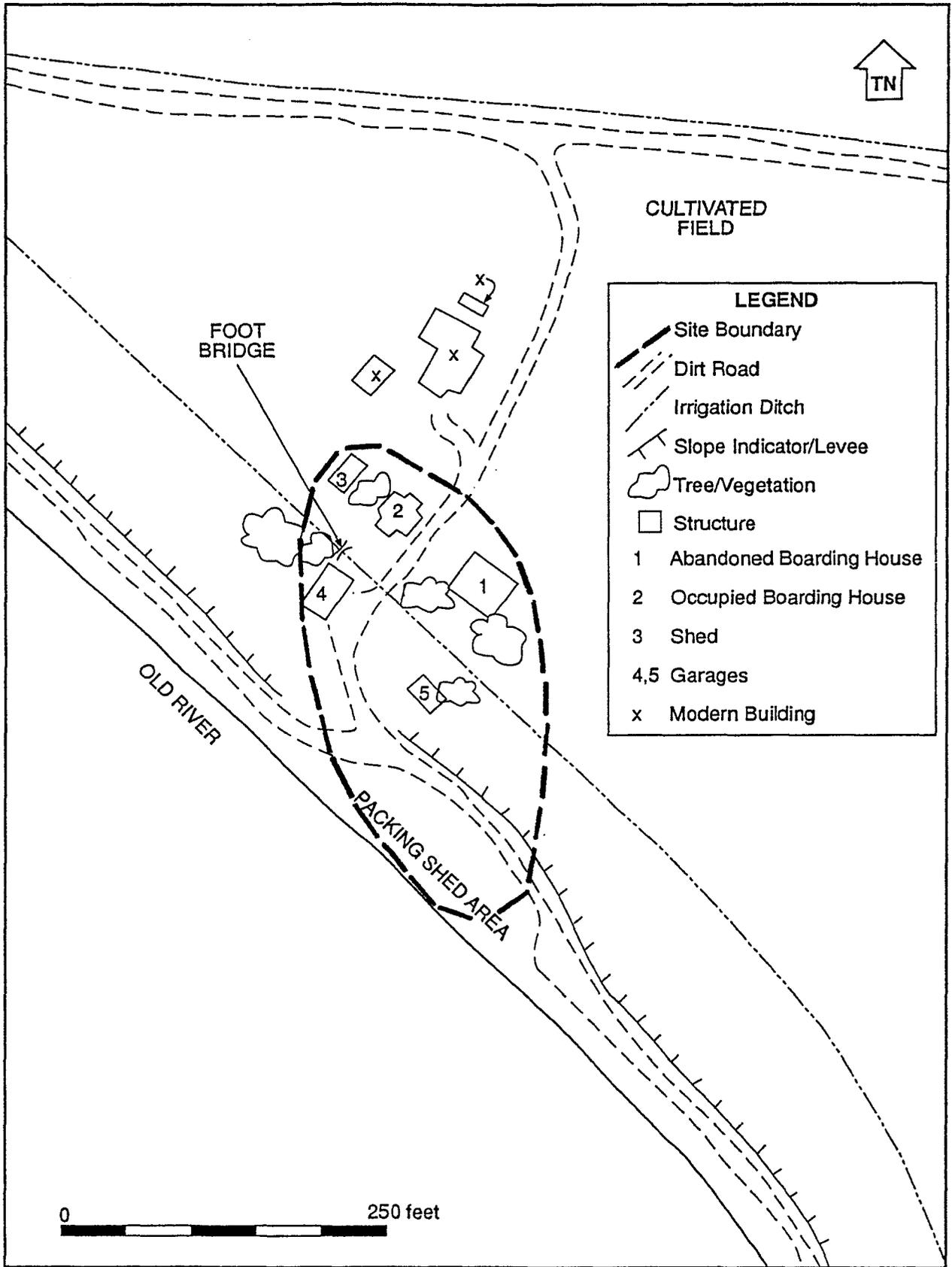


Figure 14. Camp 2 Sketch Map

Garages (Buildings 4, 5)

Two Vernacular style garages are also present on the west side of the camp. These house two to three vehicles and have both open and closed bays, using sliding wooden doors.

Modern Buildings

Three modern structures are also present at Camp 2. These consist of a trailer, a small, one-story dwelling, and an outbuilding. They are clustered in the north end of the camp and do not detract from its historic appearance.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL ELEMENTS AND SITE IMPACTS

The site is located at the base of the levee and covers a total area of 62,840 square feet. Artifactual material associated with the site includes a portion of a large, Japanese sake bottle base of white glazed earthenware and clear, amber, aqua, and green glass fragments. A leveled area on the top of the levee is representative of a packing shed that once graced the site.

Continuous use of the site area since 1915 has resulted in the dispersal of the historic materials and has impacted the structures. Building 1 is vacant and is slowly deteriorating. During the initial survey in 1989, a large (115 foot by 30 foot) packing shed was located on top of the levee. Included in the initial inventory, this sheet metal structure had a collapsed loading dock on the east side and appeared to have been constructed in the mid-1910s. It has been removed since 1989 and no indication of its original location, other than a flattened pad, is present.

Camp 3 (CA-SJO-213-H)

Now used by Rancho Del Rio Corporation, Camp 3 may also have served as headquarters for George Shima's extensive delta operations after 1918 (Fujita 1980). One of two large camps on the island, the camp contains 17 historic structures, 15 modern buildings, gardens, footbridges, water tanks, and artifacts (Figure 15).

ARCHITECTURAL ELEMENTS

Duplex/Kitchen (Building 1)

This Craftsman Vernacular structure is one story, rectangular, and measures 75 feet by 45 feet. It has a corrugated metal end-gable roof with rafters. The south entry porch has a roof supported with triangular bracing and the rear of the building has four doors. The doors have five vertical panels, and the original windows are of single-pane sash (some have been replaced with aluminum). The siding is channeled, but it is covered with asphalt in some places.

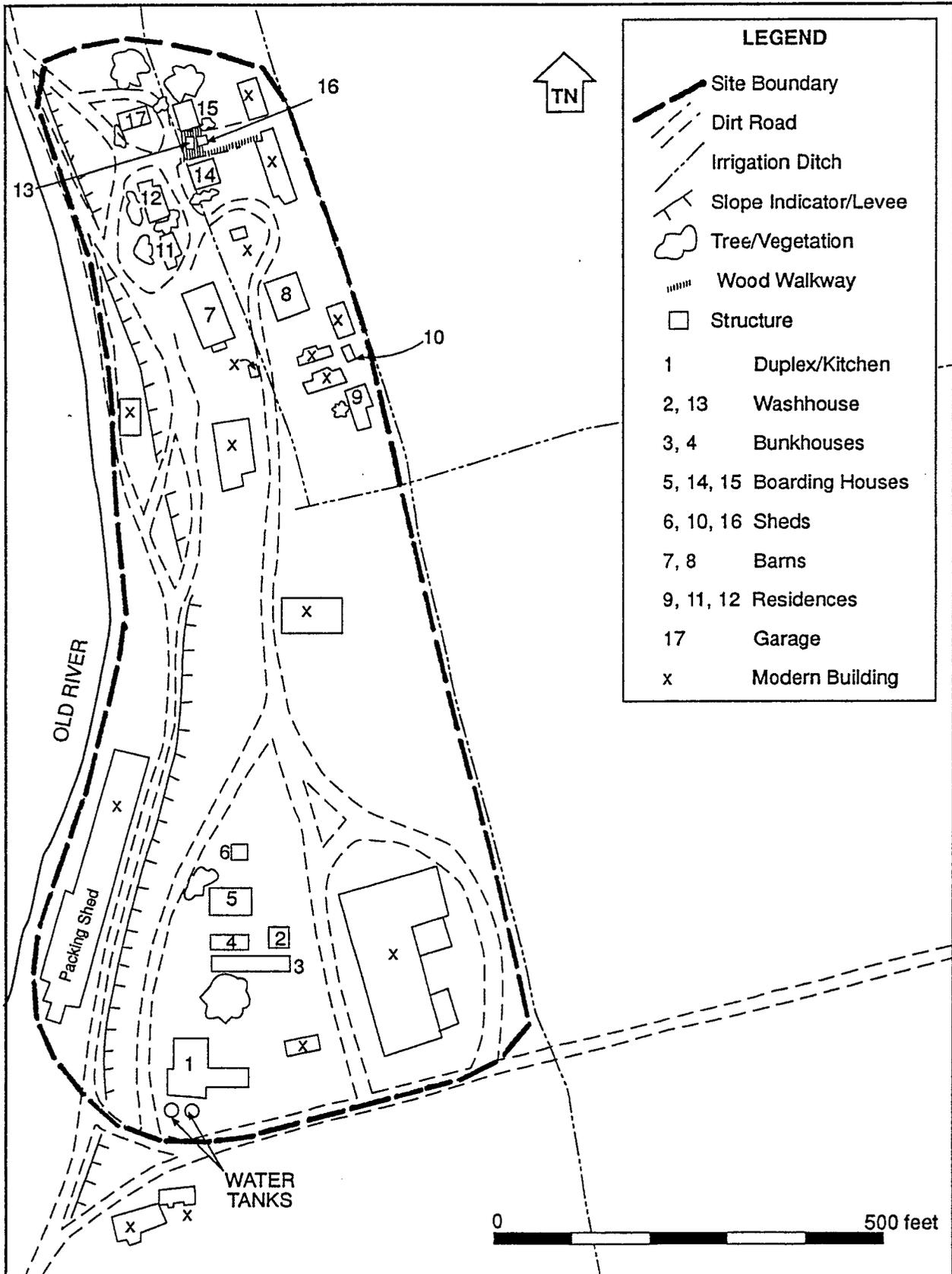


Figure 15. Camp 3 Sketch Map

The buildings are both 15 feet wide, but Building 3 is 90 feet long and Building 4 is 45 feet long. One of the bunkhouses has a metal roof and the other a shingled one. A sheet metal washhouse (Building 2) adjoins the structures.

Boarding House (Building 5) and Shed (Building 6)

This large Craftsman boarding house (Building 5) is two-and-one-half stories tall and is supported by wooden piers. It has an end-gable roof with cross-gabled dormers to the east and west; the roof rafters are exposed and the roof and dormers are covered with shingles. Louvers are in the gable ends. The siding is channeled, wider on the upper story and narrower on the lower, and has end boards. The windows on the lower story are of six-pane sash, while those on the upper stories are single-pane sash.

There is a recessed central entry on the west front with a glass and panel door, and there are entrances to the second and third stories on the south side of the building, reached by a stairway. The north side of the structure has two entrances, one on the lower floor and another on the upper floor. The doors have five vertical panels. There is a two-story porch on the east rear of the building, the upper portion having been enclosed after the original construction. The house is 35 feet by 43 feet in dimension.

The upper story was added to the building ca. 1930 to house more laborers. At that time, the first story was an unpartitioned room that housed 50 men. The second story housed offices (including Shima's), three bedrooms, and a bathroom. The third story had six small rooms, a shower, and a kitchen (Fujita 1980). A small wooden shed (Building 6) is adjacent to the house on its north side.

Barn (Building 7)

The equipment barn has a corrugated metal gable roof with two vent monitors on top. The siding is board and batten. There are two sliding wooden barn doors on both the south and the north. There are two windows of six-pane sash on each end of the building with six-pane windows down both sides. The structure measures 36 feet by 45 feet.

Barn (Building 8)

This large barn measures 80 feet by 40 feet and has board and batten siding, a shingled gable roof, and a wooden pier foundation. There are two sliding barn doors on the west front and small windows with wooden sliders on both sides.

Residence (Building 9) and Shed (Building 10)

This Craftsman Vernacular one-story building (Building 9) is long and rectangular and is supported on wooden piers. It measures 50 feet by 15 feet and has a low-pitched, end-gable roof with exposed rafters. The roof is covered with corrugated sheet metal, and there are

louvers in the gable ends. The entry door on the west has a roof with triangular bracing. There are shed-roofed additions to the east side of the main structure.

A small wooden shed (Building 10) is located north of the house. Cactus, roses, and a vegetable garden are present on the east side of the house.

Residence (Building 11)

This one-story Craftsman Vernacular structure sits on wood piers and has a low-pitched, end-gable roof with exposed rafters. The building measures 28 feet by 18 feet, and the siding has been covered with asphalt. The porch on the north front has been enclosed. There is a partial porch on the east front with square support posts leading to the main entry. The front door has five vertical panels and the original windows are of six-pane sash. Some of the windows on the west rear have been replaced with aluminum sash. There is also a small shed-roofed addition to the south of the building.

Residence (Building 12)

This building is very similar to Building 11 in that it is one story, supported by wooden piers, has a low-pitched, end-gable roof with exposed rafters, and represents a Craftsman Vernacular style. It is rectangular in shape and measures 28 feet by 20 feet. The original siding has been covered with asphalt. The central entry door has five vertical panels, and most of the windows are of single-pane sash while some of them have been replaced with aluminum. There is a shed-roofed, two-room addition to the north of the main structure.

Laundry/Washhouse (Building 13)

This utilitarian building is a simple one-story structure with corrugated-metal gable roof, wide horizontal board siding, and doors with five vertical panels. The windows are six-paned sash. The structure is rectangular and measures 22 feet by 10 feet.

Boarding House (Building 14)

This Craftsman structure is three stories high, measures 30 feet by 30 feet, and is supported on concrete piers. It has a steeply pitched, end-gabled, corrugated metal roof with exposed rafters, and there is a dormer on the west front with three, four-paned sash windows. The dormer is covered with shingles, while the rest of the house has channeled siding that is now covered with asphalt.

There is a porch with gable roof and a stairway on the north side and a covered porch on the south. The upper story porch on the west front has two entries and a long stairway leading from the ground level. The entries to the lower story are located on the north and south sides, and the doors have five vertical panels. The windows on the lower story are of six-pane sash, while the upper story has sash with two horizontal panes. There is an addition with a shed roof

on the south porch entrance and some of the windows have been replaced with aluminum, but otherwise the building is in its original condition. Similar boarding houses are located at Camps 2 and 12.

Boarding House (Building 15)

This Craftsman boarding house is two stories high, measures 27 feet by 24 feet, and is set on tall concrete piers. The gable roof is covered with shingles and has exposed rafters. The lower story has channeled siding with end boards, while the upper story has board and batten. There is a stairway to the upper-story porch that has a plywood covering. The windows on the lower story are six-pane sash; the lower story windows have one large pane above six small panes. The doors have five vertical panels. This structure is closely akin to one at Camp 4.

The house is surrounded by vegetation. Identified trees and plants in the front yard (facing the levee) include acacia and orange trees, cactus, geraniums, and roses.

Shed (Building 16)

This small one-roomed shed has Craftsman elements as seen in a low-pitched gable roof with exposed rafters. Located next to a washhouse, between two large boarding houses, the structure is covered with asphalt siding. The door has five vertical panels, and the windows are six-pane sash.

Garage (Building 17)

A wooden carport or garage accommodates four vehicles. The garage openings face south and are open bays separated by wooden posts.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL ELEMENTS AND SITE IMPACTS

The site comprises a total area of 740,334 square feet. Artifacts are scattered over the surface of the site and consist of fragments of clear, amber, aqua, and green glass. White improved earthenware fragments were noted near one of the bunkhouses in the southern portion of the site.

The site has been used consistently since ca. 1915. It is the headquarters for Rancho Del Rio and has at least a dozen workers living on site at any given time. Modern trash is present everywhere, especially in the many irrigation ditches that cross the site. Superficial changes to the architectural elements include cladding the wooden siding with asphalt paper, constructing fire escapes along the outside of the buildings from upper floors, and replacing a few windows with aluminum windows. Generally, however, the structures have not been significantly altered.

Camp 4 (CA-SJO-214-H)

Camp 4 is also located on the west side of the island, just north of the pumping station. The camp includes only a few buildings, a garden area, and a sparse artifact scatter (Figure 16).

ARCHITECTURAL ELEMENTS

Duplex Residence (Building 1)

The structure is one story, rectangular, and set on concrete piers. Craftsman Vernacular in style, it has a low-pitched, end-gabled roof covered with corrugated metal and louvers in the gable ends. The siding is channeled and has been partially covered with asphalt paper. The windows are six panes below a single rectangular pane. Enclosed porches with shed roofs are located on the south and north sides and are reached by stairs. There is a shed-roofed addition to the east rear.

Boarding House (Building 2)

This Craftsman boarding house is two stories high, measures 27 feet by 24 feet, and is set on tall concrete piers. The gable roof is covered with shingles and has exposed rafters. The original channeled siding with endboards has been covered with asphalt paper. There is a stairway to the upper story and an enclosed porch on the west side. The doors have five vertical panels, while the screen doors have three panels below the screen. The windows in the upper story have six panes, and those on the lower story have one large pane above six panes.

A large walnut tree is growing between the two houses. In addition, grapes, false bamboo, roses, cactus, and a small vegetable garden are present around the camp.

Garages (Buildings 3, 4, and 5)

Three garages are also present at the camp. These are both two bay and three bay in size and have open fronts. The garages are wood with metal roofs.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL ELEMENTS AND SITE IMPACTS

The site covers a total area of 35,348 square feet. Modern remains such as modern glass and plastic were noted around the camp, particularly near the larger boarding house. One fragment of Japanese blue and white transferprinted ware was noted.

Camp 4 shows evidence of continual disturbance by vehicles, farm equipment, ongoing residency, and domestic animals. The buildings are dilapidated but are still in use.

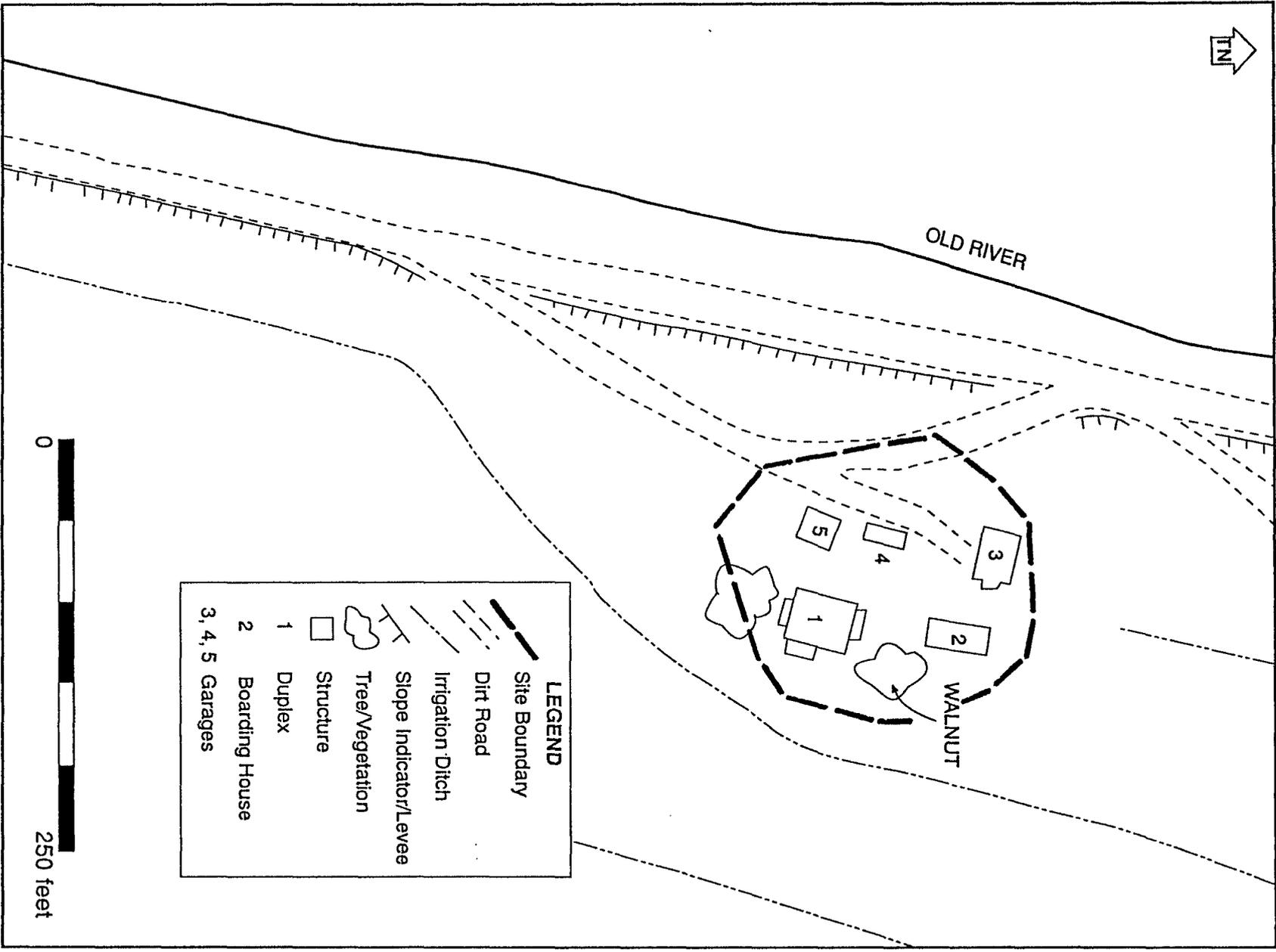


Figure 16. Camp 4 Sketch Map

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Camp 5 (CA-SJO-215-H)

Originally used as a landing and residence by Sherman Day after 1875 (Paterson et al. 1978), the site is noted as Days Landing on historical maps in 1883 (Reid 1883; Rose 1895) and as Bee Ranch in 1905 (Quail 1905). By 1917 it had been developed by George Shima into Labor Camp #5 (Widdows 1917), one of 12 main camps situated around the island. All standing structures were removed before 1985 and the site is now represented only by its archaeological remains (Figure 17).

ARCHAEOLOGICAL ELEMENTS

The site is located on the west side of Bacon Island at the base of the levee and comprises a total area of 682,808 square feet. It consists of one large concrete pad with the bulldozed remains of other structures, two large fig trees, and artifactual material. The structural remains consist of milled lumber with wire nails, concrete pier block fragments, blue linoleum fragments, and asphalt roofing material.

Domestic trash includes brown glazed Chinese ceramic fragments (e.g., storage jars and soy sauce bottles), clear glass, cobalt blue glass, white Japanese porcelain fragments, white opaque glass, white improved earthenware fragments, blue and white Euroamerican plate fragments, and a "REX" brand lard bucket. Solarized amethyst-colored glass was noted on the levee road. The majority of these artifacts are functionally classified as domestic in nature, relating to food storage, preparation, and consumption.

Miscellaneous automobile parts, 3/8-inch steel cable, concrete blocks and piers, lath, pipe, concrete culvert remnants, and pieces of porcelain sinks and toilets were also noted on the site and in the adjacent field. Plants noted on site include fig trees, cottonwoods, various grasses, and cattails.

SITE IMPACTS

The most obvious disturbance to the site has been caused by the removal and leveling of the standing structures once associated with Camp 5. Concrete pieces, piers, and rubble are present across the site surface. Concrete rubble has also been piled on top of a concrete pad representing the remains of an historic packing shed or warehouse.

Camp 6 (CA-SJO-223-H)

At the time of the initial survey of Bacon Island in 1989, Camp 6 included a concrete pad, artifacts, modern trailers and a shed, and a two-story, frame foreman's house constructed in a Craftsman style. Since initial recording, the standing structures have been removed, leaving only the archaeological remains (Figure 18).

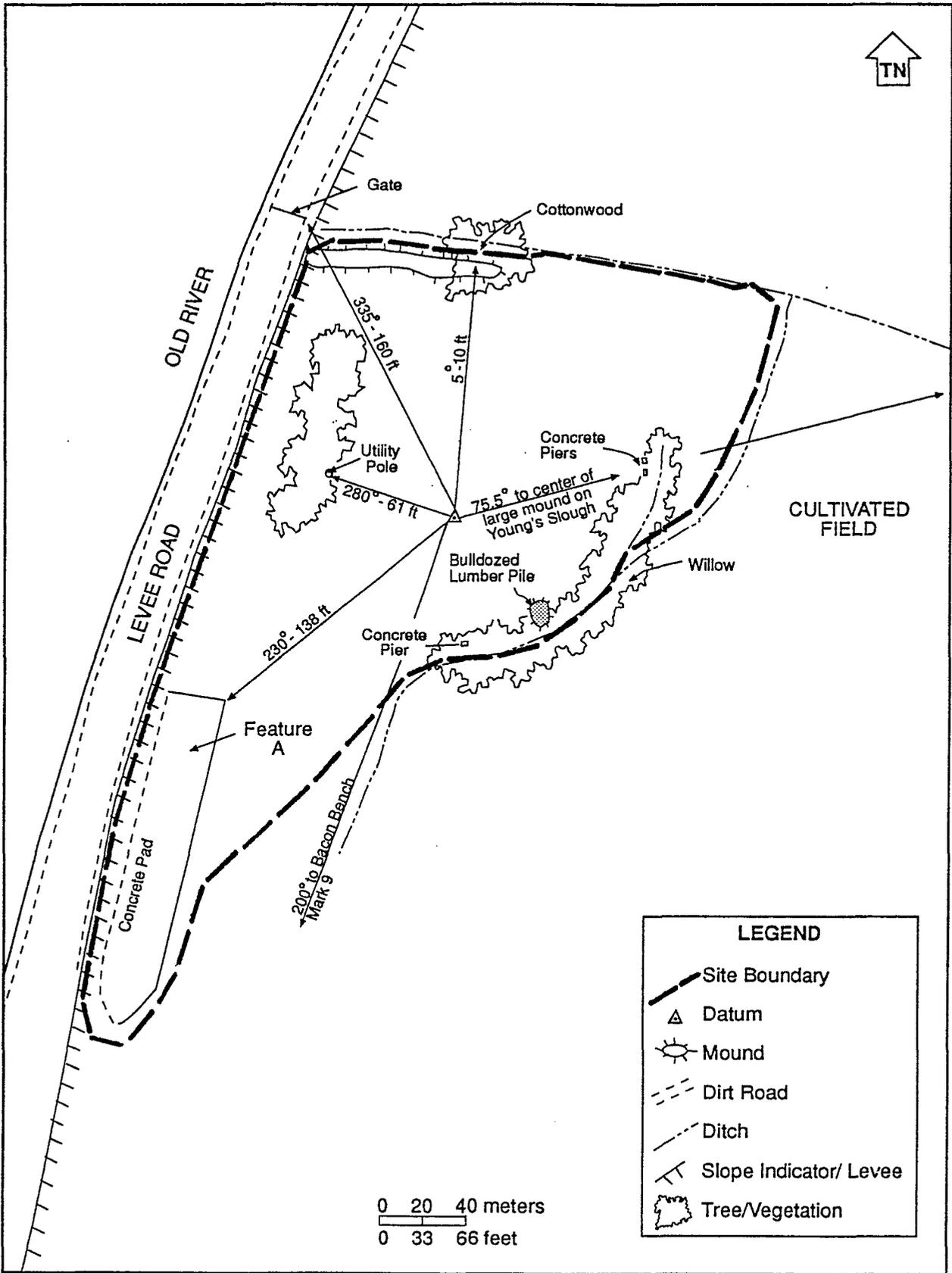


Figure 17. Camp 5 Sketch Map

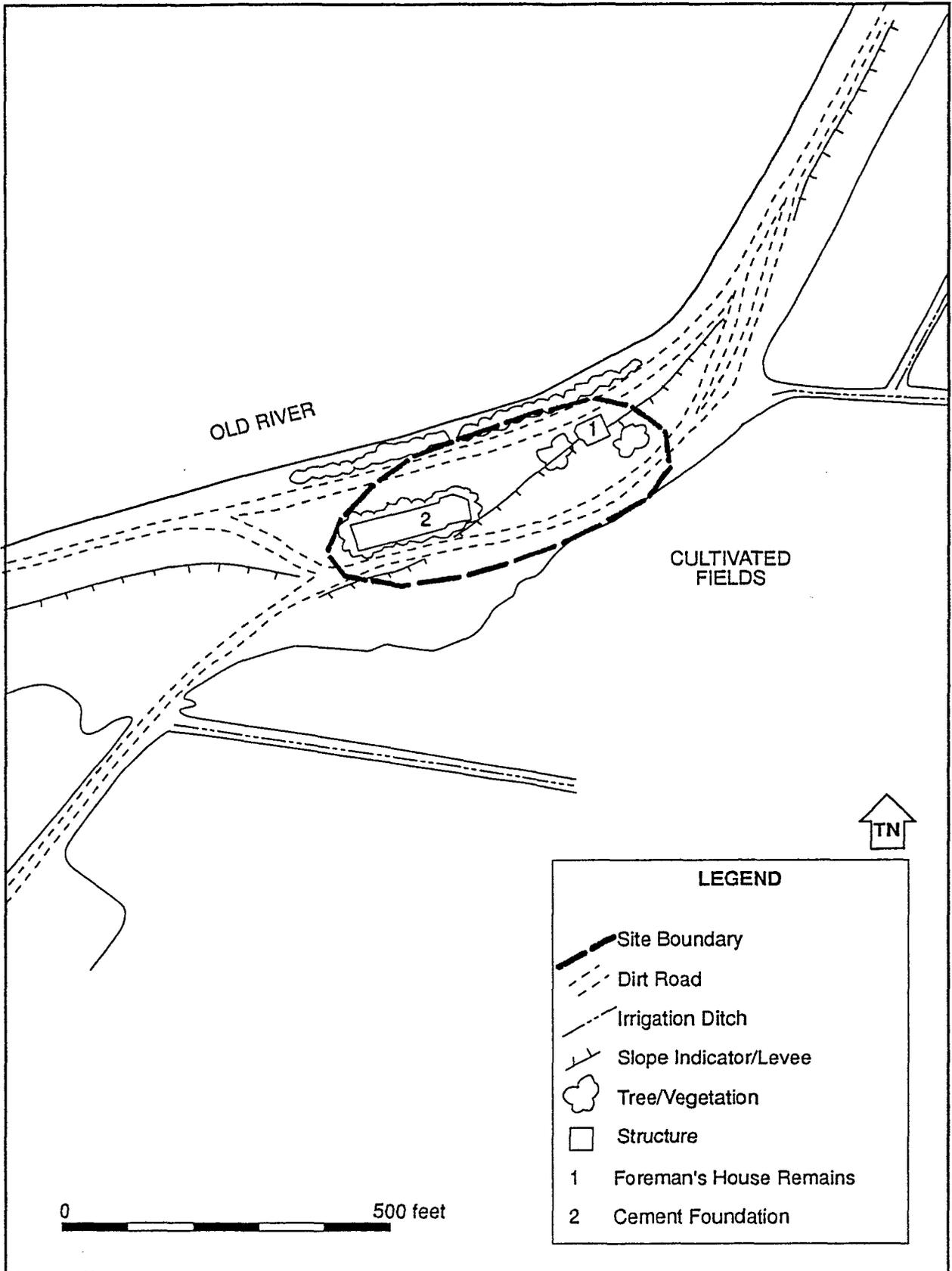


Figure 18. Camp 6 Sketch Map (CA-SJO-223-H)

ARCHAEOLOGICAL ELEMENTS

Structural remains at Camp 6 consist of a cement foundation pad, and concrete piers from the removed residence. The site encompasses 91,531 square feet. Modern trash litters the site, particularly around the trailer site and on the west side of the original house location. A few historic fragments of glass were also noted. A fenced area, enclosing a hazardous waste dump, was located on the site in 1988; it is not known if it is still present.

Domestic vegetation includes cardoon (an artichoke-like plant) growing on the levee, an orange tree, false bamboo, and pampas grass. Remnants of a vegetable garden and roses were observed in 1989. Blackberry brambles are present east of the house site and around the concrete foundation.

SITE IMPACTS

As with CA-SJO-215-H, the most obvious impact has occurred through removal of the Craftsman style foreman's house. Modern garbage is evident everywhere on the site attesting to recent disturbance. Plowing has occurred on and adjacent to the resources as well.

Camp 8 (CA-SJO-216-H)

Camp 8 includes a boarding house, office, warehouse or packing shed, and three modern trailers (Figure 19). A barn was noted in 1989 but is no longer present. The camp is located on the north end of Bacon Island, at the base of the east levee. Recent garbage was found on the site, but no archaeological material was noted.

ARCHITECTURAL ELEMENTS

Boarding House (Building 1)

This abandoned one-story Craftsman Vernacular boarding house is rectangular in shape with an end-gabled roof clad with metal. The siding is board and batten. Entries were present on all sides, and window frames are evenly spaced along the long sides of the building. The window openings no longer contain glass, but appear to have had six panes. A shed-roofed addition is present on the north end of the building and is wooden with a metal roof.

Packing Shed (Building 2)

In 1989 a large (100 feet by 30 feet) packing shed was recorded at this site. The main shed was wooden, but contained two metal extensions, one to the south and one to the north.

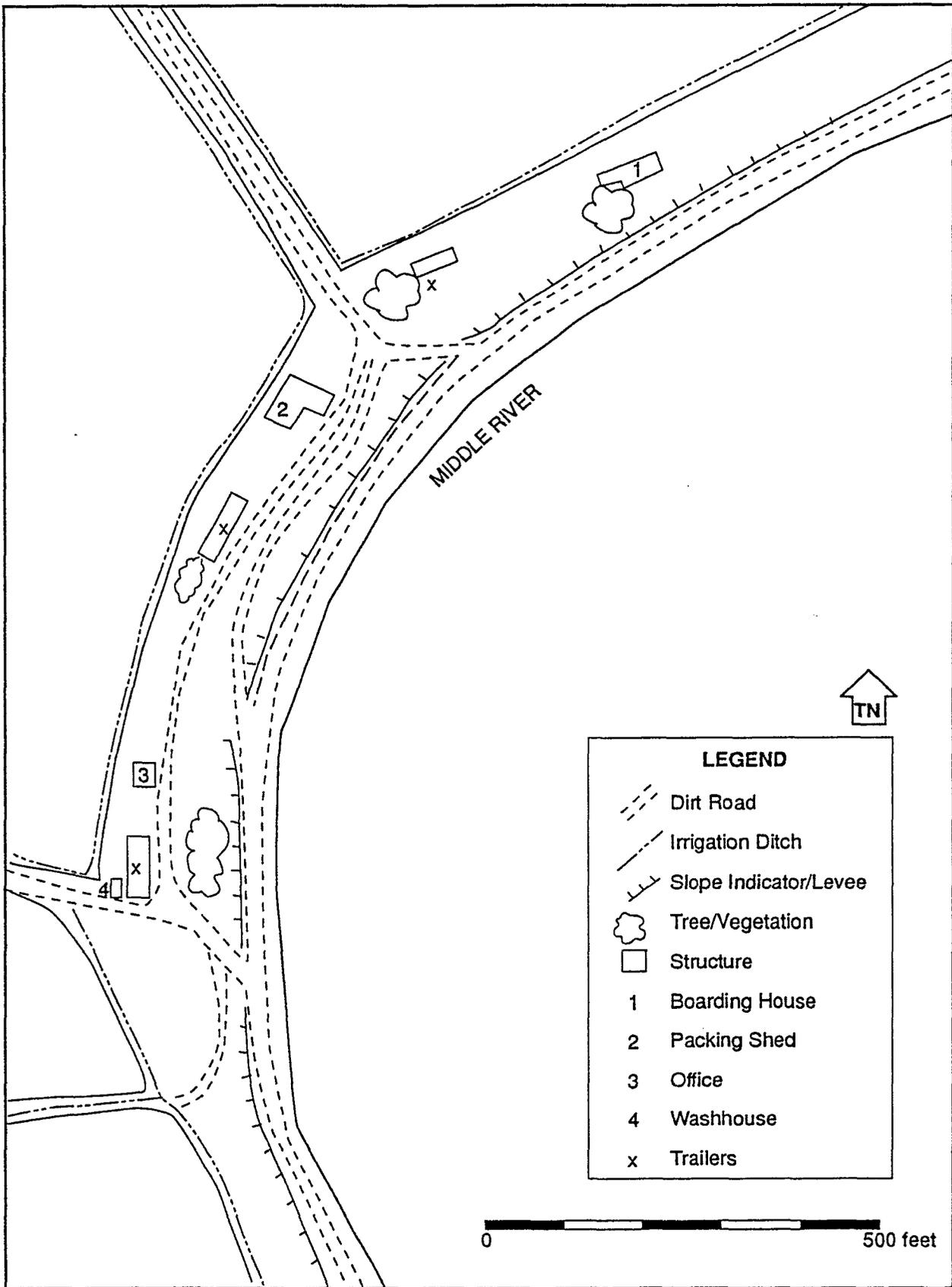


Figure 19. Camp 8 Sketch Map

In 1992 only the south extension remained; the rest of the shed has been removed. The extension measures 45 feet by 30 feet and is made of large corrugated aluminum with a low-pitched gable roof. There are sliding metal doors facing east. The shed is constructed on wooden piers.

Office (Building 3)

This Craftsman Vernacular structure is a simple one-room building that measures 28 feet by 18 feet with entries on all four sides. The siding is channeled and the roof is gabled and covered with corrugated metal. The interior has tongue and groove flooring and some newer plywood walls. The building has been gutted and all doors and windows are missing. It appears to have been used as an office.

Washhouse (Building 4)

A small, frame washhouse with board and batten siding and a gable roof is present behind a trailer on the site. The washhouse appears to have originally functioned as a women's shower house, but is currently used as a laundry facility.

SITE IMPACTS

A barn, located at the south end of the site and recorded in 1989, has been removed in the last several years and no remnants of it are visible. In addition, more than half of the original packing shed recorded in 1989 has been removed. Three modern trailers with carports are present at Camp 8 and house farm laborers. Gardens, sunflowers, and domestic vegetation were noted at Camp 8 and may relate to both historic and modern use.

Camp 9 (CA-SJO-217-H)

Camp 9 is situated on the east side of Bacon Island at the base of the levee. Structures on site include a barn, two sheds, a warehouse or packing shed, a garden, and four modern buildings (Figure 20). Recent garbage was observed on the ground surface surrounding the camp, but no indications of historic archaeological material were found.

ARCHITECTURAL ELEMENTS

Barn (Building 1)

This large, square barn is supported on raised concrete piers and has a gable roof covered with corrugated metal. The siding is of board and batten and there is a central entry door on the east front that is flanked by sliding barn doors. Both sides have small windows running along the length of the building. Pampas grass is growing around the barn.

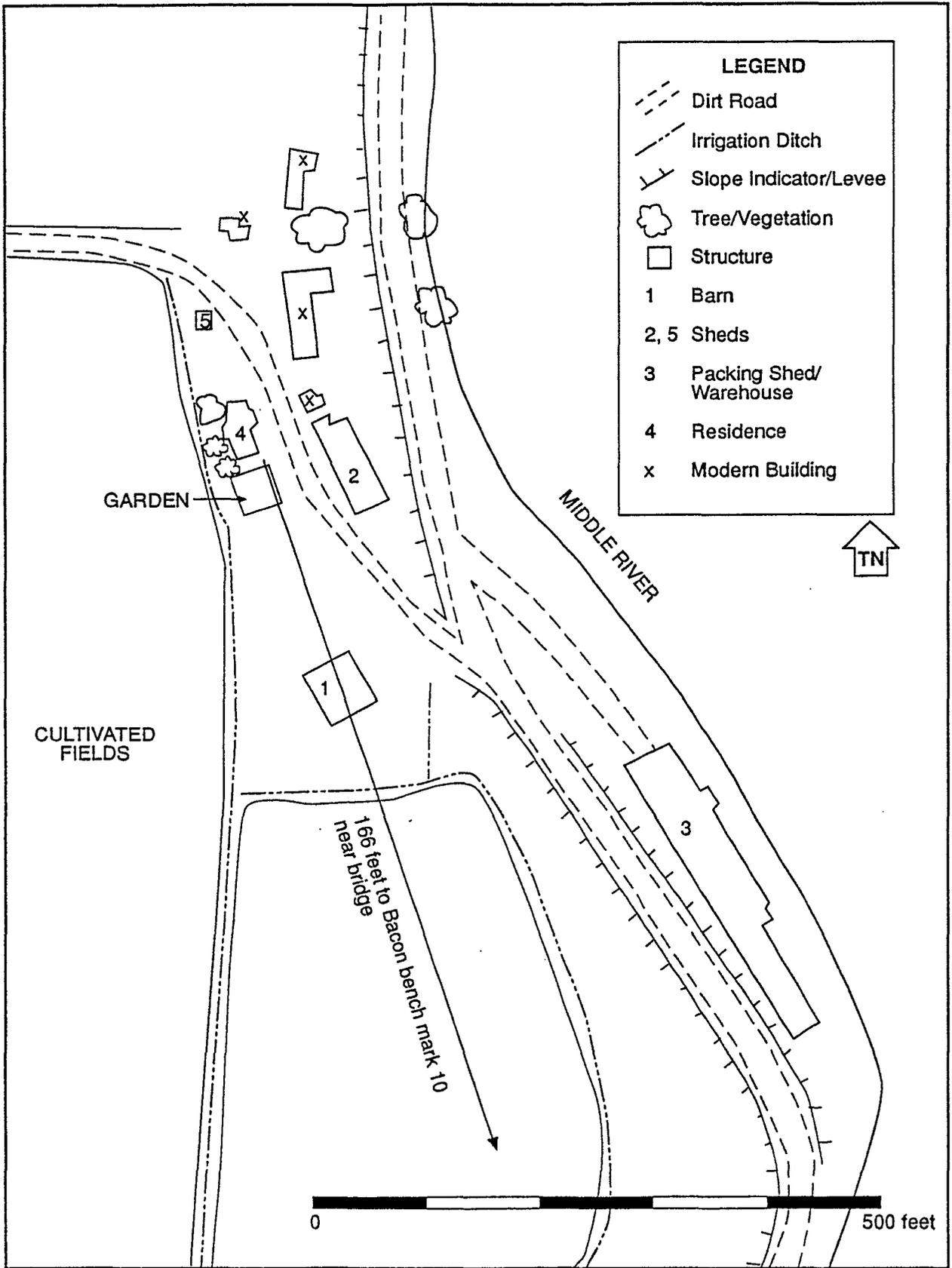


Figure 20. Camp 9 Sketch Map

Equipment Shed (Building 2)

This structure is a large board and batten equipment shed supported by concrete piers. Today it functions as a garage. Built in a Craftsman Vernacular style, it has four bays facing west and a gabled tin roof with exposed rafters. Knee braces support the roof at both gables, and the floor is concrete. An enclosed area on the north side has an intersecting gable roof.

Packing Shed/Warehouse (Building 3)

The packing shed is 285 feet long by 36 feet wide and sits on a concrete foundation on top of the levee. The roof is low-pitched gable and is covered with corrugated metal sheeting. The shed has corrugated metal siding and corrugated metal sliding doors.

Residence (Building 4)

This Craftsman style house measures 40 feet long by 20 feet wide and is one story high. The end-gable roof is covered with corrugated metal and has central louvers in the gable ends. The building siding is covered with sheets of gray asphalt. The east facade contains the front entrance, which is a central door flanked on the north by two long, rectangular windows. The south facade has two small square windows and a second entrance with a panel and glass door. A garden on the south side of the house contains canna lilies, cilantro, tomatoes, lettuce, chili peppers, and roses.

Shed (Building 5)

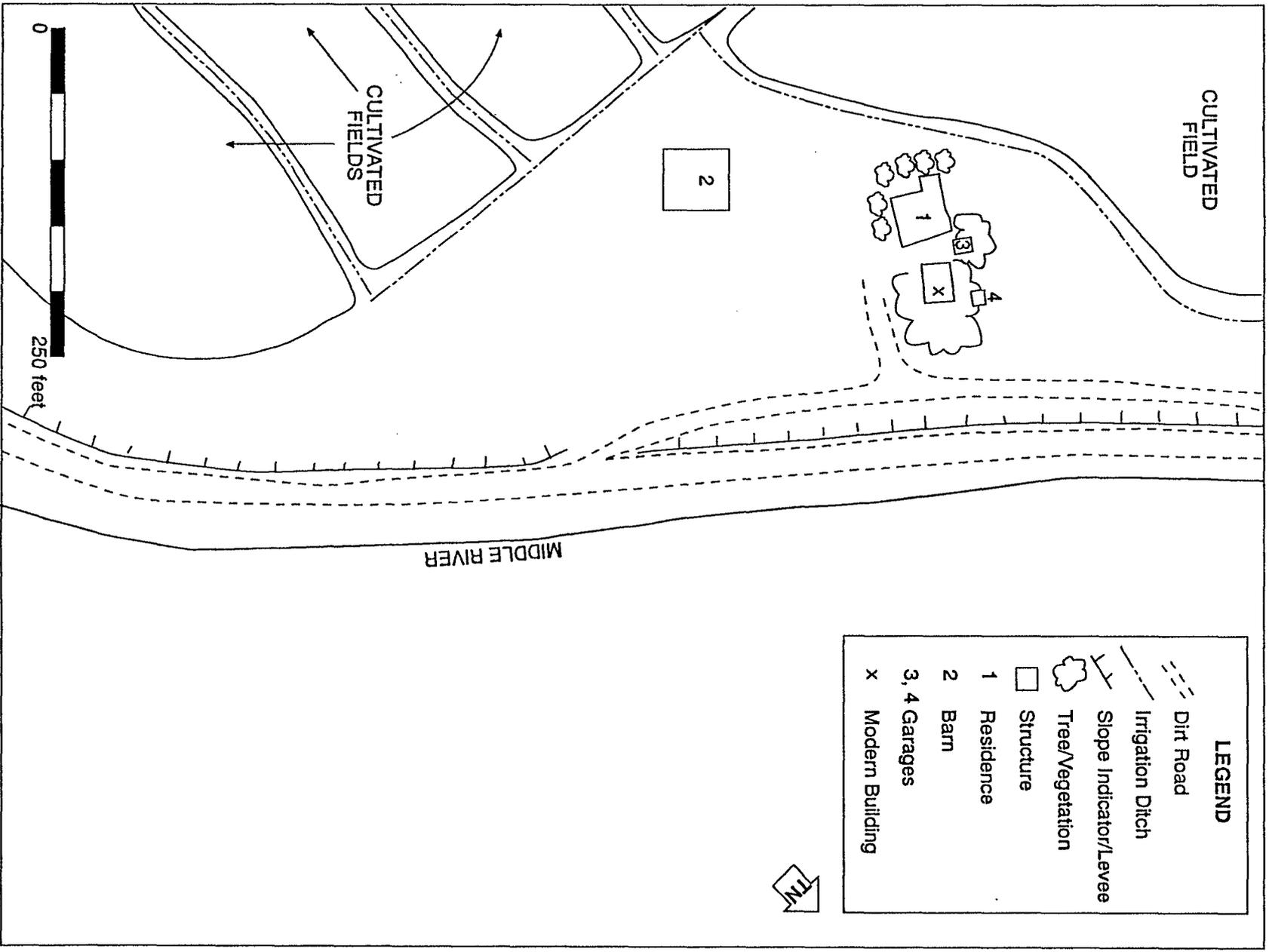
A small Craftsman Vernacular storage shed is located north of the residence. It has an end-gable roof covered with corrugated metal. The shed has board and batten siding and two small windows.

SITE IMPACTS

Continual use has impacted the site, but the buildings are unaltered.

Camp 10 (CA-SJO-218-H)

Camp 10 is small and contains a barn, two garages, a small house, and one modern building (Figure 21). Modern garbage is present around the camp, but no historical material was observed. Domestic shrubs and grasses surround the camp.



ARCHITECTURAL ELEMENTS

Residence (Building 1)

The house is built in a Craftsman Vernacular style and has a low-pitched corrugated metal gable roof with exposed rafters and louvers in the gable ends. The entry is to the south in this front-gable building and has a roof with triangular bracing. The original siding is covered with green asphalt, and the windows have been replaced with aluminum.

Barn (Building 2)

The barn is a large square building with a corrugated metal gable roof. The siding is board and batten, and the building is supported on wooden piers. There are small windows along both sides of the barn, and a central front entry is flanked by sliding barn doors.

Garages (Buildings 3 and 4)

Two wooden garages are present north of the house. These two- and three-bay structures are wooden with metal roofs.

SITE IMPACTS

Continual use of the site area and impacts from vehicles and farm equipment are evident. Recent garbage is present around the house.

Camp 10½ (CA-SJO-219-H)

Camp 10½ consists of a cookhouse, a bunkhouse, two residences, a garage, and two modern structures (Figure 22). Designed to function in association with nearby Camp 10, this resource contains a greater number of fruit trees and other vegetation. Historic artifacts are also present at this camp.

ARCHITECTURAL ELEMENTS

Foreman's House (Building 1)

The largest of the houses in this camp, this Craftsman structure has a cross-gable roof covered with corrugated metal. The structure is raised on wooden piers, and steps lead from the ground level to the porch. The porch is on the east front and has square posts and railing, both of which appear to be original. The original siding has been covered with green asphalt. The doors have five vertical panels, and the windows are of single-pane sash, double hung. There are additions to the rear and south of the house and a new aluminum window. A fig tree, roses, and shrubs grace the front yard.

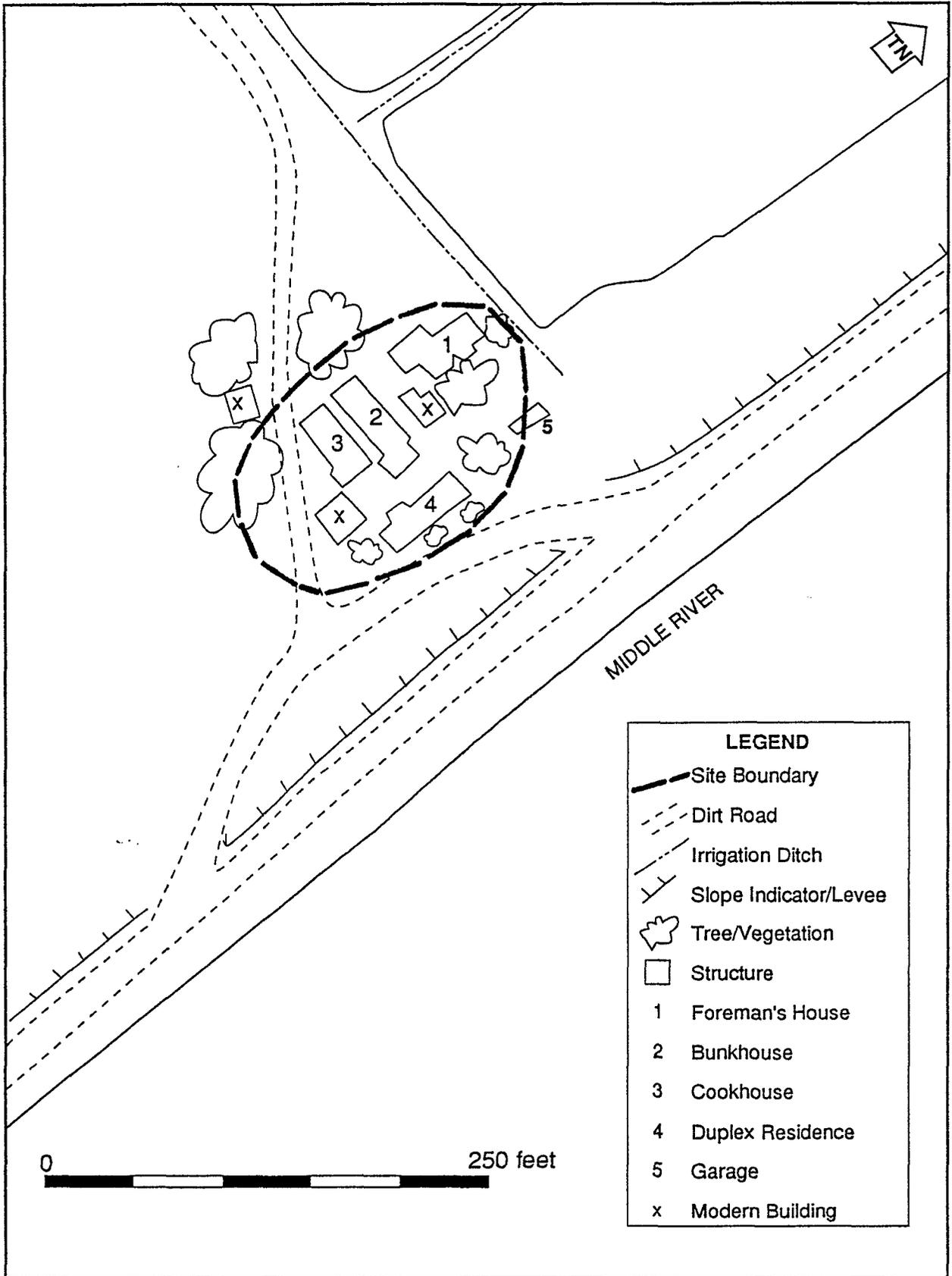


Figure 22. Camp 10 1/2 Sketch Map

Bunkhouse (Building 2)

Craftsman Vernacular in style, this structure has a front-gable roof covered with corrugated metal. The siding is of board and batten and the building measures 34 feet by 16 feet, with a newer shed roof addition to the rear. It is supported on wooden piers and there is a large roof over the front entry that extends into the yard. The doors have five vertical panels and the windows are of six-pane sash.

Cookhouse (Building 3)

This building has a front-gable roof with exposed rafters and is Craftsman Vernacular in architectural style. The original front entry has been boarded up and there are four-pane windows. A shed-roofed addition is attached to the south side of the building.

Duplex Residence (Building 4)

This Craftsman structure is a long, rectangular building measuring 60 feet by 16 feet and set on wooden piers. It has a low-pitched side-gable roof that is covered with asphalt paper. The siding has been covered with asphalt paper as well. The windows are four-paned and the doors have five vertical panels. The entry door is located on the east facade, is paneled with glass at the top, and is covered by a roof with triangular bracing. A small shed has been attached to the south rear of the house.

Garage (Building 5)

A three-bay garage is located north of the duplex. It is wooden with a corrugated metal roof.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL ELEMENTS AND SITE IMPACTS

This site covers a total of 24,065 square feet. Artifactual material consists of clear and aqua glass, Japanese blue and white transferprinted porcelain, and white improved earthenware. A fig tree and a few shrubs and flowers are present at the site.

The buildings have been maintained and are still in use. Ongoing residential use has impacted the archaeological material, but the camp is generally in good condition.

Camp 11 (CA-SJO-220-H)

Camp 11 is divided into two distinct sections; a huge packing shed is separated from the residential area by a distance of approximately 750 feet (Figure 23). The residential area contains one house and five modern structures. The camp has both architectural and archaeological elements and was built by Shima during his initial ventures on Bacon Island.

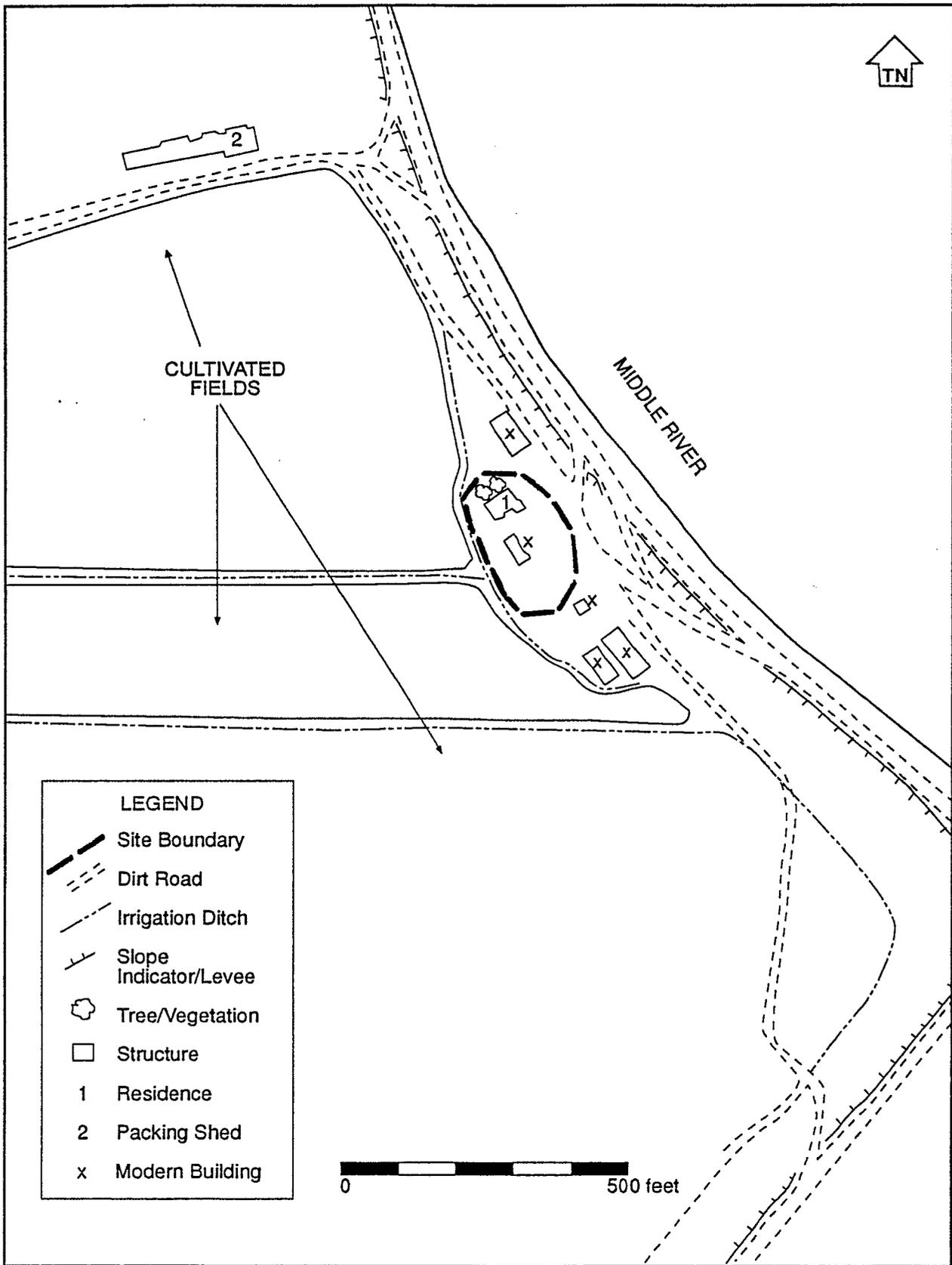


Figure 23. Camp 11 Sketch Map

ARCHITECTURAL ELEMENTS

Residence (Building 1)

This building has several elements of the Craftsman style and is larger and architecturally more sophisticated than most of the buildings on Bacon Island. The low-pitched front-gable roof has exposed rafters and five knee braces. There is a six-pane window flanked by louvers on the upper front facade. The house has channeled siding, and there are wide steps leading to a recessed porch across the front. The porch railing is solid with square posts, and the porch has been screened. The front door is paneled with glass above, and the windows are single-paned and double-hung. There is a large shed-roofed addition to the south side of the house.

Since 1989 a carport has been added to the front of the house. It extends approximately 15 feet east from the front facade of the residence and accommodates one or two vehicles. This shed-roofed structure is portable and does not detract from the original condition of the house.

Packing Shed (Building 2)

This industrial structure is a large wooden packing shed or warehouse located at the base of the levee. The building has horizontal board and batten siding and is very long and narrow, resting on an earth foundation that is eroding away. There are three shed-roofed extensions on the north side. The roof is of corrugated metal, and there is a sliding metal door on the east front.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL ELEMENTS AND SITE IMPACTS

This site is located on the southeastern side of Bacon Island at the base of the levee and comprises a total of 37,814 square feet. Artifactual material includes clear, aqua, and amber glass fragments, white improved earthenware, and Japanese blue and white transferprinted porcelain fragments.

The camp has been used continually since construction. This ongoing use has impacted archaeological resources, but the structures have not been altered.

Bridge Tender's Residence (CA-SJO-221-H)

Located just southwest of the Bacon Island Bridge, the ferry operator initially resided here. The Bacon Island bridge was moved to its present location spanning Middle River in 1950 (Mikesell 1990) and after that date this site was occupied full time by a person who operated the draw bridge. Today, the house and a shed remain, as does a wharf or landing dock that extends out into Middle River from the base of the outer levee (Figure 24). Artifactual material is present around the structure.

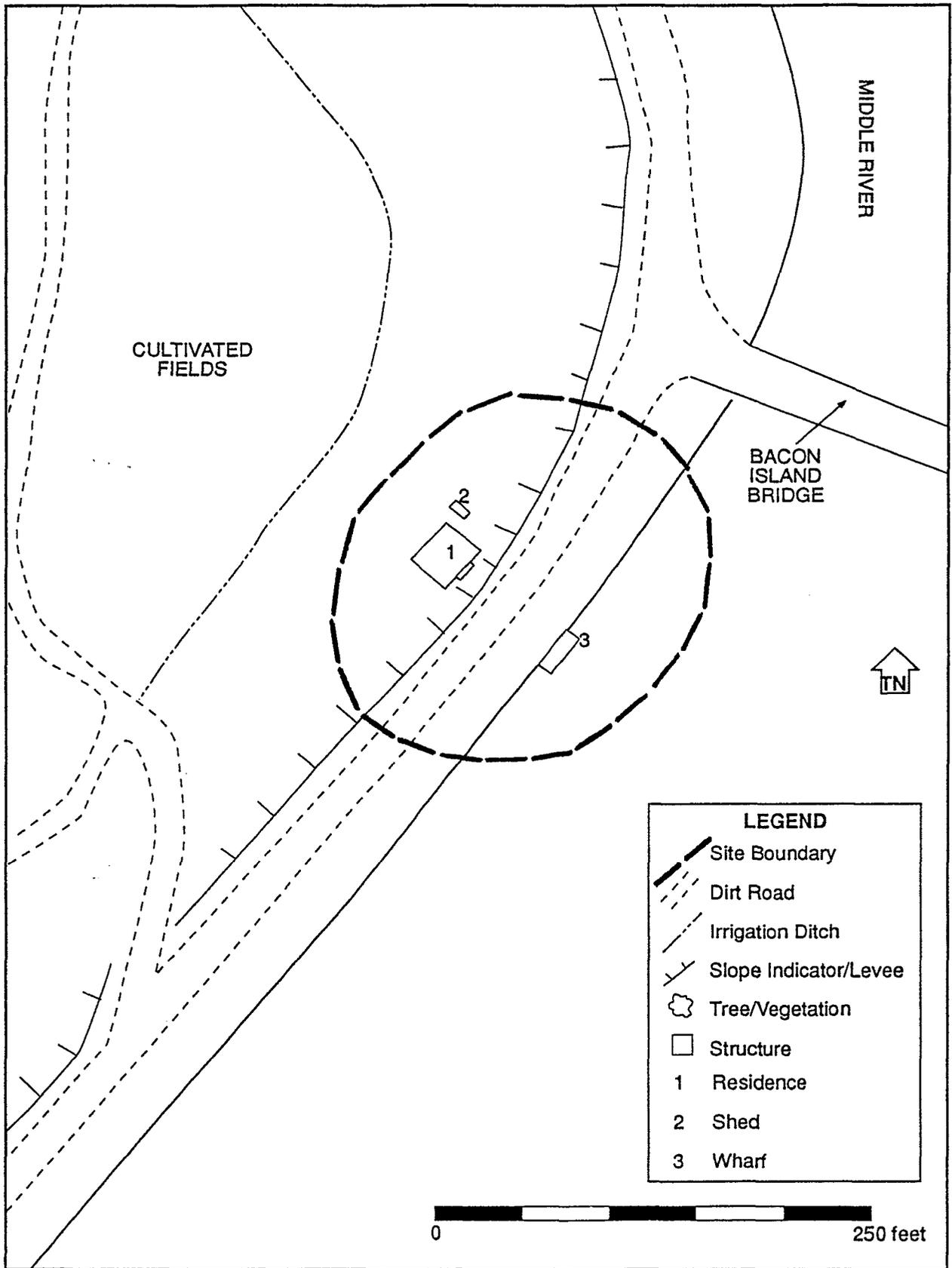


Figure 24. Bridge Tender's Residence Sketch Map

ARCHITECTURAL ELEMENTS

Residence (Building 1) and Shed (Building 2)

This Craftsman building (Building 1) fronts on the levee and is one story on the levee side and two stories in the back. It has a low-pitched gable roof with exposed rafters and a front entry with intersecting gable roof. The entry has square posts and a concrete floor, and the central front door is flanked by aluminum windows. There are louvers in the gable ends, and all of the windows are of single-pane aluminum sash, double-hung. A narrow porch runs along the south side of the building and has a new railing. The house has three-in-one horizontal board siding and measures 26 feet long by 15 feet wide. A small wooden shed (Building 2) fronts onto the levee north of the house.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL ELEMENTS AND SITE IMPACTS

A few fragments of clear and amber glass were noted around the structure. No other surface indication of historic use was found. The structure has been occupied since its initial construction and is still being used today.

Camp 12 (CA-SJO-222-H)

Now used as the headquarters for the Riverview Investment Company, Camp 12 is the largest camp located on Bacon Island. It consists of a historic bunkhouse, two boarding houses, a bathhouse, four residences, an icehouse, two sheds, and numerous modern buildings and trailers (Figure 25). In addition, small gardens, flowers, and trees surround many of the historic houses. The camp also has an archaeological component.

ARCHITECTURAL ELEMENTS

Bunkhouse (Building 1)

The bunkhouse was constructed in a Craftsman Vernacular style and is a long, narrow building measuring 70 feet by 30 feet. It is situated on wooden piers. The building has a low-pitched front-gable roof with a central louvre. The front entry is flanked by two windows on each side, and there is a roof with triangular bracing over the entry. There are twelve windows along each long side, and all of the windows are six-pane sash. The building is covered with asphalt siding.

Boarding House (Building 2)

This large two-story boarding house measures 42 feet by 36 feet and was constructed in a Craftsman Vernacular style. It has a steeply pitched gable roof of corrugated metal with

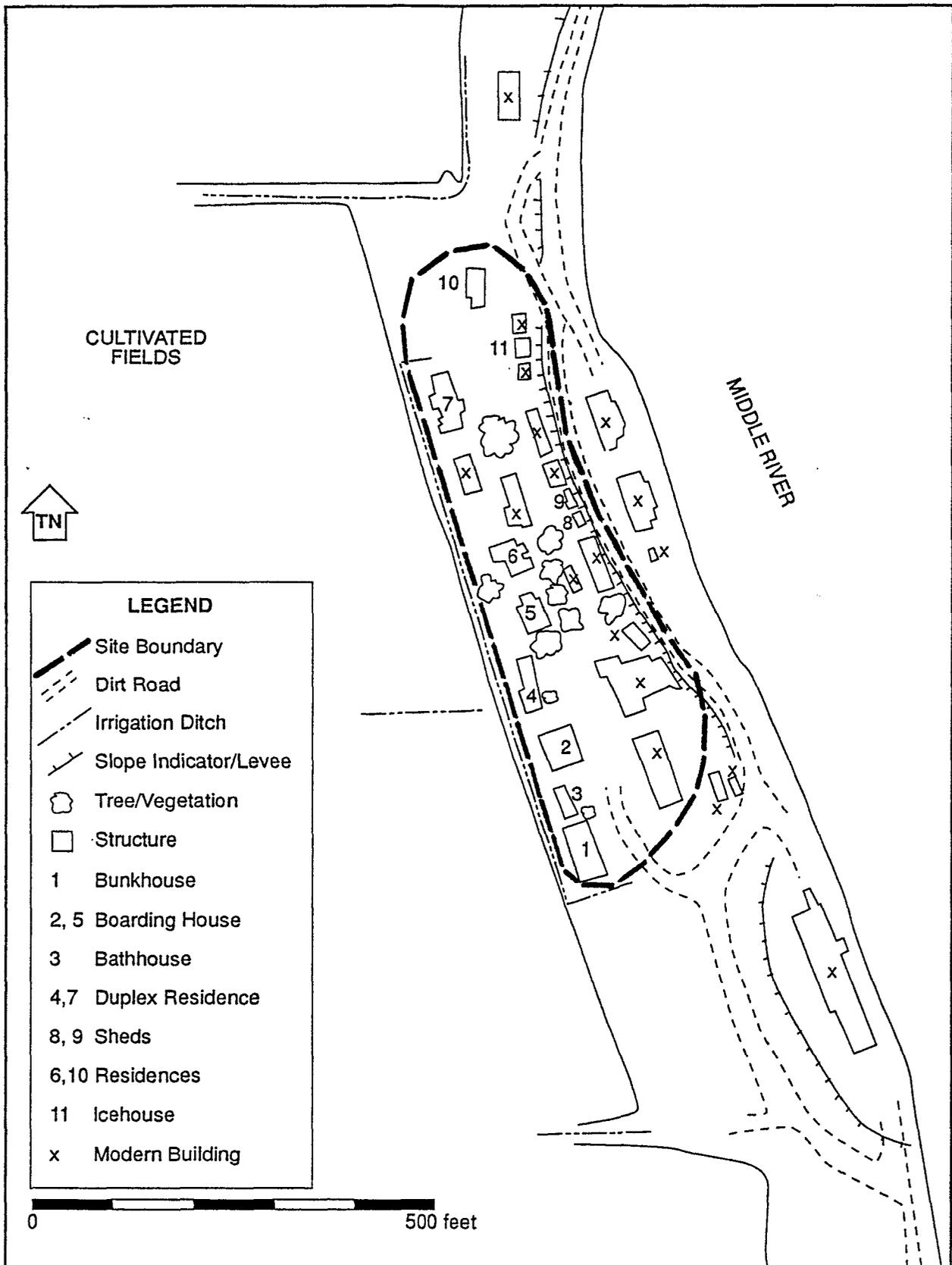


Figure 25. Camp 12 Sketch Map

exposed rafters. The house sits on wooden piers and is covered with asphalt siding. A stairway to the second-story entry is attached to the front of the building and is flanked by entries to both sides of the lower story. The windows are of six-pane sash, and the front doors are paneled with glass above.

Bathhouse (Building 3)

This structure is small and narrow with a low-pitched metal gable roof. The bathhouse is also constructed in a Craftsman Vernacular style. The building has six-pane sash windows and two entries on the east side with shed roofs supported by triangular bracing. There is a screened porch on the south side.

Duplex Residence (Building 4)

The duplex measures 54 feet by 20 feet, is supported on wooden piers, and has channeled siding. Built in a Craftsman Vernacular style, the roof is a low-pitched end-gable with exposed rafters and louvers on the gable ends. There are two entries on the east side with roofs with triangular bracing. The doors are glass and wood panel and the windows are single-pane and double-hung. A newer shed-roofed garage is attached to the north side.

Boarding House (Building 5)

This large two-story structure has several Craftsman elements and is more imposing than the other buildings at Camp 12. It is, however, much like buildings located at Camps 3 and 4. The building has a steeply pitched, corrugated metal, end-gable roof with exposed rafters. There is a three-windowed dormer, of four panes each, in the front. The dormer is covered with shingles, but the remainder of the house has channeled siding with end boards, covered with asphalt in some places. The windows are single-pane sash, double-hung, and the front door is multi-paned. Steps lead to the recessed front porch, which is supported by square posts, and the entry. The boarding house appears to be in original condition except for one aluminum window and a gable-roofed shed attached to the north side.

Residence (Building 6)

This one-story board and batten Craftsman house has been partially covered with gray asphalt paper. The roof is a low-pitched, end-gable covered with corrugated metal. The front entry is reached via a porch and stairs. The entry porch is open while the porch on the south front has been enclosed. The door is panel and glass, and the windows are of single-pane sash, double-hung. The front yard contains elaborately trimmed shrubbery.

Duplex Residence (Building 7)

A Craftsman Vernacular styled duplex is situated north of Building 6. The duplex is 48 feet long, narrow, and supported by wooden piers. The roof is a low-pitched, end-gable with

exposed rafters and is covered with corrugated metal. The siding is channeled. There are two front entries on the east facade, separated by single-pane sash windows. There is a stepped-back addition to the north side of the duplex that is entered by an inverted-cruciform paneled door. The other entry doors are glass and wood panel.

Shed (Building 8)

This structure is a small shed with gable roof and exposed rafters. The siding is three-in-one horizontal board. There are sliding wooden doors along the west front and six-pane sash windows on the sides.

Shed (Building 9)

Located just north of Building 8, this structure has a gable roof, exposed rafters, and louvers at the gable end. The siding is channeled, and there is one solid board door with strap hinges on the west front.

Residence (Building 10)

This one-story Craftsman residence is set on wooden piers and has board and batten siding partially covered with gray asphalt. The roof is a low-pitched end gable and is covered with corrugated metal. There is a central recessed front porch on the east side, supported by square posts and a railing. The two doorways that enter from the porch are wood panel and glass, and the windows are of six-pane sash.

Icehouse (Building 11)

A wooden structure with channeled siding is located next to the levee. This small building has an end-gabled roof, central louvre, and exposed rafters. This structure served as an icehouse and has a small loading dock off the south side.

ARCHAEOLOGICAL ELEMENTS AND SITE IMPACTS

The site area comprises a total area of 121,171 square feet. Historic material observed on the site includes solarized amethyst-colored glass, aqua and clear glass, white improved earthenware, and fragments of Japanese blue and white transferprinted and handpainted porcelain. Abandoned farm equipment, perhaps dating to the 1920s, is also present at the site.

The site has been heavily impacted by ongoing farming activities including vehicular and heavy equipment traffic, vandalism, and residential occupation. Several of the houses have yards with flowers, ornamental shrubs, trees, and/or roses. Some of the original buildings have been removed because of their dilapidated condition, and modern structures and trailers have been installed at the camp.

DETERMINATION OF ELIGIBILITY

Recently the National Park Service (NPS) released a bulletin describing and defining rural historic landscapes. Generally, a landscape is categorized as:

a geographical area that historically has been used by people, or shaped or modified by human activity, occupancy, or intervention, and that possesses a significant concentration, linkage, or continuity of areas of land use, vegetation, buildings and structures, roads and waterways, and natural features [McClelland et al. 1991:3].

Landscape characteristics include land use and activities; patterns of spatial organization; response to the natural environment; cultural traditions; circulation networks; boundary demarcations; vegetation related to land use; buildings, structures and objects; clusters; archaeological sites; and small-scale elements such as footbridges. A rural landscape can be defined as a district composed of many types of properties, or as sites (McClelland et al. 1991:3).

Based on these definitions, the resources at Bacon Island appear to qualify as a rural historic district. The district is composed of elements relating to both land reclamation and maintenance and subsequent farming efforts. Properties included within the district consist of engineering, agricultural, architectural, and archaeological resources (Figure 26). Combined, these resources represent an integrated view of an agricultural system that has remained intact on Bacon Island for more than 75 years.

The engineering features relate to continual land reclamation, drainage, and irrigation efforts. Elements include approximately 13.5 miles of levee constructed in 1915 to hold back the delta waters and maintained ever since, a pumphouse and siphons to extract and expel water from the island, and irrigation ditches with associated gates and valves used to provide water to the fields. Approximately 5,000 acres of agricultural fields are also present within the district. Fields typically are surrounded by ditches that effectively mark the boundaries of each field in lieu of fences. Agricultural areas contain a variety of crops and range in size from less than 10 to more than 100 acres.

Architectural elements within the district are found primarily at ten labor camps located around the perimeter of the island at the base of the levee. Buildings within the camps vary in number from 5 to 32 and are composed of living and working structures including single residences and massive boarding houses, packing and equipment sheds, barns, an icehouse, washrooms, mess halls, garages, and cooking and bathing facilities. Footbridges often provide access over the ditches that cross through some camps. Small gardens with ornamental vegetation, fruit trees, and vegetables are also found in association with the camps. Other architectural elements on the island include a ferry/bridge tender's residence and equipment shed and the associated wharf.

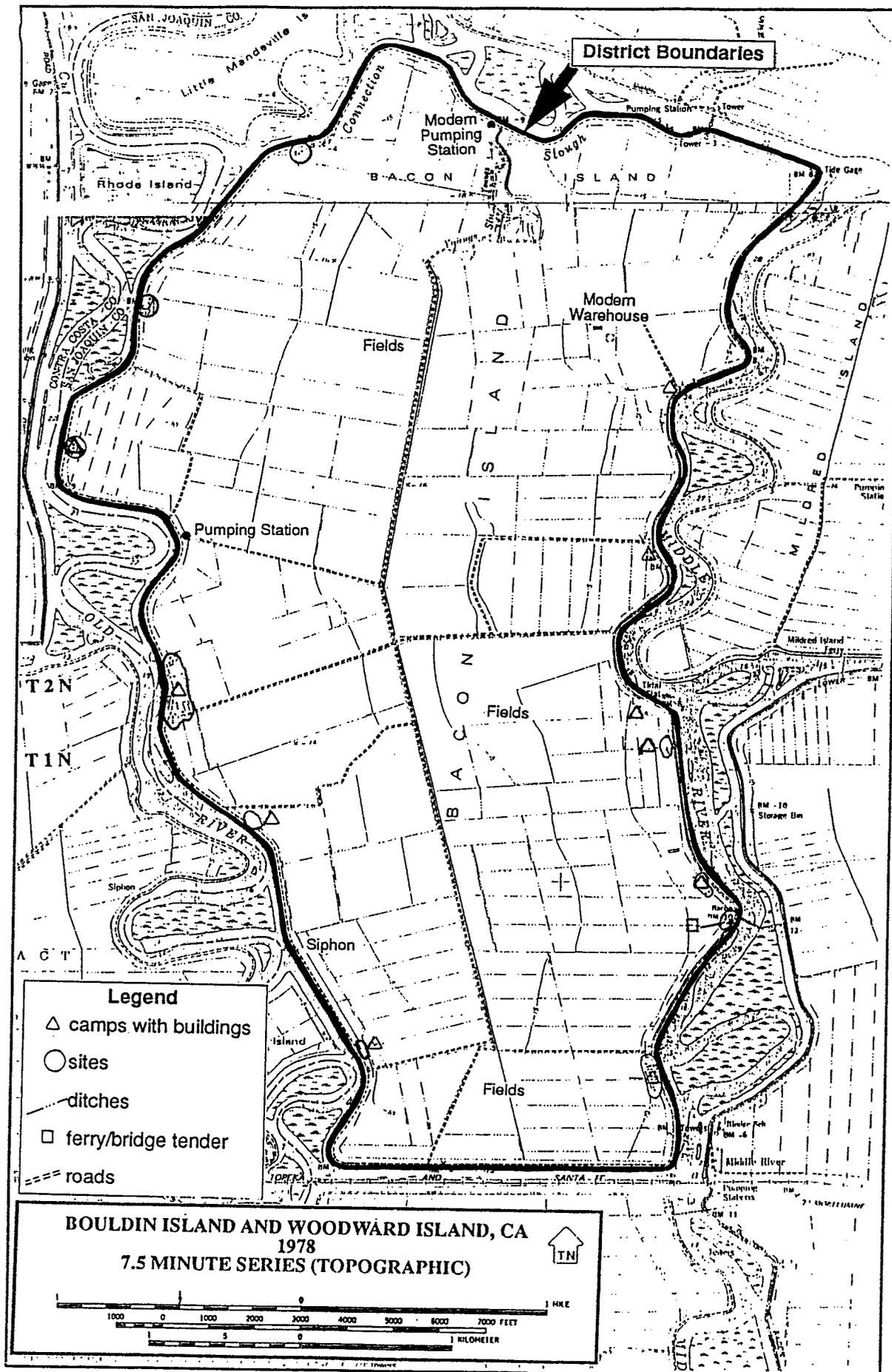


Figure 26. Bacon Island Rural Historic District

Archaeological sites are also present within the district and include the original locations of two additional camps marked by foundation remnants and artifacts. In addition, 7 of the 10 camps contain archaeological materials, primarily ceramic and glass artifacts, and an occasional structural pier block or foundation from a building no longer standing at the camp.

According to NPS bulletins, once a district has been defined and its elements identified, it is important to determine its significance by applying the four National Register of Historic Places criteria (outlined above in Research Orientation). Although a district may be significant under only one of the four criteria, all must be considered as part of the assessment process. The following discussion reiterates each of the four criteria and provides a contextual discussion for each in relation to the Bacon Island Rural Historic District. Historic information is extracted and summarized from the Historical Context chapter of this document and the reader is referred to that section for detailed information and citations.

Criterion A

Criterion A considers the events associated with a site or district that have made a significant contribution to patterns of history on a local, state, or national level. For a rural landscape to meet Criterion A, it must 1) retain characteristics that result from an important event, activity, or theme; 2) have had direct involvement in the events or activities by contributing to the area's economy, productivity, or identify; and 3) reflect the period of time in which important events took place (McClelland et al. 1991:13). Bacon Island Rural Historic District appears significant under Criterion A as a representative and successful example of delta reclamation technology and agricultural development, and for its long-standing association with Japanese American laborers.

Initial reclamation and farming of Bacon Island began in the 1870s under the direction of Sherman Day, Henry Bacon, and S. Hastings. While some farming took place during this time, generally the levee system was unstable and subject to cracking, leakage, and disintegration. By the early 1900s the Island had been virtually abandoned and any farming or grazing that occurred was confined to summers, when the water level was low (Thompson 1957).

After 1902 reclamation efforts in the delta surged as a result of improved mechanical equipment (e.g., dredges) and innovative engineering methods of draining water and reclaiming the virgin peat soil. Lee Phillips and his California Delta Farms corporation began building levees around the delta islands in 1902, slowly perfecting their techniques and methods. By 1915, when they began work on Bacon Island, their levees were secure and able to withstand flooding with very little leakage. Breaks were rare on account of the care Phillips took in compacting the levee material into a firm base. The Bacon Island levee system today is the same as that developed and built by Phillips in 1915 and is representative of his technological advances in reclamation work.

Hand in hand with the levee construction was the development of ditch systems and pumps to drain the land during low tides. The electric pump present on the west side of the island was constructed in 1915 during the initial reclamation efforts. It removes water from the island and returns it to the delta waterways via pipes. Siphons are also present to take water needed for irrigation from the delta during high tide. The pumping and ditch system evident on Bacon Island today has not been changed since its construction and is representative of a method of reclamation no longer in use.

The rural landscape at Bacon Island is divided into fields by small irrigation ditches. Water is released into the fields through small gates and valves that are opened and closed as needed to regulate flow. The configuration of the fields is consistent with that historically present on the island. Initially, potatoes, barley, and beans were grown on Bacon Island, although other crops such as asparagus and corn were also planted. Today, asparagus is still grown on the island, as are sunflowers and corn. The types of crops planted historically, and currently, rely on the rich nutrient content of the peat soil. There is a general continuum in the kinds of crops produced, which adds to the significance of the rural landscape.

The years from ca. 1902 until the mid 1920s represented a boom period in the delta, fed by the significant agricultural advances instigated by island reclamation. Bacon Island, reclaimed at the height of this developmental period in 1915, was typical of a Phillips/Shima island venture. The levees were built by Phillips, and the camps, fields, and ditches were planned out by Shima. County records document the activities on the island through assessment and reclamation district records, indicating that the potatoes, barley, and beans grown on Bacon Island contributed to the area's productivity and economy. This was particularly evident in 1918 when a severe frost killed most young plants and the bumper crop of potatoes grown on Bacon Island after the frost represented the majority of the San Joaquin potato production in that year.

These formative years of agricultural development in the delta region were closely associated with the thousands of Japanese immigrating to America and finding work in the region as laborers. Initially, many of these people worked for Shima as employees. In 1913, for example, Shima hired over 350 Japanese as workers, primarily in the fields (Naka 1913). Prior to 1923 Japanese also constituted the majority of Shima's tenant and crop sharing farmers, working on his reclaimed land. Shima's Japanese work force was instrumental in reclaiming the delta. The tradition of Japanese involvement on Bacon Island has continued, with the exception of the war years (1942-1945), into the 1990s; Japanese Americans farm on Bacon Island today. This pattern of ethnic continuity and involvement on Bacon Island contributes to its significance under Criterion A.

Criterion B

According to Bulletin 30 (McClelland et al. 1991:14), in order to qualify for the National Register under Criterion B the rural landscape must be associated with a person who by his or her success, talent, and ingenuity contributed to the historic development or economic prosperity

of the district or site. Bacon Island Rural Historic District is a representative example of reclamation efforts and farming endeavors that occurred in the delta through the instigation of George Shima and, as such, meets Criterion B as a significant property.

George Shima arrived in the United States in the late 1880s from Japan and began working as a laborer on the Mokelumne River. By the early 1890s he was leasing land and had struck out on his own, and by 1906 he had established a niche growing potatoes in the delta. By the time of his death in 1926 Shima was directly responsible for reclaiming close to 100,000 acres of land in the delta; he planted most of it in potatoes soon after reclamation. At the peak of his career he had more than 600 direct employees who reclaimed islands, planted potatoes, barley, beans, and other crops, harvested and packaged the crops, and transported the sacks of vegetables to market via barge, truck, or rail. In addition to his employees, Shima had hundreds of tenant farmers, crop sharers, and cash renters working with him. He provided seed, equipment, and facilities to these people, and they provided labor and gave him a percentage of either their crops or profit following harvest.

Aside from being responsible for the majority of farming that occurred in the delta between 1902 and ca. 1925, Shima's imagination, keen business sense, and talent are attested to by his many innovations in farming practices, marketing techniques, and public awareness. Among his many achievements, Shima was the first to experiment with different soil saturation quantities in relationship to moisture levels in potatoes. In his quest for high-quality potatoes, he worked continuously on improving his seed base, developing new machines or methods of constructing drainage ditches and plowing, and harvesting his crops. He was using steam plows and harvesters regularly as early as 1906 and switched to fuel-powered equipment at an early date as well.

Aside from agricultural innovations, Shima was also a mover in how to push a product to the general populace. For example, he started the system of grading potatoes based on quality, skin tone, and size and bagged and priced them according to their grade. This system is still in use today. Shima also experimented with marketing techniques and was the first person to use bright sacks and labels to identify his product. Red burlap bags labeled "Shima's Fancy" became synonymous with high quality potatoes. He also used his logo on his barges, boats, trucks, and other vehicles to identify his product to the local market. While these techniques are common today, Shima was the first to identify his product and apply mass marketing to the farm industry, an event that forever changed methods of displaying and selling produce in the agricultural industry. As a way to bring potatoes into the homes of American people, Shima annually helped sponsor a fall potato festival in nearby Stockton and donated one baked potato to every person who attended. He also established markets for potatoes in Chicago and New York. These efforts helped increase the popularity and demand for potatoes and contributed to his success.

Shima's efforts in the potato fields and markets in San Joaquin county were directly responsible for establishing the delta region as a prime agricultural region in the state. He took marsh land and turned it into high quality prime farm land, establishing the reputation of the

delta as a formidable farming region in the process. The pumphouse, ditches, fields, and camps on Bacon Island were built by Shima in 1915 and were used by him for many years.

George Shima, aside from his farming endeavors, also served as a national spokesman for the Japanese living in this country and was a liaison between the Japanese government and the Issei. As president of the JAA, Shima spoke at many functions, both on a state level and in Washington, D.C., in support of the Japanese people who immigrated to America. He published poems, pamphlets, and interviews through local newspapers and the JAA opposing anti-Asian legislation and willingly worked with groups to ease racial tension. Even though he had a life-threatening illness he continued to champion the Japanese workers in America and fight through local press to change public opinion and prejudice. Shima's accomplishments, both in farming and in politics, were well known both in Japan and in America and he became the epitome of a success story.

Shima's life is still the subject of much study, and his legacy to California can be seen in the thousands of reclaimed acres and agricultural fields present in the delta region. In spite of his political work and public persona, Shima always maintained that he was "just a farmer" who happened to know how to grow potatoes. While Shima worked on many islands in the delta, Bacon Island typifies his efforts and is a particularly outstanding representative example of his work. As such, Bacon Island Rural Historic District is significant under Criterion B on a state level.

Criterion C

In order to be eligible for the National Register under Criterion C a district or site must embody the distinctive characteristics of a type. In rural historic landscapes the organization of space, visible in the arrangement of fields and the siting of camps, is extremely important in demonstrating patterns of land use that have occurred through time. In addition, architectural styles, methods of construction, and camp layout are also considered under this criterion.

The organization of space visible on Bacon Island today is consistent with the design and layout of many of Shima's reclaimed islands. Generally, once the exterior levees were in place the interior of the island was divided into small sections through the placement of ditches. Ditches surrounded the agricultural fields; plots of land ranged in size from just a few acres to over 100 acres.

Camp locations were planned according to farmed sections. Each camp housed the necessary people and equipment to handle a section of island ranging from 100 to 500 acres in size. The personnel at the camp handled all reclamation, planting, growing needs, and harvesting for their section of island. In addition, crops were sorted and bagged at the camp warehouse, loaded onto barges at the camp dock, and transported to market.

Shima constructed 13 camps at Bacon Island, numbered 1-12 (Camp 10½ was between Camps 10 and 11). On the average, each camp was responsible for farming 385 acres of land, although this may have varied, based on the size of the camps today. For example, Camps 1 and 6 may have only had a few hundred acres, while Camps 3 and 12 were probably responsible for up to 500 acres of crops. Shima also constructed a house on the levee for use by the ferry operator. The ferry was located on the east side of the island and transported people and supplies across to Bacon Island. In later years, this house was used by the draw bridge operator.

As modern plowing and harvesting equipment eliminated the need for hundreds of laborers, many of Shima's camps in the delta region were dismantled. Mechanical equipment replaced animal power by 1950, and barns and corrals associated with the camps were also removed, usually by bulldozing the structures and then burning the wood. Of the 13 camps located on Bacon Island in 1915, 10 still contain standing structures dating to Shima's initial construction efforts. Two camps (Camps 5 and 6) are marked by concrete pads and piers and artifact scatters; the buildings have been removed. Only one camp, Camp 7, has completely disappeared from the current landscape. Four barns are present at three camps; no corrals remain in place on Bacon Island.

Shima's organization of island space is clearly evident today at Bacon Island as seen in the relationship of the camp, field, ditch, pump station, siphon, and ferry/bridge tender locations. Comparative research conducted by PAR at Webb, Holland, Orwood, Palm, and Upper Jones tracts, and Bouldin, Woodward, Victoria, Union, and Andrus islands reveal that other islands reclaimed by Shima (or by others) in the 1910s no longer contain intact camps, although a few remnant buildings are present on some islands. The spatial organization so evident at Bacon Island, therefore, increases in importance as a relatively rare surviving example of Shima's work and contributes to the significance of the district under Criterion C.

In addition to the spatial organization of the district, layout of individual camps is also evident. The relationship between locations of residential structures (single family, bunkhouse, or boarding house), kitchens, dining halls, toilet facilities, and washhouses is apparent at each camp. In addition, equipment sheds and storage facilities, packing sheds, offices, barns, and other utilitarian buildings are still in place at the camps, providing insight into both small and large camp layout and the relationship between living and work space. The number of camps still standing on the island allows for comparative studies on layout of small versus large camps. Building configuration and function attest to the autonomous role each camp played in the overall farming ventures that occurred on the island.

Architecturally, the buildings contained within the camps are representative of a type and a local trend that is rapidly disappearing from the delta landscape. The Craftsman style was popular when the camps were built and was apparently favored by Shima (a few Craftsman buildings constructed by Shima are scattered on other islands in the delta as well as clustered on Bacon). The similarity of many of the camp structures, particularly evident in the large, multi-storied boarding houses, suggests the use of a pattern book rather than a hired architect in planning their layout and design. The amount of architectural detail present on the residential

structures, and on some utilitarian outbuildings, appears unusual in a farm camp setting and may represent Shima's wish to provide his employees with good living conditions. In any case, the buildings appear to meet Criterion C as examples of a type of architectural style commonly employed by Shima in his camps in the 1910s.

Criterion D

Criterion D applies to properties that have yielded or are likely to yield information important to history or prehistory. In order to be considered important in local or regional history, the information contained in a site must be able to constructively relate to a research design that addresses current data gaps, regional research domains, and ongoing issues pertinent to our understanding of the past. Seven of the ten camps containing standing structures within the Bacon Island Rural Historic District have surface artifacts attesting to the archaeological component of the camp. In addition, two camps (5 and 6) are represented only through their archaeological remains.

While no subsurface testing was conducted during the current project, surface material indicates a wide variety of Japanese manufactured and Euroamerican ceramics. Transferprinted and handpainted wares from Japan were observed on the surfaces of most sites, attesting to the ethnic affiliation of the camps. White improved earthenware was also noted. Glass remains include aqua, sun-altered amethyst, clear, and amber bottle fragments. Pieces of farm equipment, metal scraps from food containers, and other metal objects were found, particularly at the two dismantled camp sites. Structural remains include pier blocks, concrete pads, and massive concrete foundations from packing sheds.

The research design presented above discusses four general topics of concern: chronology; spatial organization; ethnic continuity; and material culture preferences and associated trade networks. Work on nearby Bouldin Island has demonstrated that refuse deposits are usually associated with labor camps and it is assumed, based on surface artifact scatters, that subsurface refuse deposits are present on the Bacon Island sites. Based on surface material, the ten sites within the district have the potential to yield data important to ongoing studies of overseas Japanese sites and farm labor camp development.

Chronological indicators identified within the island include bottle maker's marks and sun-altered amethyst glass, Euroamerican ceramic makers' marks, and porcelain doorknobs and other architectural artifacts. Combined with the historical information and oral interview data, it is possible to discern a general occupation date for the camp sites and to compare the material with that recovered at nearby Bouldin Island and at Walnut Grove.

Questions relating to spatial organization of a camp can be addressed through intensive studies of the standing structures within each camp at Bacon Island and their function. Feature information from archaeological sites, such as house foundations in relation to packing shed foundations, location of kitchen refuse deposits, remnant gardens, and lines of postholes

indicating fences, can add to the spatial data available at existing camps. Research at abandoned and dismantled camps may be compared to information from camps still in use to document changes in camp layout through time.

Studies in ethnic continuity take into consideration questions relating to retention of traditional Japanese practices or material goods, use of Euroamerican goods either through preference or availability, dietary preferences as seen through food refuse, and traditional recreation pursuits. Many of these questions are addressed through an examination of Japanese versus Euroamerican manufactured items. The Bacon Island sites appear to have the potential to address these and similar sets of questions. Both handpainted and transferprinted wares have been noted at most sites, as have Euroamerican ceramic fragments. Glass fragments indicate presence of bottles at some sites; it is known that Japanese peddlers sold a variety of products in glass containers. Based on research at Bouldin Island, Japanese manufactured glass containers are a common occurrence on labor camp sites, as are American bottles. Analysis of these types of artifacts from the camps can also address questions concerning material culture preferences and associated trade networks.

Overseas Japanese archaeology is in its infancy, particularly compared to the huge data base acquired on overseas Chinese sites. Only two major collections (Walnut Grove and Santa Barbara Presidio) have been analyzed and cataloged. The realm of artifact interpretation and analysis of Japanese ceramics heavily relies on these urban Japantown collections. The identification and interpretation of additional Japanese manufactured ceramics and bottles from a rural setting is essential in the development of this growing field of study. Recordation of various patterns and their symbolic meaning is just beginning. The presence of Japanese manufactured material on Bacon Island, in itself, is a significant addition to the current comparative data base. Additional ceramic material from the district can provide crucial data for future studies. In light of this, the Bacon Island archaeological sites have yielded important data; collection and interpretation of additional Japanese material will yield additional information imperative in establishing a data base through which to compare similar site types in the delta and elsewhere. As such, the Bacon Island Rural Historic District is significant under Criterion D for its archaeological potential.

Significance Summary

Bacon Island Rural Historic District appears significant under Criteria A, B, C, and D. Important elements considered in the evaluation include: its representation of important themes in delta development (agriculture, engineering, land use); the engineering methods apparent in the pump and siphon system and network of irrigation and drainage ditches; its association with George Shima; the spatial organization of the island as a whole and the camps as micro units; the architectural style as a representation of a kind of structure common on farm labor camps; and the presence of Japanese manufactured items in archaeological contexts containing data important in establishing a comparative data base for overseas Japanese archaeological sites. Using themes established in McClelland et al. (1991:21), areas of significance represented in this

particular rural landscape include agriculture, architecture, archaeology, community planning and development (as seen in the spatial organization of the camps), and engineering.

When discussing significance, it is important to establish a span of time when a district was associated with important events, activities, persons, cultural groups, and land use. While reclamation of Bacon Island first occurred in the 1870s, the levee system did not hold and the island was flooded early in the 1900s. The resources on the island represent the final, permanent reclamation and farming efforts that began with Phillips's efforts around 1913. Therefore, the period of significance begins in 1913.

Although George Shima passed away in 1926, Japanese continued to farm on Bacon Island until their forced confinement in 1942. While farming methods were changing in the 1930s, the methods used within the district were generally consistent with those established by Shima until after World War II. After 1945, however, increased mechanization, new irrigation techniques, and other agricultural developments changed slightly the character of farming in the delta. Therefore, the period of significance ends in 1942, with the incarceration of Japanese and the beginning of United States involvement in World War II.

Integrity

Once the significance of a district has been established, it is important to assess its physical integrity. Integrity is the ability of the property to convey its significance. The National Register defines seven aspects of integrity: location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association (NPS 1991:44). Usually, integrity of a particular property is represented by a composite of two or more aspects of integrity (McClelland et al. 1991:21).

Location

The location of Bacon Island has not changed since its reclamation. The waterways that necessitated the construction of levees around the island still flow, rising and falling with the tides. On a smaller scale, camps, ditches, the pumphouse, and fields are in their original locations. Factors that contributed to the initial desire to reclaim Bacon Island, such as the natural peat soil, climatic conditions, and available waterways, are still assets, increasing the integrity of the district as a whole, and of its individual elements.

Design

Design is often defined as the composition of the natural and cultural elements that make up the form, plan, and spatial organization of a property. Decisions concerning location of physical elements (such as fields, camps, ditches) may be conscious or unconscious, but usually are related to the functional organization of fields and topographical limitations. The design of

the entire landscape contained within the Bacon Island Rural Historic District and the relationship of the individual elements to one another are evident today.

The island contains a network of ditches that define the agricultural fields. A pumphouse and siphon system, implemented by Shima during the period of significance, are still in operation, draining the island and regulating flow of water for irrigation purposes. Landscape and farm design are also evident in the placement of camps around the perimeter of the island, near the levees. Camps are spaced to allow for autonomous farming control of 100 to 500 acre parcels and for access to waterway transportation networks.

Within the island, spatial design of camps is also evident. The original structures, mature fruit and fig trees, remnants of historic gardens, and other vegetation are present at 10 locations on the island. Functional arrangement of camps, camp size, and other details are evident today and represent the original layout intended and implemented by Shima and his employees.

Setting

The Bacon Island Rural Historic District also retains integrity of setting. There is a strong sense of continuity in the historical landscape. Many of the crops grown during the period of significance are still produced on the island today. The delta environment has not been altered, and the sloughs and waterways visible from the levee road have not changed in appearance since 1942. On a smaller scale, camps, ditches, pumphouse apparatus, and fields retain their general historic appearance and increase the integrity of setting.

Some alterations have occurred on the island since the period of significance. The Bacon Island bridge now in place on the east side of the island replaced the original ferry system in 1950. The ferry tender's house, located just south of the bridge, was then used by the draw bridge operator. Apparently, corrals were once found at every camp in the delta, connected to the barns. These have been removed throughout the region, including those that once served the Bacon Island camps. Bacon Island does, however, retain four barns that stand as mute testimony to the historic importance of animal labor in farming endeavors.

A large metal warehouse is now present near the north end of the island, in the center of the district. While the structure is not historic, the function of the warehouse is to process vegetables and crops for marketing and its presence does not significantly detract from the overall setting. Many of the camps contain modern structures, usually located on the outskirts of camp behind the historic structures. The majority of these buildings consist of portable trailers that are moved around the island to provide extra housing during harvesting season. The trailers are not considered permanent alterations to the landscape. The few recently constructed houses are similar in style to the vernacular, utilitarian historic structures and blend in with the historic setting. When viewed as a whole, Bacon Island Rural Historic District retains an unquestionable integrity of setting.

Materials

Integrity of materials is often interpreted to include construction materials of buildings and outbuildings, roadways, fences, and other structures. In a rural landscape, the presence of native minerals, stone, and even soil can add to a rural area's sense of time and place. The original materials used in construction of the houses and outbuildings at each farm camp are still evident in many of the structures. Although most of the historic structures have been covered with asphalt siding or tar paper, the original fabric is evident beneath the siding. Bacon Island was chosen for reclamation primarily because of the rich nutrients contained in the peat soil. This peat soil, although depleted somewhat from 77 years of farming endeavors, still constitutes the soil makeup of the island, increasing its integrity under materials.

Workmanship

Workmanship is seen in the ways buildings are constructed, fields are plowed, or crops harvested. The 66 historic structures found in camps around the island and the pumphouse retain integrity of workmanship. While some buildings are clad in asphalt, and others have metal roofs, the original fabric is still present. Buildings are easily defined as to architectural style through the workmanship evident in rafters, dormers, roof lines, paneled doors, multi-pane windows, and siding.

Delta farming has been altered drastically through inventions such as automatic sprinklers for irrigation, mechanical harvesters, and plowing equipment. The need for hundreds of laborers practicing intensive hands-on agriculture has dwindled, and historic methods are no longer in use. In light of this, integrity of workmanship in agricultural methods and practices is no longer present.

Feeling

Feeling is evoked by physical characteristics that reflect the historic scene. Bacon Island Rural Historic District has been subjected to few alterations since the period of significance ended. This is particularly evident when the individual elements of the district are compared to other islands in the delta that no longer retain intact camps, historic pumphouses, or their unique ditch systems. The rural landscape on Bacon Island evokes a strong sense of time and place. The clusters of camps around the perimeter of the island, rows of crops, and the sight of workers bent over the fields and working on the ditch systems have changed little over the past 50 years. There is a strong sense of agricultural continuity on Bacon Island that enhances the integrity of feeling.

Association

The final aspect of integrity is association and is viewed as the direct link between a property and the events or people that shaped it. Bacon Island Rural Historic District is significant, in part, for its association with Japanese farm laborers and with George Shima. Unlike many islands in the delta that are now farmed by one large company, Bacon is owned and farmed by three enterprises; two of these companies are owned and operated by Japanese American farmers who returned to the delta following World War II. The ethnic continuity and Japanese American tradition of working the delta soil on a long-term basis provides a link to the past that contributes to the integrity of association. This association is aided by the ongoing use of the ditch network; maintenance of the levee, pumphouse, and siphon system; and the configuration of fields, which has remained constant since the historic period.

Summary and Conclusion

The rural landscape evident today on Bacon Island serves as an important example of the massive reclamation and farming effort that occurred in the delta in the first few decades of the twentieth century. The prime mover behind much of the reclamation work, George Shima, was involved in the development of Bacon Island, as well as many other islands in the region. Evidence of Shima's work on other islands in the delta has disappeared; only Bacon retains many of the characteristics that prevailed in the delta in Shima's day.

The Bacon Island Rural Historic District is bound by 13.5 miles of levees that surround Bacon Island. The levees were constructed by Lee Phillips beginning ca. 1913 and are an integral part of the district. The pumphouse, siphons, and network of drainage ditches present today were developed by George Shima around 1915 as part of reclamation efforts. Electrical lines on the island supply power to the centrifugal pump in the powerhouse and to camps. The lines were planned and strung by Shima as part of initial island development.

Ditches define the boundaries of agricultural fields that range in size from a few acres to more than 100 acres; there are approximately 5,000 acres of fields within the district. Many of the crops grown in the fields today, such as asparagus and sunflowers, were grown historically, establishing a link with the past that contributes to the integrity and significance of the district. Labor camps are located around the perimeter of the island, at the inner base of the levee. Historically, each camp was responsible for farming 100 to 500 acres of land. Camp size, seen in the number of residential units and outbuildings, varied according to the amount of acreage to be farmed.

Ten of the original 13 camps within the district are intact and contain a combination of one-, two-, or three-story boarding houses or bunkhouses, dining halls, kitchens, washrooms, rest rooms, shower houses, foreman's houses, and offices all built with Craftsman style elements. Other structures present at one or more camps include barns, icehouses, small equipment sheds, large warehouses or packing sheds, and other outbuildings. Small gardens,

ornamental vegetation (flowers, shrubbery), and fruit trees are also present at some of the camps. Garages and footbridges spanning irrigation ditches complete the camp settings. Archaeological remains, primarily ceramic and glass fragments, are present at some of the existing camps and also mark the locations of two dismantled camps.

When viewed as a rural landscape, the variety of resources evident at Bacon Island are representative of a way of farming that has essentially disappeared from the delta today. The spatial organization of levees, ditches, fields, and camps evokes a feel of a 1910s reclaimed island. Within each camp, the relationship of sleeping, eating, and working structures is evident and is reflective of Shima's camp layout. The continuity with the past, seen through the continued farming of similar crops and the current involvement of Japanese Americans in the farming ventures, adds to the integrity of the island.

In light of this, Bacon Island Rural Historic District appears eligible for inclusion on the National Register of Historic Places under Criteria A, B, C, and D as 1) a representative example of reclamation and agricultural endeavors between 1913 and 1942, 2) for its use and association with Japanese American laborers and with George Shima, 3) as an example of a type of landscape (seen in spatial organization of features and camps), and 4) for the comparative value of the archaeological materials, particularly Japanese manufactured items. While some alterations have occurred since 1942, the district as a whole retains a remarkable degree of integrity of location, design, setting, materials, workmanship, feeling, and association. It represents one of the last examples of early farming ventures in the delta and is important at a state level.

Current project plans would impact the rural landscape evident at Bacon Island. A programmatic agreement (PA) among the State Historic Preservation Officer, Advisory Council on Historic Preservation, the United States Army Corps of Engineers, and the State Water Resources Control Board is currently being prepared that will provide guidelines for treatment of the landscape as a whole, and of individual structures, camps, and archaeological resources. The implementation of the plan outlined in the PA will result in detailed recordation and treatment of the important resources found within the Bacon Island Rural Historic District.

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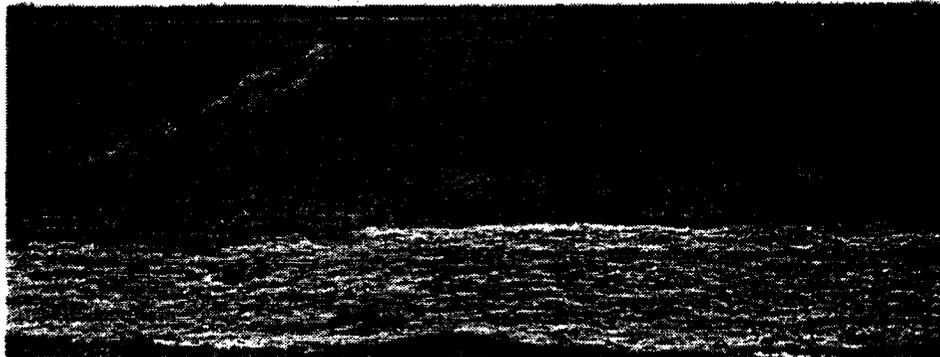
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APPENDIX A

Photographs of Bacon Island Rural Historic District



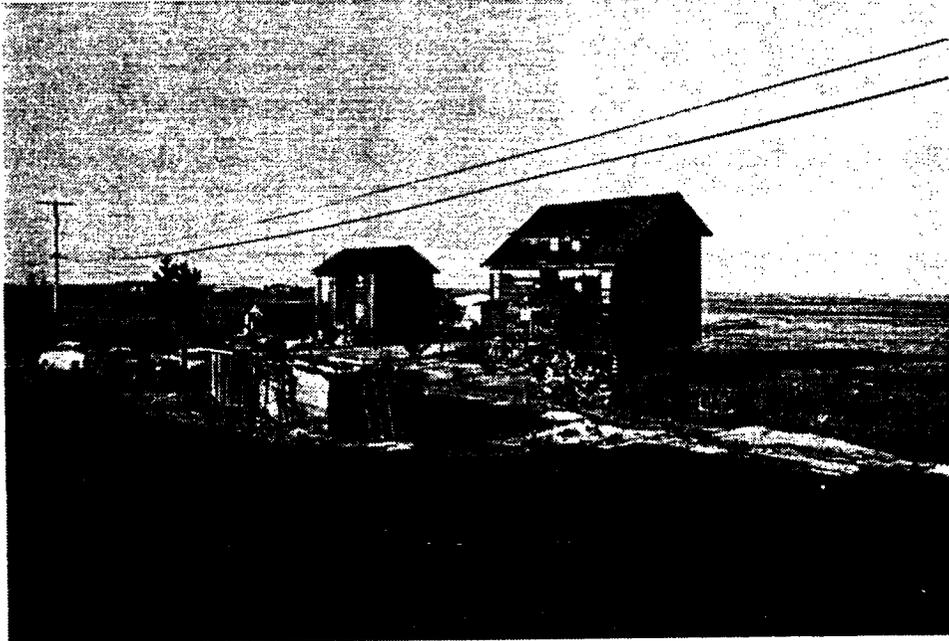
General View of Fields and Grass-Lined Ditches



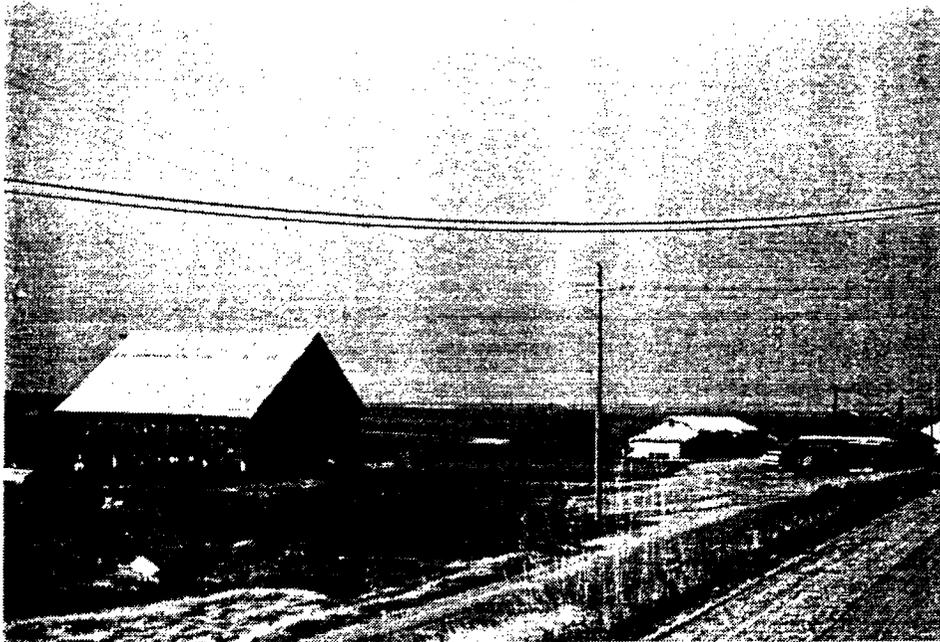
Pumping Station

A-1

Camp Overviews



Camp 2



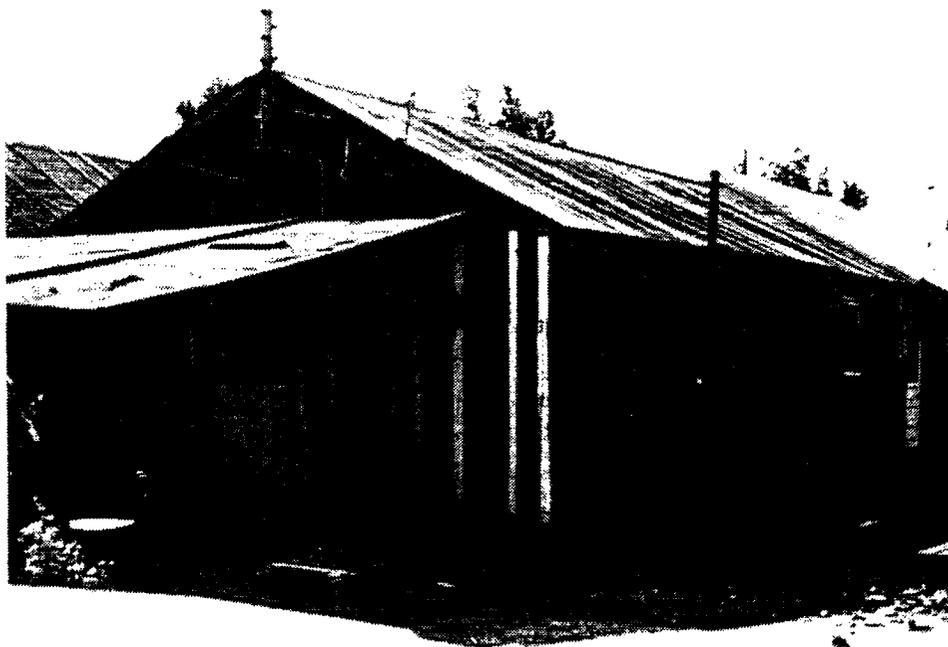
Camp 10

A-2

Bunkhouses



Camp 3



Camp 10

A-3

Bunkhouses



Camp 11



Camp 12

A-4

C - 1 0 2 3 8 9

Boarding Houses



Camp 2

A-5

C - 1 0 2 3 9 0

Boarding Houses



Camp 3 (note showers and washouses to left)

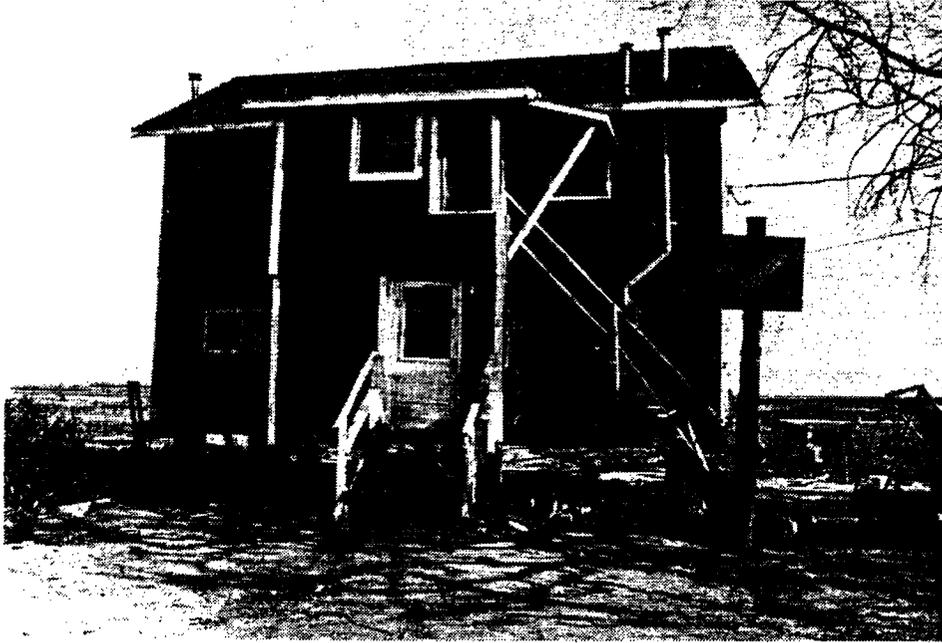


Camp 3

A-6

C - 1 0 2 3 9 1

Boarding Houses



Camp 4



Camp 12

A-7

C - 1 0 2 3 9 2

Residences



Camp 3



Camp 3 (note fenced garden area)

Residences



Camp 10



Camp 10½

A-9

C - 1 0 2 3 9 4

Foreman's Houses



Camp 11

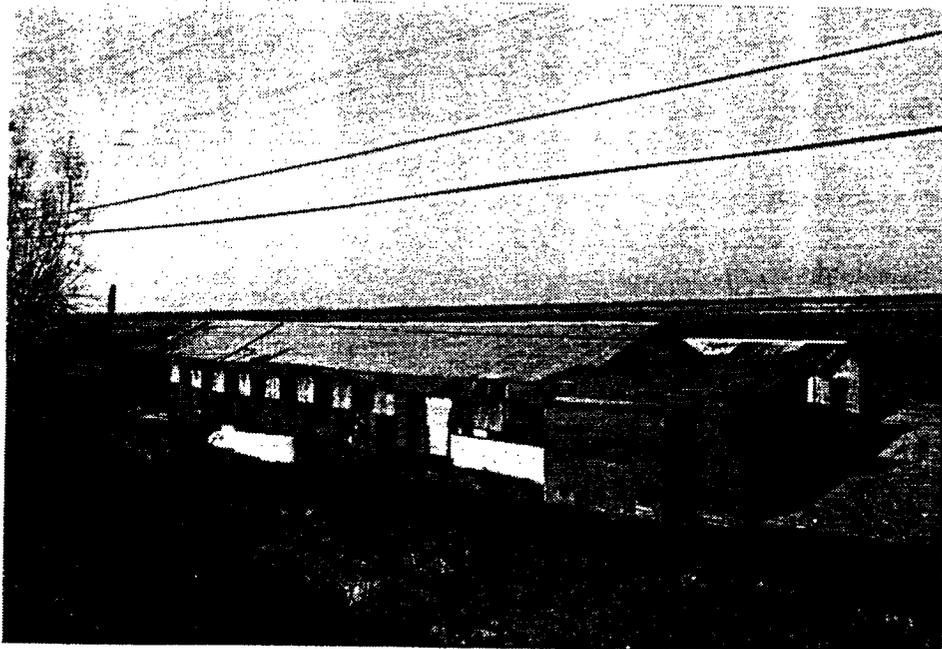


Camp 12

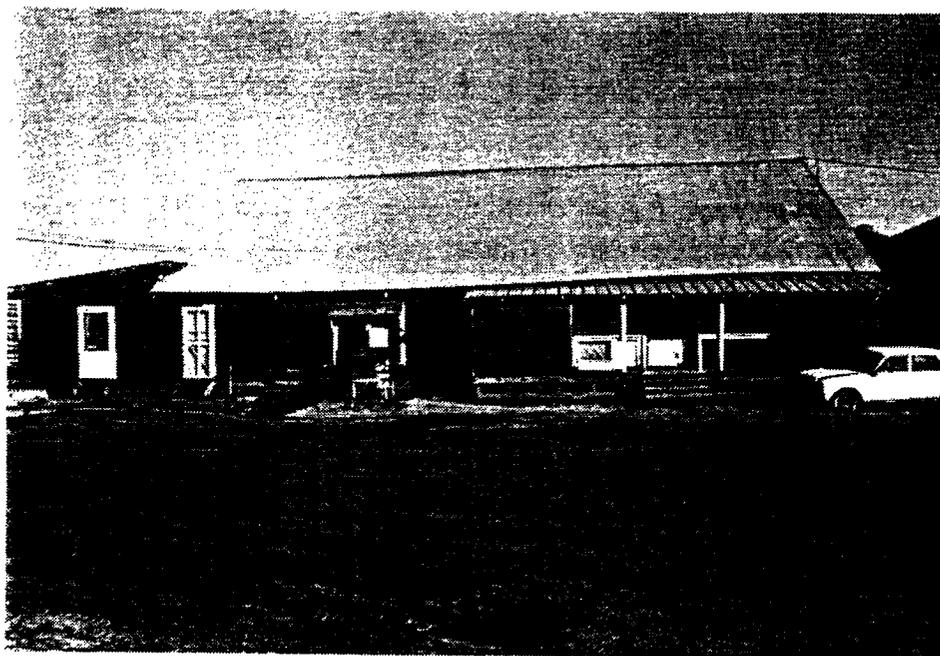
A-10

C - 1 0 2 3 9 5

Cooking and Dining Facilities



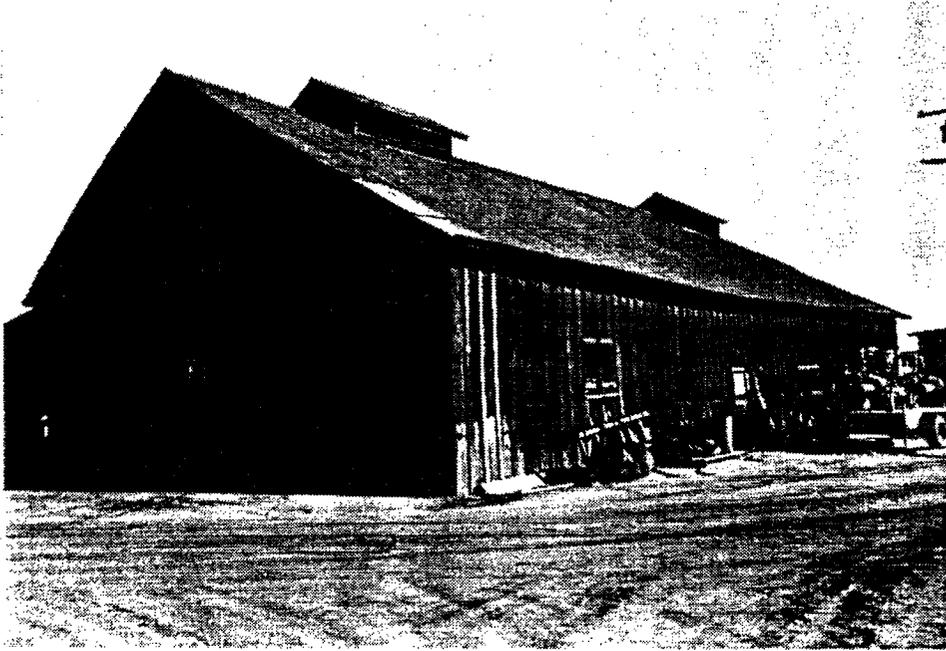
Camp 1 Dining Hall



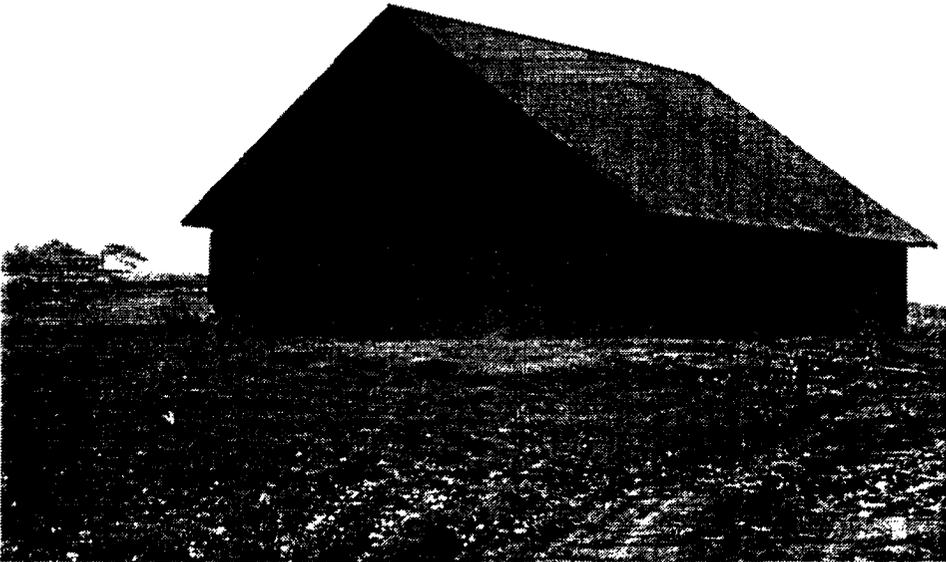
Camp 3 Kitchen (on left) and Attached Dining Hall (on right)

A-11

Barns



Camp 3



Camp 9

A-12

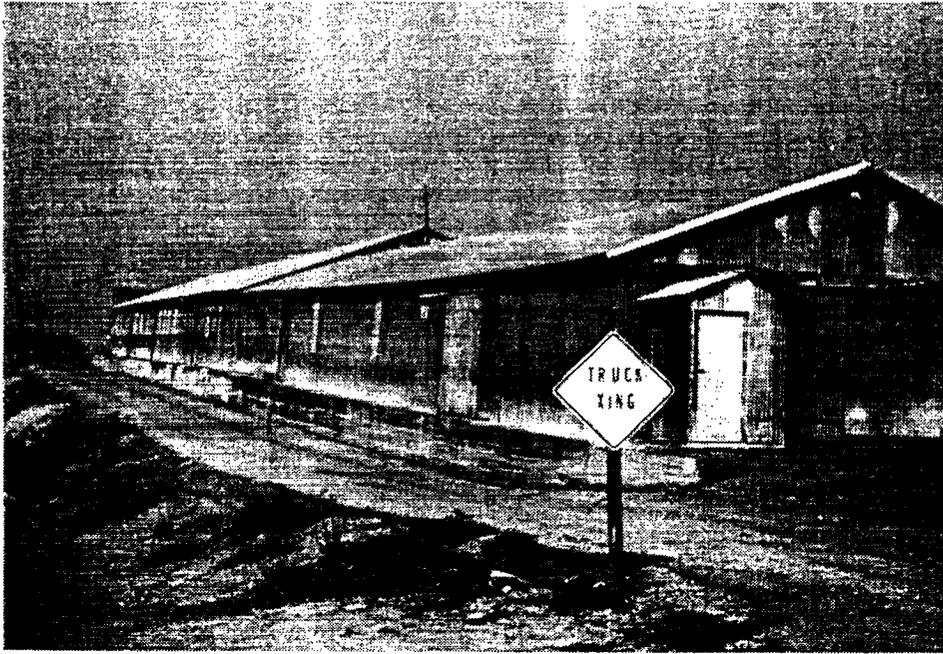
Barns



Camp 10

A-13

Packing Sheds/Warehouses



Camp 9 (situated on levee)



Camp 11

A-14

Outbuildings



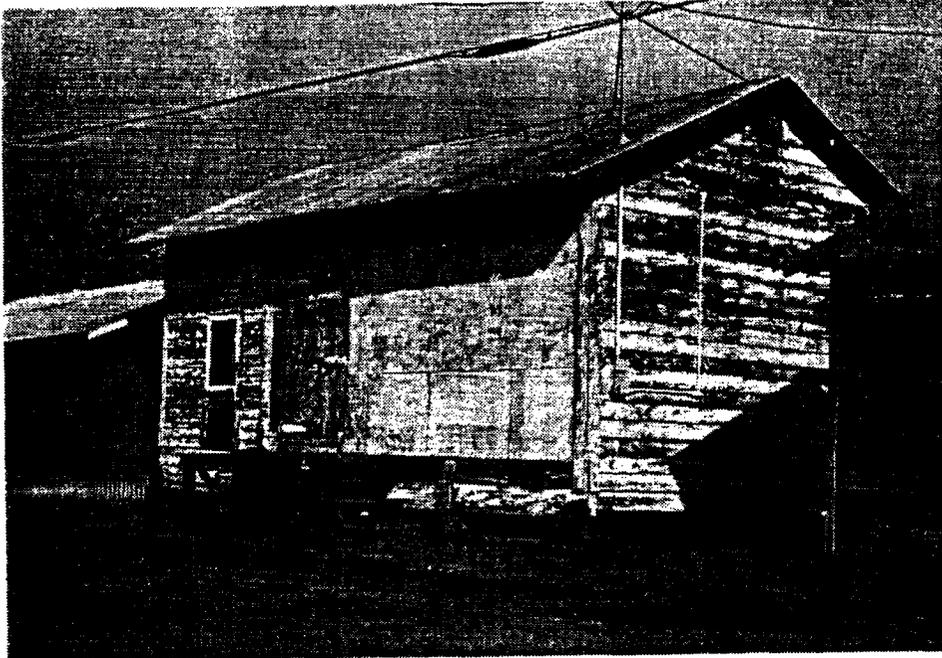
Camp 1 Shower House



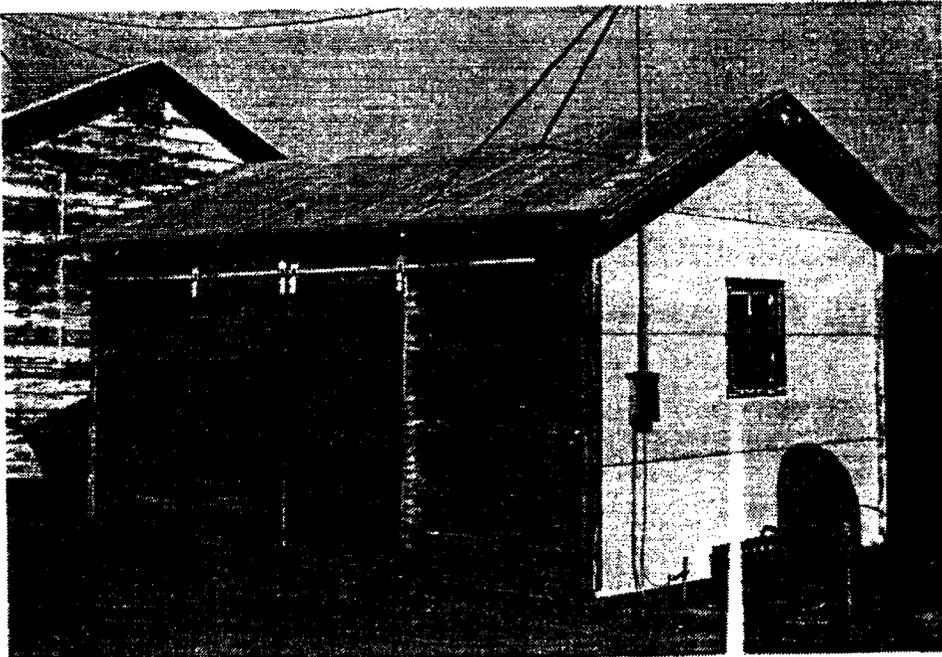
Camp 1 Kitchen

A-15

Outbuildings



Camp 12 Icehouse

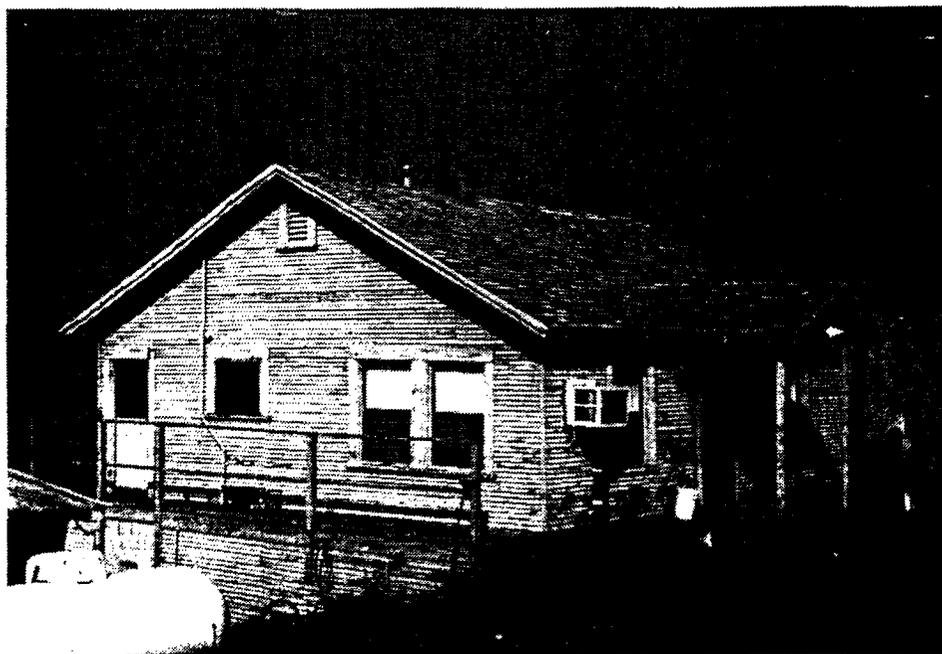


Camp 12 Shed

Miscellaneous



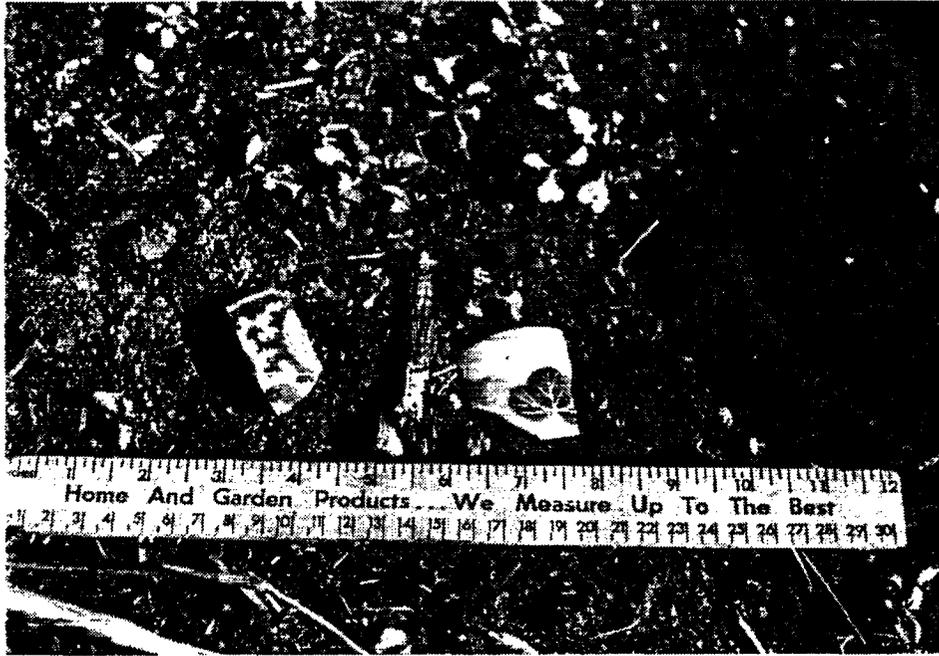
Camp 3 Office/Bunkhouse (reputedly served as Shima's Office on Bacon Island)



Ferry/Bridge Tender's Residence

A-17

Artifacts



Japanese-manufactured Transferprint Cup Fragments from Camp 5 Site