

Fune Ni Miru Nihonjin Iminshi: Kasato Maru kara kuruzu kyakusen e
[“**Japanese Emigration History As Seen Through Ships:
From the *Kasato Maru* to Passenger Cruisers**”]
by Michio Yamada

Article 7

The Anti-Japanese Problem and Passenger Ships on the North American Routes
First published in *Seki No Kansen (Ships of the World)* in December 1994
Translator: R. Douglas Welch, with Robert Barde

American Prohibition of Regularly Scheduled Voyages – The U.S.-Japan “Gentleman’s Agreement”

From the coming of Commodore Perry at the end of the Edo period to the current noise over trade friction, some sort of conflict has existed between the US and Japan. Especially when it comes to the history of Japanese emigration to North America, devoting an entire volume to the history of the anti-Japanese issue not overstate the point.

After the Russo-Japanese war, Caucasian people in America began to have misgivings over the influx of cheap, yet superior quality, Japanese labor. Such misgivings emerged conspicuously as anti-Japanese persecution. This was particularly severe for the many people of Japanese descent in the state of California. In San Francisco, friction often occurred in the aftermath of the great 1906 earthquake (Meiji 39), when displaced Japanese, seeking housing and places for their businesses, moved into white residential areas.

That year (1906), the problem recurred when Japanese school children were excluded from public primary schools, as discussed in chapter 3, “Emigration to North America during the Meiji Period”. [NOTE: Japanese children were to be put in segregated public schools, not excluded from public schools altogether.—Ed.] President Theodore Roosevelt succeeded in persuading the city that this law should be repealed. To solve the problem he ultimately agreed, instead, to work to block the entry of Japanese entry into the country. It was suggested to the city that, in exchange for allowing Japanese children into schools, the regular sailing of Japanese immigrants from Hawaii would be prohibited

Until that time, the August 1898 (Meiji 31) annexation of Hawaii by the United States had led to a surge in the regularly scheduled sailings carrying workers from Japan to Hawaii as way of skirting the prohibitions on entry into the mainland United States. One recorded example is when, in November of 1899, during a single week, five emigrant ships including the *Orient Maru* (2,497 tons, built in 1873) and the English ship *Abergeldie* (2,863 tons, built in 1882), made port at Honolulu, landing 3,200 individuals. Incidentally, the *Abergeldie*, would later become the property of a “kitamae” ship owner, Mr. Gonzaemon Ukon [translator’s note: the kitamae ship type is known from the Edo period wherein it was mainly active on the route south from Hokkaido to Yamaguchi prefecture. Herring manure and manure for the production of the raw cotton were carried from Matsumae, Hokkaido to Osaka, with rice, salt, sugar, iron and chinaware carried

from Osaka to Hokkaido]. It was renamed the *Fukui Maru*. In the Russo-Japanese war, during the naval blockade of Port Arthur, it was lost, together with Commander Takeo Hirose.

From the end of 1901 (Meiji 34) to February of 1907, regularly scheduled sailings brought 57,000 Japanese from Hawaii to North America. In response, in March 1907, the U.S. government proclaimed the following Presidential order prohibiting the regularly scheduled sailing of emigrant ships from Hawaii. "I am satisfied that passports issued by the Government of Japan to citizens of that country or Korea and who are laborers, skilled or unskilled, to go to Mexico, to Canada and to Hawaii, are being used for the purpose of enabling the holders thereof to come to the continental territory of the United States to the detriment of labor conditions therein; I hereby order that such citizens of Japan or Korea, to wit: Japanese and Korean laborers, skilled and unskilled, who have received passports to go to Mexico, Canada, or Hawaii, and come therefrom, be refused permission to enter the continental territory of the United States."

The statement obviously also included Koreans and put Japanese on a par with the already excluded Chinese. The aim was to extend it to all Asians. Moreover, not just those coming from Hawaii, but also those coming via Canada and Mexico were prohibited. Emigration to Mexico came to a standstill and TKK's (Toyo Kisen Kaisha's) South American western coastal routes were suspended, as discussed in other chapters. Due to this order prohibiting regularly scheduled sailings, emigration to Hawaii suffered severe damage. The following year, 1908 (Meiji 41), the number of emigrants shrank to 1,900 persons, a considerable decrease from the 11,000 persons who made the voyage during [1907].

Against this trend, in the same year the record-setting large-scale passenger ships *Tenyo Maru* and *Chiyo Maru* were put in service on shipping routes from the Far East via Honolulu to San Francisco. However, the Morioka Immigration Company and other major emigration companies gave up on Hawaii and in its place began looking to South America as an emigration destination. In April of the same year the emigrant ship *Kasato Maru* sailed for Brazil.

The year 1908 marked a turning point in emigration history. In February of that year, Japan and the U.S. concluded an agreement limiting emigrants going directly to America. According to U.S. leaders, the diplomatic notes they had been exchanging since November of the previous year led to what is generally called the "Gentleman's Agreement."

Its contents include, "the Japanese government, except for former residents and people living in the U.S., their parents & family, in principle will not issue U.S. bound passports." This meant that those Japanese workers allowed to set foot on the American mainland would be limited to former residents and the families of Japanese living in America. And as a result, after the "U.S.-Japan Gentleman's Agreement," North American and Hawaii emigration shifted from the age of unrestricted migration to the emigration age. The number of emigrants in the years in between the two eras peaked.

This situation is shown in Figure 1: “Japanese and Chinese Emigration to the United States”.

Scaling-up of Liners on Transpacific Routes

If we turn our eyes toward the Pacific and North American shipping routes during this period, TKK’s former joint business partner, the Pacific Mail Steamship Company (PMSS) played a central role in the process of putting larger ships in service. In 1900 (Meiji 33), the president of the Southern Pacific Railroad (which owned the PMSS), Collis P. Huntington, died and Edward H. Harriman became president, controlling both it and the Union Pacific Railroad. However, company vice president Rennie Schwerin, Huntington’s right-hand man and a Naval Academy graduate, managed practical business affairs.

At the beginning of the 20th century, Pacific Mail’s large-scale passenger liners debuted on San Francisco shipping routes. Four ships--specifically the 11,000-ton sister ships *Korea* and the *Siberia* and, following them, the 13,000-ton *Mongolia* and its sister ship, the *Manchuria*--went into service following Schwerin’s plan. Large-scale passenger liners in excess of 10,000 gross tons replaced obsolete ships. Shipping companies from Great Britain, the U.S. and Japan sought to gain the upper hand on the fiercely competitive Pacific shipping routes.

At about the same time, a new American company, the Great Northern Steamship Company (GNSS) appeared on the Pacific routes. It also invested in the Far East-to-Seattle shipping routes with the 20,000-ton class large-scale steamers *Minnesota* and the *Dakota*.

A subsidiary of the Great Northern Railroad (GNRR), the GNSS participated in a joint operation of the NYK’s route to Seattle. The president of GNRR, James J. Hill, was introduced in chapter 3. It is said that at one point Hill sought to invest in combining NYK ships into large-scale cargo-passenger ships; because NYK ships weren’t suited for this, he personally built the *Minnesota*-class ships for moving into the Pacific shipping routes.

Those ships’ main specifications are shown in Table 2, which shows that the steerage capacity was quite large. Steerage is located close to both the bow and the stern. The capacity [of one ship] was 1,000 persons to 1,400 persons, so working together, six ships could carry 7,500. The customer market being aimed at was, of course, Asians.

For the six ships that appeared in the first half of the 1900 decade, seen in Table 2, it was the golden age of emigration from Japan to the U.S. It seems as though U.S. passenger ship steerage capacity was incorporated in this trend, but Japanese emigration dropped to 3,000 persons in 1909, the year following the conclusion of the “U.S.-Japan Gentleman’s Agreement.” For decades thereafter emigration demand, even including Chinese, was

more or less 10,000 persons per year-- a number that six ships could handle in just two voyages.

On one hand, American policy was to exclude Asians, yet on the other hand ships were being built in expectation of laborers arriving from abroad. This kind of contradictory U.S. posture is difficult to understand. However, during this period, Japan's transpacific steamship companies [steamers] countered their U.S. competitors with plans scaling up their Pacific shipping route passenger ships.

The Introduction Of The Epoch-Making Japanese-Built Passenger Ship - The *Tenyo Maru*

After the founding of TKK line, it came to participate in the collaborative assignment [cartel] of vessels with the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, a subsidiary of the Southern Pacific Railroad. But with the commandeering of TKK ships during the Russo-Japanese war, cooperative conditions became confused, and the TKK decided to change its previous joint business from the Southern Pacific Railroad under Harriman to the Western Pacific Railroad under (Jay) Gould. At that time, the person said to be good at negotiating with American railroad companies was the official in charge of the San Francisco facilities, Genjirou Shiraishi. Shiraishi, who was the adopted son-in-law of Soichiro Asano, later founded Nippon Koukan (NKK - Steel Pipe).

Meeting in March 1901, the TKK board of directors decided to build two large-scale passenger ships, but this huge proposal seems likely to have been Shiraishi's. According to the often quoted *Toyo Kisen 64 Year History*, (Published 1964 – Editor, Hideo Nakano. Nakano was the last president of this company), Shiraishi proposed the construction of two gigantic passenger ships. The company history states that this encouraged Asano not to give up until those ships came into being as the *Tenyo Maru* and the *Chiyo Maru*.

In June, 1905 (Meiji 38), the year that would see an end to the Russo-Japanese war, the materials were ordered for the *Tenyo Maru* and its sister ship, the *Chiyo Maru*, at the Mitsubishi shipyard in Nagasaki. Requiring nearly three years for construction, the *Tenyo Maru* and *Chiyo Maru* were completed in April and November of 1908, respectively. In the estimates of the shipyard, each ship cost 4,270,000 yen. However, in order to offer a cheaper building price, steel materials, propulsion machinery, and other things were imported by TKK from England at a cost of 1,510,000 yen per ship and provided to the shipbuilding yard. Of course, Shiraishi carried out the purchasing of raw materials in London.

The *Tenyo Maru* class were 13,000 gross tons. At the time, they far surpassed any of Japan's passenger ships. Many innovations were incorporated into their equipment. In particular, the point must be noted that, in principle, for British passenger ships of the *Lusitania* class (31, 550 tons, completed 1907) of the North Atlantic shipping route, it was decided to use the steam turbine (heavy oil burning steam turbine), which had only just reached the stage of practical usability. Also, it delivered such things as suites with ornate First Class passenger cabins, living rooms, bedrooms and bathrooms, packaged

with the interior décor in the new sensation, the art nouveau style. Its magnificence included many eye-opening items, but this manuscript is the history of the emigration ships, so we will omit points concerning that area. In the next section we will discuss the conditions of steerage passenger accommodations, the problem at hand. However, in Japanese ships there is no “steerage” class; 3rd class satisfies this.

Tenyo Maru steerage (3rd class) capacity was 816 people. Passenger cabins were in the areas, positioned as follows: One section, the Chinese steerage, was on the upper deck toward the stern. On the deck below that was a section used for Japanese people, toward the bow, and a section used for Chinese people toward the stern. The interior of these quarters was taken up with tiers of bunks built into each wall. [Literally, taken individually, the characters used here, *san-hou*, mean “silkworm-shelf.” This refers to a kind of “bunkhouse” in which bunks are built into each wall, one bunk above another, so that the room looks as though many shelves protrude from each wall.] Even more Chinese emigrants than Japanese emigrants were put in these, as the capacity of the cabins used for Chinese was greater. In the upper deck Chinese section there were also smoking room facilities called the “opium den”. It’s a digression, but such opium smoking facilities were also established in the public rooms for use by the Chinese on passenger ships on the route between China and Nagasaki.

The capacity of the *Tenyo Maru* was double the 383-person steerage capacity of the *America Maru* (6,210 tons, built in 1898) class that opened the shipping routes. Just as with the afore-mentioned American passenger liners, it seems the increased capacity was the result of predictions of increased Japanese immigration to America. However, the reasons for making the rooms for Chinese use so large are a mystery. Nonetheless, even if they were said to be for Chinese use, it was possible to divert them to other uses.

In contrast to American ships with steerage capacity surpassing 1,000 persons, the capacity of the *Tenyo Maru* was limited to 800. Perhaps there was some concern that the intensification of the anti-Japanese movement would impact future emigration to North America. In 1908, the year that the *Tenyo Maru* and the *Chiyo Maru* were commissioned, the “U.S.-Japan Gentleman’s Agreement” was concluded. But the year before, proceeding from those two ships, a third ship, the *Shinyo Maru*, had been ordered from the Mitsubishi shipyard. It was completed on August 1911 (Meiji 44), at the beginning of what would become a sharp decrease in Japanese emigration. The *Tenyo Maru* put to sea in an adverse market environment but fortunately, beginning in 1910 (Meiji 43), a new national policy subsidizing international shipping routes was applied to the San Francisco sea route and shipping activity was able to be maintained. Yet consequently, *Tenyo Maru* class construction left an immeasurable legacy of improvement in Japan’s shipbuilding arts. It didn’t guarantee TKK’s success, but it was a big plus in the development of Japan’s shipbuilding industry. If Asano, seeing those prospects, was determined to build the *Tenyo Maru* and order it from Mitsubishi, he was certainly a great man—someone who comes along only once in a generation.

The Establishment of Osaka Merchant Shipping’s Tacoma Route

Osaka Shosen Kaisha (Osaka Merchant Shipping or OSK), a major shipping company that was on a par with Nippon Yusen Kaisha (Japan Postal Shipping or NYK) [Osaka Shosen merged with Mitsui Senpaku - Mitsui Shipping to create Osaka Shosen Mitsui Senpaku, which is known as “Mitsui OSK Lines”]. OSK launched its transpacific shipping routes in 1909 (Meiji 42). This shipping route resembled the NYK shipping route to Seattle. Shipping was to follow the principle of freight first, passengers second. If we consider the turn toward decreasing emigration to North America, the circumstance of competition between Japan, U.S. and Britain passenger ship companies for shipping routes was a natural outcome. Moreover, in response to the joint venture between the Great Northern Railroad and NYK, OSK concluded a transportation contract with the Chicago, Milwaukee & St. Paul Railroad. Tacoma was the Pacific coast terminal for the newly established transcontinental railroad. The Panama Canal was not yet open, and companies shipping between the Far East and the west coast of North America started joint businesses with transcontinental railroads to ensure freight and customers. Until that time, OSK’s routes had been regional or coastal, so the company invested 6,500,000 yen in the construction of six ships of the 6,000 (gross) ton *Tacoma Maru* class. Orders were placed with the Kawasaki Shipyard and with the Mitsubishi Shipyard— three ships each.

OSK’s first commercial voyage was carried out by the *Tacoma Maru* on July 7, 1909, departing from Hong Kong. By 1911, all six ships were completed and they were in service for 25 years. Initial ports of call were Hong Kong, Manila, Shanghai, Nagasaki, Moji, Kobe, Yokkaichi, Yokohama, Victoria, Seattle and Tacoma. This shipping route, as with TKK’s San Francisco route, became a nationally subsidized shipping route.

The *Tacoma Maru* class had a passenger capacity of around 180 persons (numbers vary) and thus was a ship of the “freight first, passengers second” variety. Most of the ship’s passenger carrying capacity was in steerage. This block was in the mid-section of the upper deck. That is to say, it was located on the lowest tier of the bridge deck. The passenger accommodations were “san-hou” dormitories with tiers of bunks built into each wall [note: as above, “silkworm shelf”].

Moreover, this same company from 1915 (Taisho 4) through 1920 (Taisho 9) built six ships of the 9,500-ton Hawaii Maru class, and strengthened its position in the Tacoma shipping route. This class was an enlarged, faster version of the Tacoma Maru class. The builder of the first ship, the *Hawaii Maru*, was the Kawasaki shipyard, while Mitsubishi built the remaining five. The steerage capacity of the Hawaii Maru was about 400 persons (this was also different from the passenger ships). Large, *san-hou* style common dormitories with tiers of bunks built into each wall could also be used as cargo holds. The space behind the [raised] upper deck was completely occupied. Four cabins were even set up for use by women. What’s more, an infirmary for men and women was set up on the starboard stern of the “bridge deck.” The women’s cabin and infirmary facilities followed the example of the *Anyo Maru* on the route to the west coast of South America (another example was the *Arabia Maru*. Refer to the deck plan of the Arabia Maru (below).

What accounted for the increase of the passenger cabin facilities in this way of the *Hawaii Maru* in spite of the peak and decline of the market target of North American emigrants?

OSK invested in the *Kasato Maru* and in 1916 (Taisho 5) established what would be a key emigration route, the shipping route to the east coast of South America. But wasn't the same company on the verge of the *Hawaii Maru*-class projects and planning to invest in the South American east coast shipping routes? Yet, perhaps it was more or less related to the fact that the year before (1915) the American Pacific Mail Steamship Company withdrew from Pacific shipping routes, allowing OSK to establish its San Francisco shipping route.

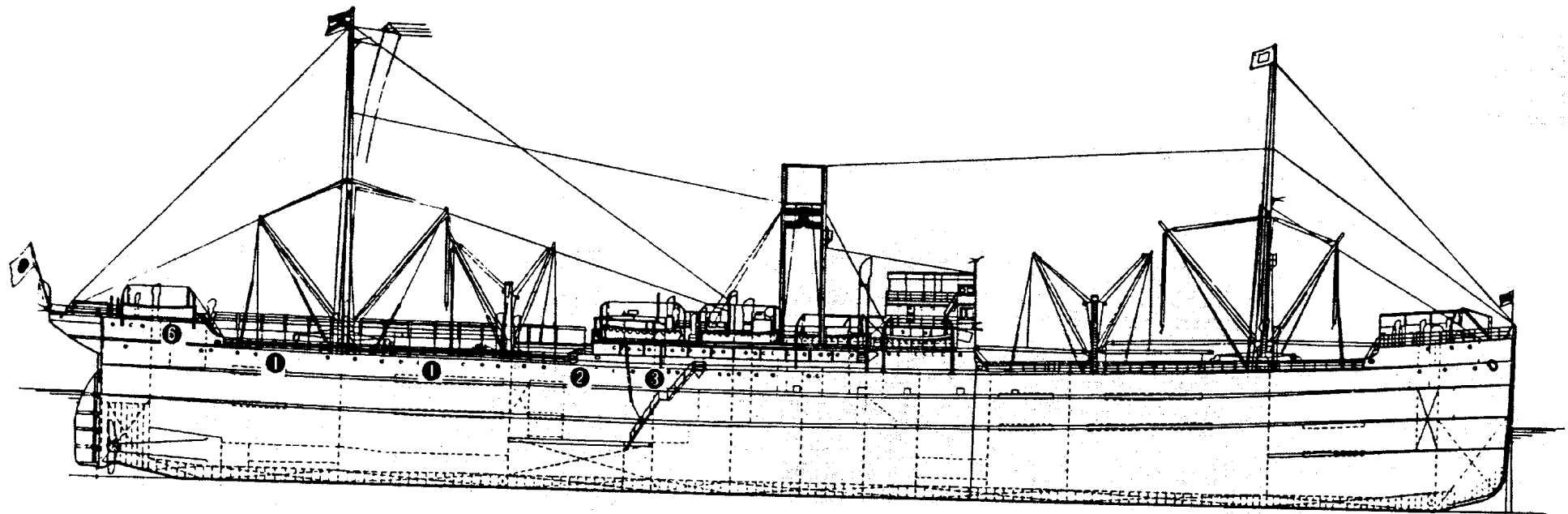
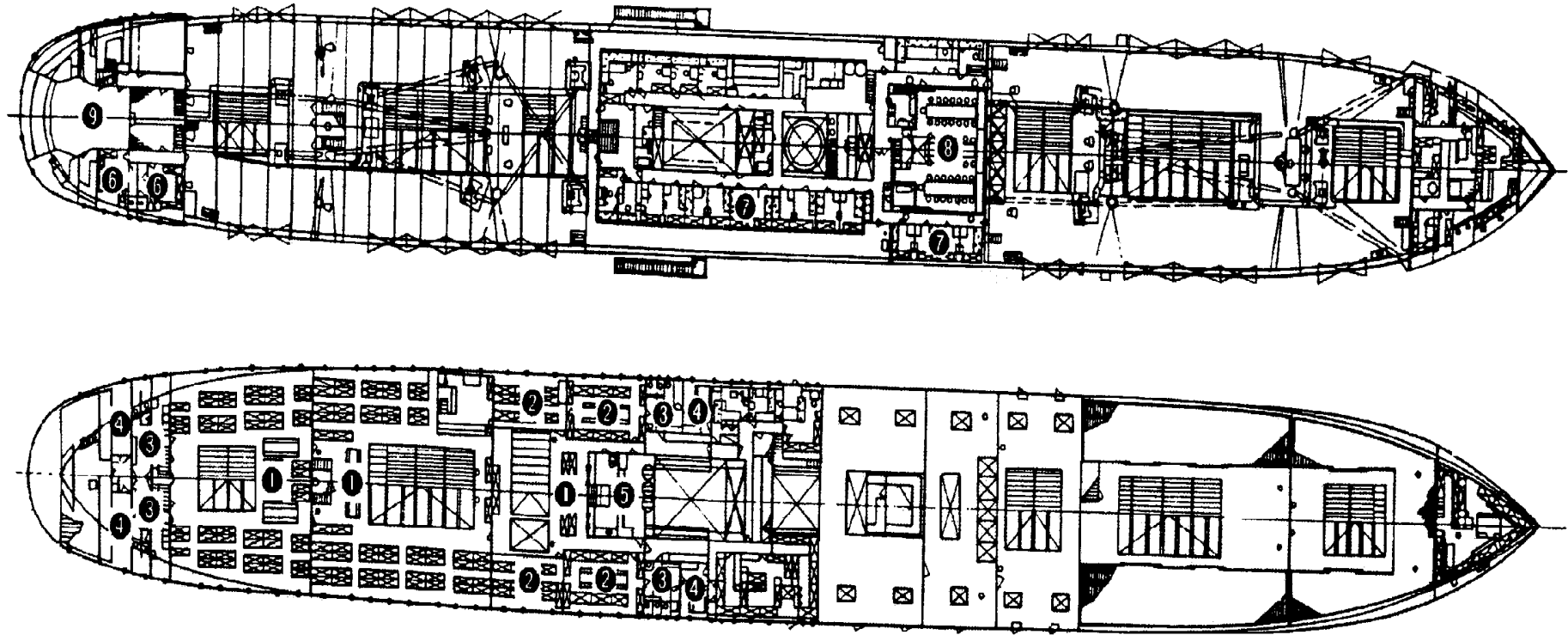


Figure 1. Deck Plan of the *Arabia Maru*

- 1 Steerage (3rd class)
- 2 Steerage for women
- 3 toilet
- 4 bath
- 5 galley
- 6 sick bay
- 7 First class cabins
- 8 Dining room
- 9 Steering mechanisms



Deck Plan of the *Arabia Maru*

- | | |
|------------------------------------|----------------------|
| 1 Steerage (3 rd class) | 5 galley |
| 2 Steerage for women | 6 sick bay |
| 3 toilet | 7 First class cabins |
| 4 bath | 8 Dining room |
| 9 Steering mechanisms | |

When the Panama Canal opened in 1914 (Taisho 3), the principal North American shipping route of OSK was switched from the Tacoma shipping route (later famous as the Puget Sound line) to the Panama Canal-to-New York route. Ultimately, the curtain fell on that route in 1931 (Showa 6¹), when it merged with NYK.

The Origin of Steerage

Up to this point in this manuscript, in describing lower class passenger cabins, the term “steerage” has been frequently used. Let’s provide a little explanation of this term. Steerage was taken from the notion to take the helm (“steer”). If you consult a dictionary, “steer,” “steering a ship,” “3rd class ship cabin” and “stern” are the given definitions. According to Senpei Sawa’s *English Of The Sea*, (1971, Kenkyusha Publications), since the steering mechanism (“steering housing”) is at the stern of the ship, steerage can be used to mean “lower class passenger accommodations” as well as “stern of the ship.” In fact, in steamships, there are many illustrations of the lowest grade passenger cabins being in the lower tier of the ship’s stern adjoining the steering mechanism. However, in the case of the above-mentioned American passenger ships and the *Tenyo Maru*, steerage was established toward the bow, toward the stern, and in the cargo hold. It certainly wasn’t limited to being aft. From this point, Yokohama National University Professor of Engineering, Dr. Mitsuharu Ikehata, stated that

“Additionally, besides ‘steerage’ meaning that the lower class passenger accommodations were near the steering, doesn’t it also seem connected to the fact that the lower class customer cabins and the cargo holds were interchangeable?”

In other words, he explains that “steer” and the meaning associated with a warehouse or “storage” were conflated. Indeed, it is an explanation that should be heeded. If you look at the interior décor of the emigration ships, Professor Ikehata’s explanation has the ring of truth. Of course, it’s a fact that emigrant transport had originated during the era of sailing ships, but the term “steerage” meaning “lower class passenger cabins” was used during the steamship era. In sailing ships, the ship’s stern is the ship-steering’s pivotal section. Therefore, the officers’ sailors’ cabins were set up in this section.

There was a sharp increase in emigration to North America from the Old World beginning in the first half of the 19th century. Initially, emigrants brought their own food, cooking utensils, bedding and other daily necessities to survive the sailing ships’ long, arduous crossing of the Atlantic. When ships were delayed, deaths by starvation often occurred. It was a harsh voyage, very far from today’s image of sea travel. It is reported that in the potato famine that occurred in Ireland in the in the 1840s, out of a population of 9 million, 1 million people starved and 1.5 million people emigrated to the New World. Against the backdrop of this kind of demand, in the mid-19th century, a shipping company that made the transport of emigrants via North Atlantic shipping routes the pillar of its business was born. It was the Inman Line of Liverpool.

This era when the paddlewheel steamer was the mainstay ended with the Inman passenger ship that used the screw [note: i.e. the screw steamer], as it consumed half as

much coal as the paddlewheel steamer. Further, it had the advantage that the space required for storing coal was small, so the lower decks could be used as emigrant steerage quarters. Inman Passenger Line freight rates were inexpensive, added to which the offer of food in steerage produced a flood of passengers. In 1870 (Meiji 3), according to British Government statistics, out of 141,500 emigrants that landed in New York, close to one third (40,500 people) made the voyage on Inman Line ships.

In England in this period, it was recommended by Parliament that emigrant ships offer cooked food, but bedding and other daily necessities were purchased by emigrants where they boarded the ship. However, in Hamburg in 1892 (Meiji 25), cholera broke out among emigrants preparing to depart and the United States refused them landing. Because of this, and afterward for health reasons, the shipping company started providing bedding free of charge. The company that adopted this groundbreaking bedding service was the British White Star Line. This company was established in 1869 (Meiji 2) at the onset of the emigrant boom, and annually attracted close to 300,000 passengers. This company's new ship construction group also focused on emigrant transport; steerage had a capacity of 1,000 to 1,500.

On the one hand, as for the steerage on the Pacific shipping routes, at first the main thrust was Chinese foreign labor emigrants. The PMSS Company hit the mark, having a capacity of 1,000 to 1,200 persons. Bedding was on a bring-your-own basis. The ship offered meals, but Chinese passengers brought chopsticks and tableware. For the most part, there was no fresh thinking regarding the safety aspect and health aspect of steerage.

Because there were many elderly people returning home on west-bound vessels, caskets were prepared for sale in case of deaths on board ship. It is said that embalmed corpses were carried as far as China. Asian people detest burial at sea so, in later years, South American emigrant ships also carried a suitable number of caskets. In 1918 (Taisho 7), on the NYK ship, the *Wakasa Maru* [There is a boat rental company that still uses this name today] (6,266 tons, built 1897) an incident occurred where more than 50 people died in an epidemic of encephalomyelitis. The records of that voyage indicate that of the people who declined burial at sea, eight were furnished with caskets. There being too few caskets, one person was placed, as-is, in one corner of the ship's cargo hold.

The Meiji "Emigrant Protection Law" defined any ship carrying more than 50 emigrants defined as an emigrant transport ship (section 20, condition 2). Regulations were established concerning emigrant transport but, as seen earlier, the actual conditions of steerage certainly appear to have been poor. The ship provided meals, but bedding was deficient; emigrants carried their own sheets and blankets.

The Enactment of Anti-Japanese Immigration Laws and the North American Shipping Routes

Now, let's continue with the story of emigrants to North America and the Pacific shipping routes.

We have already discussed the fact that in 1908, after the “U.S.-Japan Gentleman’s Agreement”, migration to North America was restricted, as per the U.S. request, and the annual number of voyagers began to decline. Based on this manner of inhospitable travel conditions, it came to be that at the peak of North American emigration, the flock of new Japanese and American large-scale passenger ships had to scrape by to operate with demand at the level of 10,000 persons annually, and ships were operated only with difficulty

The Oriental and Occidental (O&O) Company--like the Pacific Mail Steamship Company, a Southern Pacific Railroad company-- did not follow the trend toward the up-scaling of passenger ships and was dissolved in 1906. But the PMSS, the leader in the San Francisco shipping routes spanning the half century since the founding in 1867 (Keio 3) of the transpacific shipping routes, also decided to withdraw the last of its traditional service, with the August 1915 voyage of the *Mongolia*. The impetus was the “LaFollette Seamen’s Act of 1915”, [This law was championed by Senator Robert M. La Follette of Wisconsin, a leader of the progressive movement] enacted for the protection of American sailors. The PMSS used low-wage Chinese crews, but the new law would make doing so impossible.

Of the seven PMSS ships, in 1915 the *Persia* (4,356 tons, built in 1881 and formerly the *Coptic* of the O & O) was sold to TKK and was renamed the *Persia*. Just then, due to the shortage of shipping capacity that accompanied World War I, Pacific shipping routes were temporarily the center of brisk activity. The following year, 1916, the *Korea* and the *Siberia* crossed over into the hands of TKK. They were re-christened the *Korea Maru* and the *Siberia Maru*, respectively, and thrown into the Pacific shipping routes. Both were substituted for the *Chiyo Maru*, which had run aground the year before.

TKK’s passenger ships shrank in number, but still TKK continued to earnestly pursue passenger travel without change, supported by the trend of North American emigration. In 1913 (Taisho 2) in the state of California enacted an anti-Japanese land law: land ownership by Japanese who were not U.S. citizens was prohibited, and leasing land for more than 3 years was also outlawed. At that time, of the approximately 60,000 Japanese in the United States, over half were engaged in agriculture. The damage to people of Japanese descent was extensive. Moreover, in 1920 (Taisho 9), a land law completely forbidding the leasing of land by Japanese was enacted in the State of California by referendum.

This series of ostracisms culminated in the enactment of the 1924 (Taisho 13) “Immigration Act”, which marked a decisive stage. This law, popularly called the “Anti-Japanese Immigration Law,” didn’t contain any language on turning away Japanese specifically but it came under the clause in article number 13 (c) “foreign nationals that cannot become citizens of the United States of America...cannot enter the United States of America.” In short, “foreigners who can’t be naturalized” can’t enter the United States. As we have already seen, in Hawaii- and North America-bound Japanese emigration, the desire to work abroad was strong. Even with the “Emigrant Protection Law”, traveling to

work abroad wasn't seen as emigration. Thus, in short, "foreigners who can't be naturalized" is a euphemism for "Japanese Immigrants." Those promoting the enactment of the "Anti-Japanese Immigration Law" planned for the barring from entry of Japanese people on this pretext.

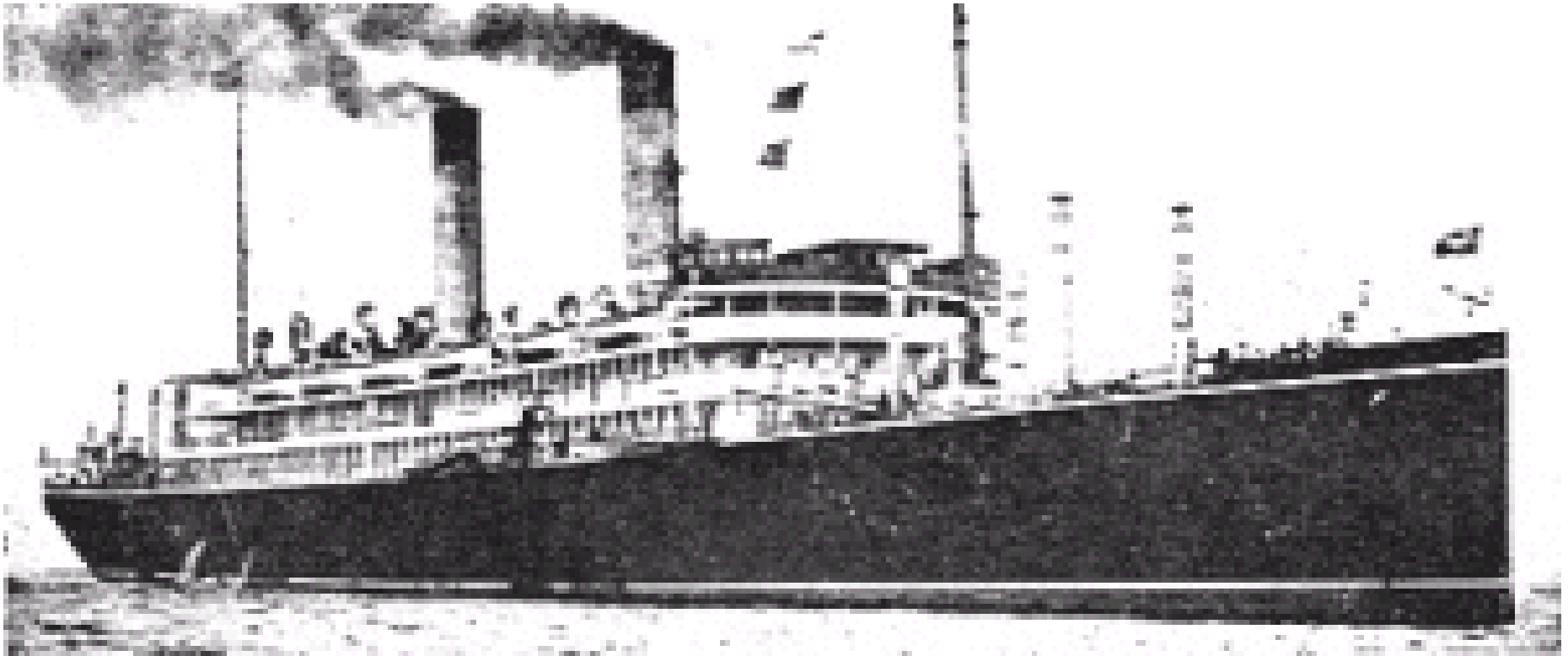
In this manner, the uninterrupted emigration to the United States by Asians from the time of the gold rush in the 1850s came a dead halt when the "Immigration Act of 1924" was enacted. In the year after this law took effect, 1925 (Taisho 14), the number of Japanese emigrants bound for the United States, as shown in Table 1, dramatically decreased. The same was true for Chinese.

From that time forward, the principal passenger market on Pacific routes shifted from steerage to upper class passengers. When this happened, the *Tenyo Maru* class, *Korea Maru* class and other well-used passenger ships that were the core of the TKK's passenger fleet, were surpassed in décor by American and British lines' new large-scale passenger ships that appeared successively in the Pacific Ocean. TKK didn't have a chance and ultimately, in 1926 (Taisho 15) abandoned the passenger ship business. The company's passenger ship fleet, including ships on routes to the west coast of South America, were folded into NYK (Nippon Yusen Kaisha).

Table 1. Japanese and Chinese Emigration to the United States			
YEAR	Japanese	Chinese	Related Events
1895 (Meiji 28)	1,150	539	End of Sino-Japanese war
1896 (Meiji 29)	1,110	1,441	Establishing of the Japan-Seattle postal shipping route
1897 (Meiji 30)	1,526	3,363	
1898 (Meiji 31)	2,230	2,071	-Emigrant Protection law proclamation, Toyo Kisen Kaisha (TKK) shipping routes established
1899 (Meiji 32)	2,844	1,660	Sakura Maru's Peru Emigration
1900 (Meiji 33)	12,635	1,247	
1901 (Meiji 34)	5,269	2,459	
1902 (Meiji 35)	14,270	1,649	
1903 (Meiji 36)	19,968	2,209	
1904 (Meiji 37)	14,264	4,309	Russo-Japanese war begins
1905 (Meiji 38)	10,331	2,166	Russo-Japanese war ends; TKK's South American western
1906 (Meiji 39)	13,835	1,544	San Francisco earthquake
1907 (Meiji 40)	30,226	961	Regular [emigration] ships to Hawaii prohibited
1908 (Meiji 41)	15,803	1,397	Japan-U.S. Gentleman's Agreement, Tenyo Maru commissioned, Kasato Maru emigration
1909 (Meiji 42)	3,111	1,943	Osaka Merchant Shipping (OSK) Tacoma shipping route established
1910 (Meiji 43)	2,720	1,968	
1911 (Meiji 44)	4,520	1,460	
1912 (Taisho 1)	6,114	1,765	Republic of China created
1913 (Taisho 2)	8,281	2,105	California anti-Japanese land law is enacted
1914 (Taisho 3)	8,929	2,502	WWI begins
1915 (Taisho 4)	8,613	2,660	
1916 (Taisho 5)	8,680	2,460	
1917 (Taisho 6)	8,991	2,237	
1918 (Taisho 7)	10,213	1,795	
1919 (Taisho 8)	10,064	1,964	Anti-Japanese immigration law created
1920 (Taisho 9)	9,432	2,330	
1921 (Taisho 10)	7,878	4,009	
1922 (Taisho 11)	6,716	4,406	
1923 (Taisho 12)	5,809	4,986	
1924 (Taisho 13)	8,801	6,992	"National Origins" based quota system to restrict immigration begins in U.S.
1925 (Taisho 14)	723	1,937	

Table 2. Early 20 th century trans pacific shipping route passenger ships								
Ship name	Gross tons	Length, breadth (meters)	Propulsion	Speed (knots)	Passenger capacity	Shipyard	Year built	Remarks
<i>Korea</i> (Pacific Mail)	11,276	167.6 x 19.2	Quadruple expansion	20	200 (1 st class) 1,260 (steerage)	Newport News	1902	Sister ship to <i>Siberia</i> (1902)
<i>Mongolia</i> (Pacific Mail)	13,636	182.9 x 20.0	Quadruple expansion	15	350 (1 st class) 68 (2 nd class) 1,400 (steerage)	New York Shipbuilding (Camden, NJ)	1904	Sister ship to <i>Manchuria</i> (1904)
<i>Minnesota</i> (Great Northern)	20,602	185.3 x 22.3	Triple expansion	17	172 (1 st class) 111 (2 nd class) 68 (3 rd class) 1,067 (steerage)	Eastern Shipbuilding (New London, CT)	1904	Sister ship to <i>Dakota</i> (1905)
<i>Tenyo Maru</i> (TKK)	13,454	167.6 x 19.2	Steam turbine, 2 screws	20.6	260 (1 st class) 47 (2 nd class) 816 (steerage)	Mitsubishi's Nagasaki shipyard	1908	Sister ship to <i>Chiyoh Maru</i> (1908) and <i>Haruyoh</i> (1911)

Passenger liners of the Osaka Merch. Shipping's Tacoma shipping route								
<i>Tacoma Maru</i>	6,178	121.9 x 15.5	Triple expansi on	14.1	6 (1 st class) 176 (3 rd class)	Kawasaki	1909	-Same ship model as the Kawasaki Shipbuilding Yard's Seattle Maru; (completed 1909) , Chi-cago Maru (completed 1910), Mitsubishi Nagasaki Shipbuilding Yard's Panama Maru (Completed 1910), Mexico Maru, (Completed 1910), Canada Maru (Completed 1911).
<i>Hawaii Maru</i>	9,482	144.8 x 18.6	Triple expansi on	16.6	12 (1 st class) 398 (steerage)	Kawasaki	1915	Same ship model as the Mitsubishi Nagasaki Shipbuilding Yard's Manila Maru (Completed 1915), Africa Maru (Complpeted 1918), Arabia Maru (Completed 1918), Arizona Maru (Completed 1920), Ala-bama Maru (Completed 1920)



The Tenyo Maru