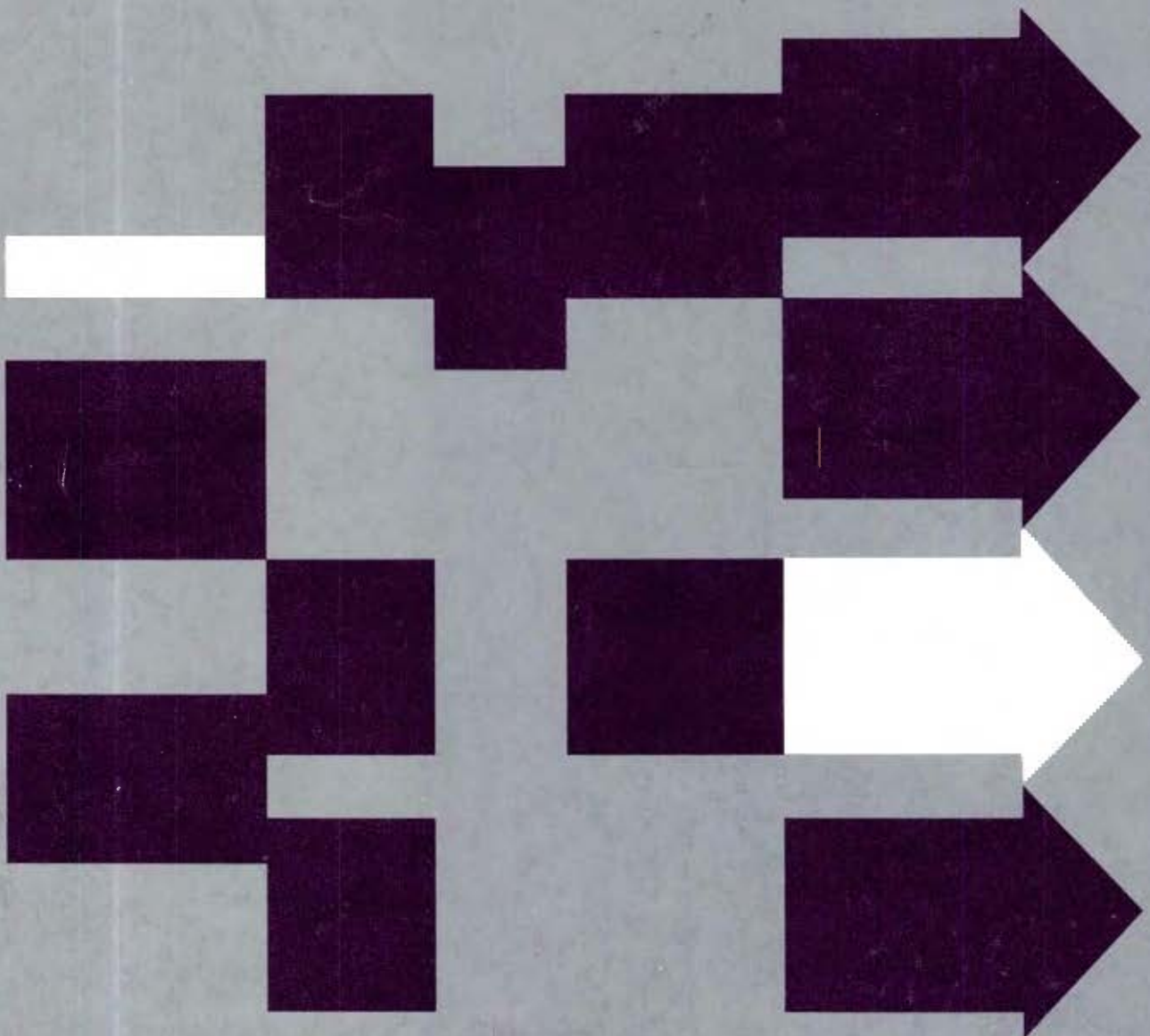


# Immigration Issues in Hawaii

September 1979



—A report of the proceedings of a consultation conducted by the Hawaii Advisory Committee to the United States Commission on Civil Rights in Honolulu, Hawaii, August 25, 1978. This report will be considered by the Commission, and the Commission will make public its reaction. In the meantime, the contents of this report should not be attributed to the Commission but only to the Hawaii Advisory Committee.

## **THE UNITED STATES COMMISSION ON CIVIL RIGHTS**

The United States Commission on Civil Rights, created by the Civil Rights Act of 1957, is an independent, bipartisan agency of the executive branch of the Federal Government. By the terms of the act, as amended, the Commission is charged with the following duties pertaining to discrimination or denials of the equal protection of the laws based on race, color, religion, sex, age, handicap, or national origin, or in the administration of justice: investigation of individual discriminatory denials of the right to vote; study of legal developments with respect to discrimination or denials of the equal protection of the law; appraisal of the laws and policies of the United States with respect to discrimination or denials of equal protection of the law; maintenance of a national clearinghouse for information respecting discrimination or denials of equal protection of the law; and investigation of patterns or practices of fraud or discrimination in the conduct of Federal elections. The Commission is also required to submit reports to the President and the Congress at such times as the Commission, the Congress, or the President shall deem desirable.

## **THE STATE ADVISORY COMMITTEES**

An Advisory Committee to the United States Commission on Civil Rights has been established in each of the 50 States and the District of Columbia pursuant to section 105(c) of the Civil Rights Act of 1957 as amended. The Advisory Committees are made up of responsible persons who serve without compensation. Their functions under their mandate from the Commission are to: advise the Commission of all relevant information concerning their respective States on matters within the jurisdiction of the Commission; advise the Commission on matters of mutual concern in the preparation of reports of the Commission to the President and the Congress; receive reports, suggestions, and recommendations from individuals, public and private organizations, and public officials upon matters pertinent to inquiries conducted by the State Advisory Committee; initiate and forward advice and recommendations to the Commission upon matters in which the Commission shall request the assistance of the State Advisory Committee; and attend, as observers, any open hearing or conference which the Commission may hold within the State.

# Immigration Issues in Hawaii

—A report of the proceedings of a consultation conducted by the Hawaii Advisory Committee to the United States Commission on Civil Rights in Honolulu, Hawaii, August 25, 1978.

## **ATTRIBUTION:**

The findings and recommendations contained in this report are those of the individual presenters who appeared before the Hawaii Advisory Committee to the United States Commission on Civil Rights and, as such, are not attributable to the Commission. This report has been prepared by the State Advisory Committee for submission to the Commission, and will be considered by the Commission in formulating its recommendations to the President and Congress.

## **RIGHT OF RESPONSE:**

Prior to the publication of a report, the State Advisory Committee affords to all individuals or organizations that may be defamed, degraded, or incriminated by any material contained in the report an opportunity to respond in writing to such material. All responses have been incorporated, appended, or otherwise reflected in the publication.

## Letter of Transmittal

Hawaii Advisory Committee to the  
U.S. Commission on Civil Rights  
September 1979

### MEMBERS OF THE COMMISSION

Arthur S. Flemming, *Chairperson*

Stephen Horn, *Vice Chairperson*

Frankie M. Freeman

Manuel Ruiz, Jr.

Murray Saltzman

Louis Nuñez, *Staff Director*

..

Sirs and Madam:

The Hawaii Advisory Committee submits this report of the proceedings of its consultation on immigration issues in Hawaii as part of its responsibility to advise the Commission on civil rights issues within this State.

The purpose of the Advisory Committee's consultation was to supplement the Commission's national study of immigration concerns and to apprise the Commission of local immigration issues of importance to Hawaii.

The Advisory Committee held the consultation on August 25, 1978, in Honolulu. Eight individuals prepared statements on immigration concerns. This report presents the comments collected that day.

The Advisory Committee believes the data will be useful to the Commission's national immigration study.

Respectfully,

Patricia K. Putman, *Chairperson*

Hawaii Advisory Committee

**Membership**  
**Hawaii Advisory Committee to the**  
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## **ACKNOWLEDGMENTS**

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The staff of the Publications Support Center, Office of Management, was responsible for final preparation of the report for publication.

# Contents

<b>1. Introduction</b> .....	1
<b>2. Immigration Trends in Hawaii</b>	
Presented by Robert C. Schmitt .....	2
<b>3. Social Characteristics of Pilipinos in the Mainland United States and Hawaii</b>	
Presented by Peter C. Smith.....	42
<b>4. Comparative Analysis of Pilipinos in Hawaii</b>	
Presented by Robert W. Gardner.....	64
<b>5. The Immigration and Naturalization Service and Civil Liberties in Hawaii</b>	
Presented by Reinhard Mohr.....	76
<b>6. The Effect of National Immigration Laws on Growth and Population in Hawaii</b>	
Presented by Eileen R. Anderson.....	82
<b>7. Immigrants in Hawaii: The State Immigrant Services Center Perspective</b>	
Presented by Bienvenido D. Junasa .....	89
<b>8. The Practice of Immigration Law in Hawaii</b>	
Presented by William F. Thompson III.....	93
<b>9. The Kalihi-Palama Immigrant Service Center</b>	
Presented by Gary Omori.....	99

# 1. Introduction

The issue of undocumented workers' impact on American society has generated much interest, controversy, and debate. Recently, the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights undertook a national project to document the impact of immigration law, regulations, and policies on the civil rights of minority U.S. citizens and aliens. On November 13-14, 1978, the Commission conducted a public hearing in Washington, D.C., on national immigration concerns.

During 1977 and 1978, the Commission's Advisory Committees in California, Hawaii, New York, and Texas assisted in gathering information on immigration concerns in these four States. In Hawaii such concerns included language barriers and minimal understanding of rights. Public debate on Hawaii's ability to accommodate the immigration and migration of additional people on limited land is also a major concern. Various measures have been proposed to deal with this issue, including residency requirements for State employment.

The Hawaii Advisory Committee's factfinding effort on immigration issues included information on the effect of residency requirements on Hawaii's immigration patterns of aliens, on migration patterns of mainland U.S. citizens, and U.S. Immigration and

Naturalization Service policies and procedures in the State.

Factfinding efforts included: interviews with approximately 40 individuals from Federal, State, and city agencies, university departments, and private organizations by the Western Regional Office staff of the Commission; data collection and review; and an Advisory Committee consultation. The Advisory Committee Consultation on Immigration Issues in Hawaii was held on August 25, 1978, at the Prince Kuhio Federal Building in Honolulu and is the basis for this report.

Eight individuals presented data on numerous issues related to immigration, including: immigration trends in Hawaii; statistical data on immigrants; social and economic characteristics of Pilipinos,<sup>1</sup> the largest numerical immigrant group; civil liberties concerns in the application of immigration law and the practices of the Immigration and Naturalization Service; due process problems faced by immigrants; State concerns over the impact of immigrants and migrants; operation of the State Immigrant Service Center; and problems and concerns of the Kalihi-Palama Immigrant Service Center.

The proceedings of the consultation follow.

<sup>1</sup> The term "Pilipino" in this report refers to persons who were born in the Philippines or whose ancestors immigrated to the United States from the Philippines. In recent years, the term "Pilipino" has gained wide accep-

tance among many persons of Philippine ancestry and reflects a group identity and pride in their culture and heritage.



## 2. Immigration Trends in Hawaii

Presentation of Robert C. Schmitt\*

I was asked to tell you something about what statistics are available on recent immigration trends in Hawaii. Immigration is defined here as it is understood by demographers who use the term to refer to persons changing residence across international borders. Secondary attention is given to two groups classified as immigrants, but who are not immigrants, those from other States and those from U.S. territories and possessions, chiefly American Samoa. There is also some information on outmigration, both to other States and abroad.

The accepted terminology in this field may sometimes obscure major variations in the characteristics of migrants. It excludes visitors and other short-time residents, for example, although tourists from the mainland, Canada, and Japan now constitute a sizable fraction of the de facto population. Numerous migrants from western Canada have recently settled on Maui, either on a part-time or permanent basis. These Canadians, classified as immigrants, often seem more akin to the resident population than do migrants from Texas or Alabama who are not immigrants. Arrivals from American Samoa occupy a somewhat anomalous position; classified as U.S. nationals rather than as either citizens or aliens, they come from a Polynesian society that in language and culture more closely resembles that of the native Hawaiian than that of the mainland American. Island immigration statistics are further complicated by the fact that many of the persons moving to Hawaii from foreign countries are U.S. military personnel and their families, being reassigned from

bases abroad to Pearl Harbor, Hickam Air Force Base, or Schofield Barracks for periods of 2 or 3 years. These members of the armed forces are typically of mainland origin, but their civilian dependents may be Korean, Vietnamese, or Hawaii born. The published statistics on migration, particularly those compiled by Federal agencies, rarely take account of such fine points.

Sources of data on migrants fall into two major categories. One consists of population surveys and censuses in which migration status is indicated by the answers to questions on place of birth, citizenship, place of residence 1 or 5 years earlier, and perhaps mother tongue. A second group of sources provides direct data on migration by counting the arrivals or departures of specified types of passengers. Sometimes movement is inferred by combining census or survey data with flow information on other components of change, such as births, deaths, and persons naturalized.

Island analysts can turn to at least three major sources for survey and census data on immigration. One is the decennial census of population conducted by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, taken most recently in 1970 and next planned for 1980. The 1970 census included questions on place of birth, citizenship, residence in 1965, and mother tongue. A second source is the Hawaii health surveillance program, a sample survey of households on the six major islands, conducted by the Hawaii State Department of Health on a continuing basis since late 1969. Although primarily designed to obtain infor-

\* Robert C. Schmitt is the State statistician with the Hawaii Department of Planning and Economic Development.

mation on health characteristics, this survey also provides statistics on place of birth, residence 1 year earlier, and length of residence in Hawaii. During the spring of 1976, moreover, the health survey was expanded to include questions requested by the office of the Lieutenant Governor regarding citizenship and language. Still another source of data on the alien population—actually a registration rather than a census or survey—is the alien address reports program of the U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service which requires all aliens to report their locations annually in January.

In addition to these regularly available sources, a number of surveys have been taken on a one-time-only or irregular basis. Examples include data developed by the Hawaii State Department of Education on the language abilities of students with a mother tongue other than English, data on the place of birth and residence 1 year earlier of public welfare recipients developed by the Hawaii State Department of Social Services and Housing, and a three-volume set of findings and recommendations from a study commissioned by the Hawaii State Commission on Population and the Hawaiian Future.

Direct statistics on migration are provided by the Hawaii Visitors Bureau [HVB] and the U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service. Since 1950, the Hawaii Visitors Bureau has used part of the State agricultural declaration form for questions relating to passenger characteristics. This form, given to every passenger or family head arriving from the mainland United States, asks whether the traveler is a visitor, returning resident, or intended resident. Immigrants arriving in the United States from foreign countries are asked by the U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service to name their nationality and State of intended future permanent residence. The same agency tabulates data annually on the number of aliens naturalized in each State.

Other sources on migrant arrivals and departures are the U.S. Social Security Administration and the Hawaii State Department of Labor and Industrial Relations. The former agency periodically compiles data on interstate address changes by Old Age and Survivors Insurance beneficiaries, 65 years old and over. The State agency tabulates statistics on Hawaii workers seeking work and filing for unemployment insurance benefits on the mainland and mainland workers filing claims for unemployment insurance

and registered for work with the Hawaii Employment Service.

These statistics appear in a variety of reports. The decennial census publications are issued by the U.S. Department of Commerce within a few years of each census. Besides the printed reports, the analyst has access to more detailed data on census summary tapes, the public use sample, and microfiche. Demographic statistics from the Hawaii health surveillance program are jointly published by the department of health and department of planning and economic development in the former agency's *Population Report* series. The annual reports of the U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service include statistics on immigrant arrivals and the alien address reports program. The HVB data on intended residents arriving from the mainland are published annually by the department of planning and economic development as *Hawaii's In-Migrants*. The same reports contain summary tables from the other sources cited above, particularly for series ordinarily left unpublished or issued only in little-known publications. *Hawaii's In-Migrants* also provides a comprehensive bibliography of recent studies and surveys on island migration.

A special tabulation of data from the Hawaii health surveillance program covering a 3-year period centered on July 1, 1975, shows that the foreign-born population of the State at that time was approximately 105,765 or 12.7 percent of the total population. The major sources of foreign-born residents were the Philippines, accounting for 48,029; Japan, with 24,144; China and Taiwan, with 7,169; and Korea, with 4,901. The native-born population totaled 724,758 and included 536,709 persons born in Hawaii, 181,000 born in other States, and 7,049 from U.S. territories and possessions. These data were expanded from a sample of 12,129 households containing 40,088 individuals residing in all parts of the State except Niihau and Kalawao. The survey also excluded persons in military barracks and institutions.

The foreign-born population of Hawaii has increased in both absolute and relative terms in recent years. The number of Hawaii residents born abroad rose by 20,000 between 1970 and 1975, and during the same period their share of the total went from 9.8 to 12.7 percent. Neither the number nor percentage reported in 1975 surpassed historical highs; however, in 1930, for example, 121,209 foreign-born persons lived in the islands, and in 1900 they

accounted for 58.9 percent of the total population. Data from the 1974–1976 survey and selected censuses back to 1853 are summarized in table 1.<sup>1</sup>

Alien address cards received by the U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service in January 1977 totaled 68,567 or 45.9 percent more than the number a decade earlier. The 1977 count included 31,598 from the Philippines, 13,622 from Japan, 5,767 from Korea, 2,847 from China and Taiwan, 2,680 from the United Kingdom, and 2,395 from Cambodia, Laos, or Vietnam. These figures excluded naturalized citizens and persons born abroad to American parents. Annual data back to 1967 appear in table 2.

More than 33,500 persons enumerated in the 1970 census of Hawaii reported living abroad 5 years earlier, but almost one-third of this group were members of the armed forces or their dependents. Table 3 presents mobility data from the 1960 and 1970 census counts.

Similar findings are obtained from a survey made in the spring of 1976 by the department of health for the office of the Lieutenant Governor. Asked where they had been living 1 year earlier, about 40,600 indicated another State, 1,000 referred to a U.S. territory or possession, and 10,400 listed a foreign country. About three-fifths of the inter-State migrants and one-fourth of those from abroad were either military personnel or their dependents. Greater detail is presented in table 4.

Asked by the Hawaii Visitors Bureau whether they were visitors, returning residents, or intended residents, approximately 43,600 westbound passengers aboard civilian carriers in 1977 checked the latter category. This total included 12,400 members of the armed forces, 12,800 military dependents, and 18,500 civilians other than military dependents. The “other civilian” total peaked at about 24,000 in 1970 and has subsequently declined. These civilians are typically young adults, often employed in professional, technical, or managerial jobs. Although a few are aliens, most came from the Western States. The Hawaii Visitors Bureau survey unfortunately excludes most passengers from Canada and all the arrivals from the Orient or South Pacific. Table 5 charts trends back to 1967.

According to the U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service, 7,789 immigrants admitted to the

country in the year ending June 30, 1976, gave Hawaii as their State of intended permanent residence. As in other recent years, the largest groups by nationality were from the Philippines, 3,222, and Korea, 1,515. During the same 12-month span, 3,130 aliens in Hawaii were naturalized. Both totals were the highest in many decades, except for a questionable 1970 immigration count. Annual figures covering the past decade are cited in table 6.

It should be stressed that the net growth in the State’s alien population falls far below the total for immigrants admitted. During the 8-year period that ended June 30, 1976, for instance, an annual average of 7,158 immigrants were admitted, but the average annual increase in the alien population amounted to only 2,451. The annual gain was diminished, on the average, by 2,493 naturalizations, 992 alien deaths, and a net loss from emigration and interstate migration estimated at 1,222. This last figure includes both the older aliens who have returned to their country of origin (many Pilipinos have done so) and the more recent arrivals who have moved on to the mainland, often in search of greater economic opportunity. Table 7 provides data from 1960 to the present.

Statistics on the social, demographic, and economic characteristics of the population by place of birth are available from the Hawaii health surveillance program survey, previously described. Data for a 3-year period centering on July 1, 1975, are reported in tables 8 through 21.

Highlights from these tables include the following:

1. Four-fifths of the foreign-born population of the State and nine-tenths of the mainlanders live on Oahu. The proportion of foreign born ranges from 8.8 percent on the Big Island to 18.9 percent on Kauai. [See table 8.]
2. Foreign-born residents are usually older than their native-born counterparts. Median ages in 1975 were 26.9 years for persons born in Hawaii, 29.1 for mainlanders, and 38.3 for those born abroad. However, 6.9 percent of the population under 20 years of age and 35.3 percent of those 60 and over were foreign born. Among persons born abroad, median ages were lowest for those from

<sup>1</sup> Most of the tables in Mr. Schmitt’s presentation are based on the findings of the Hawaii health surveillance program survey conducted by the Hawaii State Department of Health, and provided by Thomas A. Burch, M.D., chief, research and statistics office, and Paul T. Kawaguchi, program

coordinator. Persons interested in further research may write the Hawaii State Department of Health, P.O. Box 3378, Honolulu, Hawaii 96801, and request a copy of “Population Report No. 10,” issued September 1978.

**TABLE 1****Population by Place of Birth, 1853–1975**

(Nativity status based on national boundaries as of 1978)

Place of birth	1853	1878	1900	1920	1940	1960	1970	1975 <sup>1</sup>
Total	73,138	57,985	154,001	255,912	423,330	632,772	768,559	833,449
Native born	72,002	49,731	63,221	149,943	334,939	563,875	692,964	724,758
Hawaii	71,310	48,455	58,931	136,349	278,506	421,168	455,060	536,709
Mainland U.S. <sup>2</sup>	692	1,276	4,238	10,816	54,224	128,992	178,531	181,000
U.S. terr. or poss. <sup>2</sup>	—	—	52	2,778	2,209	4,965	17,286	7,049
Native, place not reported	—	—	—	—	—	8,750	42,087	—
Foreign born <sup>2</sup>	1,136	8,254	90,780	105,969	88,391	68,897	75,595	105,765
China	364	5,916	21,741	11,164	4,868	3,541	4,663	7,169
Indochina	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	3,159
Japan	—	—	56,234	60,690	37,362	24,658	19,685	24,144
Korea	—	—	—	3,498	2,454	1,124	2,063	4,901
Philippines	5	—	—	18,728	35,778	28,649	33,175	48,029
Other foreign	767	2,338	12,805	11,889	7,929	10,925	16,009	18,363
Not reported	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2,925
Percent: Hawaii	97.5	83.6	38.3	53.3	65.8	66.6	59.2	64.4
Mainland	0.9	2.2	2.8	4.2	12.8	20.4	23.2	21.7
Foreign	1.6	14.2	58.9	41.4	20.9	10.9	9.8	12.7

<sup>1</sup> Excludes inmates of institutions, persons in military barracks, and residents of Niihau.<sup>2</sup> Persons born abroad or at sea of native U.S. parents are included with totals for U.S. territories and possessions in 1900, 1920, 1960, and 1970 with the mainland United States figure for 1940 and under foreign born in 1974–76. Their classification in 1853 and 1878 is unknown.Sources: 1853–1970 from Robert C. Schmitt, *Historical Statistics of Hawaii* (University Press of Hawaii, 1977), pp. 90–91; 1974–76 from Hawaii State Department of Health, Hawaii health surveillance program, special tabulation.

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**TABLE 2****Alien Address Cards Received from Persons Residing in Hawaii  
by Nationality, 1967-77****(Includes aliens other than permanent residents)**

<b>Year</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>China and Taiwan</b>	<b>Japan <sup>1</sup></b>	<b>Korea</b>	<b>Philip- pines</b>	<b>United King- dom</b>	<b>Viet- nam <sup>2</sup></b>	<b>All others <sup>3</sup></b>
1967	46,998	1,499	16,975	914	21,315	1,192	69	5,034
1968	47,882	1,640	16,388	944	22,159	1,402	125	5,224
1969	49,642	1,750	15,850	1,005	23,410	1,557	127	5,943
1970	53,003	2,213	15,351	1,138	26,311	1,548	122	6,320
1971	57,187	2,167	15,099	1,483	29,116	1,949	173	7,200
1972	60,898	2,421	15,271	2,154	31,210	2,253	255	7,334
1973	63,034	2,446	15,125	2,906	32,183	2,395	373	7,606
1974	64,430	2,277	14,981	3,753	32,414	2,607	458	7,940
1975	65,339	2,591	14,555	4,726	31,439	2,516	529	8,983
1976	68,164	2,730	13,844	5,427	31,961	2,632	2,099	9,471
1977	68,567	2,847	13,622	5,767	31,598	2,680	2,395	9,658

<sup>1</sup> Includes Ryukyu Islands, listed separately in source through 1974.<sup>2</sup> Includes Cambodia (19 in 1977) and Laos (539), as well as Vietnam (1,837).<sup>3</sup> Includes Canada (1,687 in 1977), Germany (667), Western Samoa (389), Thailand (532), and Tonga (428).Source: U.S., Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service, *Annual Report* and tabular releases.

**TABLE 3****Residence 5 Years Earlier for Persons 5 Years Old and Over by Military Status, 1960 and 1970**

Date surveyed and military status	Population 5 years old and over	Different house in U.S.					Abroad	Moved, earlier residence not reported
		Same house	Same county	Different county				
				Same State	Diff. State			
April 1, 1960								
All groups	551,781	240,895	175,971	15,281	94,768	19,402	5,464	
Armed forces	47,267	875	2,479	405	36,681	5,635	1,192	
Military dependents	39,738	1,171	3,731	343	29,727	4,292	474	
Other civilians	464,776	238,849	169,761	14,533	28,360	9,475	3,798	
April 1, 1970								
All groups	697,860	320,579	161,800	13,347	125,732	33,518	42,884	
Armed forces	49,953	2,913	1,666	119	35,144	4,185	5,926	
Military dependents	49,532	2,369	3,103	196	33,626	5,698	4,540	
Other civilians	598,375	315,297	157,031	13,032	56,962	23,635	32,418	

Source: Special tabulations by the U.S. Bureau of the Census, cited in the Hawaii State Department of Planning and Economic Development, *Characteristics of the Population by Military Status, 1960* (Statistical Report 33, July 26, 1965), table 4, p. 7, and *Population Characteristics of Hawaii by Military Status, 1970*, Statistical Report 105 (Dec. 2, 1974), table 3.

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**TABLE 4****Residence 1 Year Earlier by Military Status, Spring 1976**

(Excludes persons in institutions, in military barracks, or on Niihau.  
Based on a sample survey of 38,810 persons.)

<b>Place of residence 1 year earlier</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Armed forces</b>	<b>Military dependents</b>	<b>Other civilians</b>
Total	851,824	35,426	74,672	741,727
Same house	638,835	18,765	41,956	578,115
Different house, same island	99,690	7,667	11,302	80,721
Different island	5,256	24	39	5,193
Different State	40,590	7,699	16,314	16,577
U.S. territory or possession	1,005	24	24	957
Different country	10,406	977	1,544	7,886
Previous residence not reported	45,488	271	337	44,880
Under 1 year old	10,555	—	3,157	7,398

Source: Hawaii State Department of Health and Department of Planning and Economic Development, *Population Characteristics of Hawaii; 1976*, Population Report No. 9 (October 1977), table 8.

**TABLE 5****Intended Residents Arriving in Hawaii from the Mainland United States, 1967-77**

Calendar year	Number arriving by military status				Average persons per party	High status <sup>1</sup> (percent)	Median age (years)	From West Coast <sup>2</sup> (percent)
	Total	Military personnel	Military dependents	Other civilians				
1967	44,117	14,496	8,702	20,919	1.43	59.9	23.8	33.4
1968	42,236	12,655	7,619	21,962	1.43	68.3	24.1	38.8
1969	41,162	12,198	8,336	20,628	1.45	61.9	24.0	41.2
1970	40,073	8,561	7,129	24,383	1.44	65.6	24.4	42.8
1971	41,562	9,355	8,649	23,558	1.48	64.2	24.3	38.6
1972	44,388	10,267	11,637	22,484	1.57	64.7	24.1	35.1
1973	36,886	9,200	6,180	21,506	1.40	61.6	24.2	39.1
1974	37,007	9,421	8,744	18,842	1.53	67.4	24.2	42.4
1975	39,233	10,006	10,887	18,340	1.58	67.3	23.6	35.1
1976	40,690	10,991	10,518	19,181	1.55	67.1	24.3	34.1
1977	43,617	12,361	12,771	18,485	1.64	70.2	24.0	30.1

<sup>1</sup> Party heads classified as professional, technical, business, managerial, or official as a percent of all party heads reporting civilian occupations.

<sup>2</sup> Persons from California, Oregon, or Washington State as a percent of all persons reporting previous residence.

Source: Hawaii State Department of Planning and Economic Development, *Hawaii's In-Migrants* (annual).



**TABLE 6****Immigrants Admitted and Persons Naturalized, 1966-76**

Immigrants admitted to the United States and reporting Hawaii as their State of intended permanent residence, by country of birth

Years <sup>1</sup>	Total	Canada	China and Taiwan	Japan	Korea	Philip- pines	Other coun- tries <sup>2</sup>	Persons natural- ized
1966	3,070	273	322	344	<sup>3</sup>	1,352	779	1,625
1967	3,825	135	327	382	<sup>3</sup>	2,147	834	1,902
1968 <sup>4</sup>	4,693	159	238	186	91	3,033	986	1,601
1969	5,199	127	389	317	284	3,181	901	1,607
1970	9,013	90	423	363	596	6,426	1,115	2,658
1971	6,055	81	271	409	568	3,704	1,022	2,135
1972	6,765	92	392	603	868	3,764	1,046	2,389
1973	6,881	64	455	544	1,305	3,179	1,334	2,099
1974	6,549	64	429	464	1,127	3,418	1,047	2,833
1975	7,012	87	555	587	1,476	2,913	1,394	3,094
1976	7,789	110	631	556	1,515	3,222	1,755	3,130
1976: July —Sept.	1,882	45	153	<sup>3</sup>	278	859	547	1,118

<sup>1</sup> Years ended June 30 unless otherwise specified.<sup>2</sup> Includes nonrefugee Vietnamese (196 in 1975 and 341 in 1976) but excludes approximately 2,000 refugee Vietnamese who arrived in 1975 but were still in parole status as of June 30, 1976.<sup>3</sup> Included with "other countries."<sup>4</sup> Data for Korea and Japan cover only the 6-month period ended Dec. 31, 1967.Source: U.S., Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service, *Annual Report* for 1966-76 and records.

**TABLE 7****Components of Change in the Alien Population, 1960-77**

Components of change, years ended June 30

Year	Aliens present, June 30 <sup>1</sup>	Net change	Immigrants admitted	Aliens naturalized	Alien deaths <sup>2</sup>	Other components <sup>3</sup>
1960	50,708	-1,144	1,619	2,377	-386	
1961	49,648	-1,060	1,762	1,668	-1,154	
1962	48,610	-1,038	2,048	1,534	-1,552	
1963	47,820	-790	1,767	1,629	-928	
1964	46,984	-836	1,623	1,542	-917	
1965	46,073	-911	1,721	1,319	-1,313	
1966	46,396	+323	3,070	1,625	-1,122	
1967	47,440	+1,044	3,825	1,902	-879	
1968	48,762	+1,322	4,693	1,601	-1,770	
1969	51,322	+2,560	5,199	1,607	1,063	+31
1970	55,095	+3,773	9,013	2,658	972	-1,610
1971	59,042	+3,947	6,055	2,135	944	+1,021
1972	61,966	+2,924	6,765	2,389	1,009	-443
1973	63,732	+1,766	6,881	2,099	997	-2,019
1974	64,884	+1,152	6,549	2,833	962	-1,602
1975 <sup>4</sup>	66,752	+1,868	9,012	3,094	992	-3,058
1976	68,366	+1,614	7,789	3,130	948	-2,097
1977	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	(NA)	901	(NA)

NA Not available.

<sup>1</sup> Interpolated from January data.<sup>2</sup> Civilian alien deaths, on a place of occurrence basis.<sup>3</sup> Net gain (+) or loss (-) from emigration and interstate migration.<sup>4</sup> Admissions total adjusted to include 2,000 Vietnamese refugees in parole status.

Source: Aliens present, immigrants admitted, and aliens naturalized from the U.S. Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service, *Annual Report* (annual) and records; alien deaths from the Hawaii State Department of Health records; emigration and net interstate migration calculated as residual.

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**TABLE 8****Place of Birth by Place of Residence, 1975**

Place of birth	State total	Place of residence			
		Oahu	Hawaii County	Kauai	Maui County
Total	833,448	673,118	74,092	32,045	54,192
Native born	724,758	585,375	67,401	25,945	46,037
Hawaii	536,709	415,668	60,354	22,458	36,229
Mainland: U.S.A.	181,000	163,087	6,790	3,420	7,703
American Samoa	4,485	4,295	190	—	—
Other terr. or poss.	2,564	2,326	67	67	105
Foreign born	105,765	85,364	6,500	6,070	7,830
China	7,169	7,034	81	12	43
Indochina	3,159	3,004	110	14	31
Japan	24,144	20,013	1,849	680	1,602
Korea	4,901	4,618	60	61	163
Philippines	48,029	34,168	3,566	5,063	5,232
Other foreign	18,363	16,528	835	240	760
Not reported	2,925	2,379	191	30	325
Percent foreign born	12.7	12.7	8.8	18.9	14.4

Source: Hawaii State Department of Health, Hawaii health surveillance program, special tabulation.

Indochina, 24.4 years, and highest for the Japanese, 53.5 years. [See table 9.]

3. Although males outnumber females in the Hawaii and mainland-born population, the opposite is true for the foreign born. The sex ratio in 1975 was 86.4 males per 100 females for all residents born abroad, and ranged from 54.7 for the Japanese and 55.5 for the Indochinese to 130.2 for Pilipinos. [See table 9.]

4. Nativity rates vary widely by ethnic stock. Less than one-half of 1 percent of the Hawaiians, part Hawaiians, and Puerto Ricans in Hawaii in 1975 were foreign born, compared with 1.9 percent of the blacks, 6.7 percent of the Caucasians, 7.2 percent of the "cosmopolitans" (mixed other than part Hawaiian), 10.5 percent of the Japanese, 13.6 percent of the Samoans, one-fifth of the Chinese, and over one-half of the Pilipinos and Koreans. Numerically, the largest foreign-born groups were the Pilipinos with 45,955; Japanese, 22,963; and Caucasians, 15,280. Partly because of military marriages, the tabulations reveal some oddities: 663 Caucasians born in Japan, 332 Japanese from China and the Philippines, and 4,890 part Hawaiians born elsewhere. [See table 10.]

5. Almost one-tenth of the foreign born in 1975 were members of the armed forces or their dependents. [See table 11.]

6. About one-half of all foreign-born residents in 1975 had lived in Hawaii 10 years or longer. [See table 12.]

7. Some of the migrants from other States are foreign born, and many of the migrants from foreign countries are native born. Out of 8,726 island residents in 1975 who were living abroad a year earlier, only 5,998 were of foreign birth; 707 were Hawaii born; and 1,934 were mainlanders. Some 9,002 foreign-born Hawaii residents in 1975 lived elsewhere 12 months previously—2,849 in a different State, 155 in a U.S. territory or possession, and 5,998 in a foreign country. [See table 13.] Combined with data on the components of change in the alien population [presented in table 7] these statistics indicate a remarkable degree of mobility among our foreign-born residents.

8. The educational level of foreign-born adults is significantly lower than that of residents born in Hawaii or on the mainland. Among island residents 25 years old and over in 1975, 81.5 percent of those with no formal schooling, 63.2 percent of those who had completed 1 to 4 years of school,

and 29.5 percent of the group with 5 to 8 years of completed schooling were foreign born. At the other end of the scale, only 14.0 percent of the adults with 1 to 4 years of college and 9.4 percent of those who had completed 1 or more years of graduate school were foreign born. [See table 14.]

9. The occupational status of foreign-born workers is generally lower than that of persons born in Hawaii or the other 49 States. Among professional and technical workers, for example, only 8.4 percent of the males and 8.2 percent of the females in 1975 were foreign born. For household and service workers and laborers, however, the corresponding percentages ranged between 20 and 29. [See table 15.]

10. By industry, foreign-born workers in 1975 were overrepresented in agriculture and manufacturing and underrepresented in finance, insurance, real estate, and public administration. In agriculture, for example, one-fourth of all workers were foreign born, while only 4.7 percent of all public administration employees were in that category. [See table 16.]

11. Family incomes likewise differ by the place of birth of the family head. Among civilian families, the median money income reported in 1975 was \$17,171 for those headed by a mainlander, \$14,382 for those with an island-born head, and \$10,436 for families with foreign-born heads. Among the latter group, medians were highest for the Chinese and miscellaneous group [mostly of European origin] and lowest for those from the Philippines. Similar income differentials were evident for military families and for unrelated individuals. [See tables 17 to 21.]

Except for the alien address reports, the most recent survey on citizenship status was conducted in the spring of 1976. This survey, covering 38,818 persons on the six largest islands, found that 87.6 percent of the population was native born, 4.7 percent were naturalized citizens, 0.3 percent were U.S. nationals, and 7.3 percent were aliens. By island, the percentage of aliens ranged from 4.8 on the Big Island of Hawaii to 19.6 on Lanai. Only 3.9 percent of all persons under 20 years old were aliens, compared with 17.6 percent of those 60 and over. Detailed information is given in table 22.

According to the 1970 census, 275,000 Hawaii residents checked some tongue other than English when asked, "What language, other than English, was spoken in the home when he was a child?" The

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**TABLE 9****Place of Birth by Age and Sex, 1975**

Place of birth	All ages	Both sexes				Median age (years)
		Under 20	20 to 39	40 to 59	60 and over	
Total	833,448	294,958	269,907	184,222	84,361	29.1
Native born	724,758	273,842	234,134	162,599	54,183	27.7
Hawaii	536,709	218,520	148,040	128,082	42,067	26.9
Mainland: U.S.	181,000	52,765	83,429	33,254	11,553	29.1
American Samoa	4,485	1,717	1,613	1,006	148	26.7
Other terr. or poss.	2,564	840	1,052	257	415	28.5
Foreign born	105,765	20,331	34,677	21,006	29,751	38.3
China	7,169	887	2,846	1,958	1,477	38.5
Indochina	3,159	1,286	1,425	408	40	24.4
Japan	24,144	3,579	5,328	4,288	10,950	53.5
Korea	4,901	1,388	2,086	739	689	30.2
Philippines	48,029	8,291	16,189	9,486	14,062	39.0
Other foreign	18,363	4,898	6,804	4,128	2,533	32.5
Not reported	2,925	785	1,096	617	427	32.2
Percent foreign born	12.7	6.9	12.8	11.4	35.3	—

**TABLE 9****Place of Birth by Age and Sex, 1975 (Continued)**

Place of birth	Male					Males per 100 females
	All males	Under 20	20 to 39	40 to 59	60 and over	
Total	418,273	151,132	132,031	91,430	43,681	100.7
Native born	367,866	140,969	118,060	82,625	26,213	103.1
Hawaii	270,030	112,458	73,859	63,294	20,418	101.2
Mainland: U.S.	94,269	27,320	42,776	18,696	5,476	108.7
American Samoa	1,986	729	743	429	85	79.5
Other terr. or poss.	1,582	461	682	206	233	161.1
Foreign born	49,021	9,751	13,401	8,578	17,291	86.4
China	3,046	390	1,199	853	604	73.9
Indochina	1,127	686	279	162	—	55.5
Japan	8,540	1,675	1,691	720	4,455	54.7
Korea	1,884	672	663	294	255	62.4
Philippines	27,167	4,197	7,112	4,934	10,924	130.2
Other foreign	7,257	2,131	2,457	1,615	1,054	65.3
Not reported	1,386	412	570	227	177	90.0
Percent foreign born	11.7	6.4	10.2	27.3	39.6	—

**TABLE 9****Place of Birth by Age and Sex, 1975 (Continued)**

<b>Place of birth</b>	<b>All females</b>	<b>Under 20</b>	<b>Female 20 to 39</b>	<b>40 to 59</b>	<b>60 and over</b>
Total	415,175	143,826	137,876	92,792	40,681
Native born	356,892	132,873	116,074	79,974	27,971
Hawaii	266,679	106,062	74,181	64,788	21,648
Mainland: U.S.	86,732	25,445	40,652	14,558	6,076
American Samoa	2,499	988	870	577	64
Other terr. or poss.	982	378	371	51	182
Foreign born	56,744	10,580	21,276	12,428	12,460
China	4,123	498	1,647	1,105	873
Indochina	2,032	600	1,146	246	40
Japan	15,604	1,905	3,636	3,568	6,495
Korea	3,018	715	1,423	445	435
Philippines	20,861	4,094	9,077	4,552	3,139
Other foreign	11,106	2,767	4,347	2,513	1,479
Not reported	1,539	373	526	390	250
Percent foreign born	13.7	7.4	15.4	13.4	30.6

Source: Hawaii State Department of Health, Hawaii health surveillance program, special tabulation. .

**TABLE 10****Place of Birth by Ethnic Stock, 1975**

Place of birth	Ethnic stock											Mixed, excl. part Hawai- ian	Other and un- known
	All groups	Cauca- sian	Japa- nese	Hawai- ian	Part Hawai- ian	Pili- pino	Chi- nese	Black	Korean	Sa- moan	Puerto Rican		
Total	833,448	229,165	218,966	7,296	145,778	90,651	36,779	4,574	7,730	6,728	5,037	73,764	6,380
Native born	724,758	212,683	195,340	7,296	144,784	44,603	29,320	4,468	3,991	5,768	5,004	68,288	3,215
Hawaii	536,709	55,522	192,086	7,296	140,622	43,379	28,326	216	3,942	1,721	4,293	57,948	1,358
Mainland:													
U.S.	181,000	156,852	3,131	—	4,095	1,176	994	4,228	50	152	160	9,535	628
American Samoa	4,485	40	29	—	66	—	—	—	—	3,895	—	369	86
Other terr. or poss.	2,564	270	93	—	—	48	—	24	—	—	551	435	1,143
Foreign born	105,765	15,280	22,963	—	728	45,955	7,417	88	4,339	914	15	5,278	2,788
China	7,169	100	161	—	22	—	6,667	—	—	—	—	219	—
Indochina	3,159	176	55	—	115	—	579	—	—	—	—	866	1,370
Japan	24,144	663	21,588	—	305	96	—	32	131	16	—	1,231	82
Korea	4,901	—	42	—	54	—	—	—	4,162	—	—	602	43
Philippines	48,029	198	171	—	96	45,818	—	—	24	—	—	1,382	342
Other foreign	18,363	14,144	947	—	137	41	171	56	23	898	15	980	951
Not reported	2,925	1,202	663	—	266	93	42	18	—	46	18	198	377
Percent foreign born	12.7	6.7	10.5	0	0.5	50.7	20.2	1.9	56.1	13.6	0.3	7.2	43.7

Source: Hawaii State Department of Health, Hawaii health surveillance program, special tabulation.



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**TABLE 11****Place of Birth by Military Status, 1975**

Place of birth	All groups	Military status		
		Armed forces	Military dependents	Other civilians
Total	833,448	30,612	60,773	742,064
Native born	724,758	28,726	52,441	643,591
Hawaii	536,709	2,275	9,966	524,468
Mainland: U.S.	181,000	26,188	41,960	112,853
American Samoa	4,485	68	128	4,290
Other terr. or poss.	2,564	196	388	1,981
Foreign born	105,765	1,771	8,183	95,812
China	7,169	—	183	6,986
Indochina	3,159	—	319	2,841
Japan	24,144	56	1,789	22,298
Korea	4,901	—	319	4,583
Philippines	48,029	1,284	2,573	44,172
Other foreign	18,363	430	3,000	14,932
Not reported	2,925	115	149	2,661
Percent foreign born	12.7	5.8	13.7	12.9

Source: Hawaii State Department of Health, Hawaii health surveillance program, special tabulation.

**TABLE 12****Place of Birth by Length of Residence in Hawaii, 1975**

Place of birth	All periods	Length of residence in Hawaii (years)					Un-known
		Less than 1	1 to 4	5 to 9	10 to 19	20 and more	
Total	833,448	47,023	148,770	115,000	153,082	364,986	4,589
Native born	724,758	39,288	121,662	92,612	138,563	330,779	1,855
Hawaii	536,709	11,824	43,838	52,756	112,350	314,870	1,070
Mainland: U.S.	181,000	27,006	75,306	38,306	24,858	14,835	690
American Samoa	4,485	301	1,362	1,192	948	610	71
Other terr. or poss.	2,564	156	1,156	359	406	464	24
Foreign born	105,765	7,579	26,677	22,016	14,465	34,032	997
China	7,169	590	1,547	1,193	1,537	2,184	118
Indochina	3,159	596	1,356	801	387	19	—
Japan	24,144	1,494	3,857	2,438	3,651	12,346	358
Korea	4,901	695	2,302	780	347	708	69
Philippines	48,029	2,452	11,440	11,841	5,100	16,794	403
Other foreign	18,363	1,753	6,175	4,963	3,442	1,981	49
Not reported	2,925	156	431	372	54	175	1,737
Percent foreign born	12.7	16.1	17.9	19.1	9.4	9.3	21.7

Source: Hawaii State Department of Health, Hawaii health surveillance program, special tabulation.

**TABLE 13****Place of Birth by Residence 1 Year Earlier, 1975**

(For population 1 year old and over)

Place of birth	Residence 1 year earlier							
	All places	Same house	Diff. house, same island	Diff. island	Diff. State	U.S. poss.	Diff. country	Un-known
Total, 1 and older	820,712	681,728	89,061	5,489	34,443	738	8,726	525
Native born	712,127	595,415	76,596	5,012	31,358	583	2,728	435
Hawaii	524,757	474,599	42,303	3,573	3,168	123	707	284
Mainland: U.S. American	180,321	115,296	33,317	1,396	28,070	156	1,934	152
Samoa	4,485	3,378	710	42	66	240	48	—
Other terr. or poss.	2,564	2,142	266	—	54	63	39	—
Foreign born	105,700	84,101	12,144	451	2,849	155	5,998	—
China	7,169	5,764	732	23	59	—	591	—
Indochina	3,159	1,879	486	56	156	—	583	—
Japan	24,110	20,236	1,997	42	638	51	1,147	—
Korea	4,901	3,319	780	22	77	—	703	—
Philippines	47,998	39,616	5,578	152	542	59	2,051	—
Other foreign	18,363	13,287	2,572	158	1,378	45	923	—
Not reported	2,885	2,212	321	26	236	—	—	90
Percent foreign born	12.9	12.3	13.6	8.2	8.3	21.0	68.7	0

Source: Hawaii State Department of Health, Hawaii health surveillance program, special tabulation.

**TABLE 14****Place of Birth by Years of School Completed, 1975****(For persons 25 years old and over)**

Place of birth	All levels	Years of school completed						Vocational	13 to 16	17 and over	Not reported
		None	1 to 4	5 to 8	9 to 11	12					
Total, 25 and over	456,105	7,969	15,735	56,432	45,903	161,565	27,266	102,165	30,746	8,284	
Native born	376,736	1,452	5,785	40,328	41,039	142,866	25,332	87,455	27,724	4,755	
Hawaii	270,844	1,076	5,524	37,947	36,087	108,359	21,096	44,120	13,076	3,559	
Mainland: U.S.	102,240	78	117	1,649	4,183	33,330	4,146	42,975	14,648	1,115	
American Samoa	2,250	18	93	616	625	656	22	153	—	67	
Other terr. or poss.	1,402	280	52	115	143	521	68	208	—	14	
Foreign born	77,680	6,493	9,950	16,104	4,904	18,307	1,866	14,346	29,021	2,808	
China	5,543	639	316	1,039	278	1,341	135	1,154	328	312	
Indochina	1,530	165	54	127	109	432	22	344	164	114	
Japan	18,980	1,427	1,706	5,144	1,368	5,232	440	2,175	340	1,147	
Korea	3,229	274	135	398	121	1,248	64	876	113	—	
Philippines	36,347	3,872	7,440	8,074	2,410	5,974	600	6,157	918	902	
Other foreign	12,052	115	298	1,322	618	4,080	605	3,640	1,041	333	
Not reported	1,689	24	—	—	—	392	68	364	120	721	
Percent foreign born	17.0	81.5	63.2	28.5	10.7	11.3	6.8	14.0	9.4	33.9	

Source: Hawaii State Department of Health, Hawaii health surveillance program, special tabulation.

**TABLE 15****Place of Birth by Occupation and Sex, 1975****(Employed civilians, 16 years old and over)**

Place of birth	ALL OCCUPATIONS			PROFESSIONAL TECHNICAL		MANAGERS, OFFICIALS, PROPRIETORS	
	Both sexes	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total employed	335,190	193,111	142,079	29,036	23,376	33,838	12,613
Native born	290,569	168,894	121,674	26,527	21,410	30,442	11,037
Hawaii	224,778	132,264	92,513	16,094	13,576	20,843	7,652
Mainland: U.S.	63,942	35,205	28,737	10,355	7,833	9,527	3,112
American Samoa	1,192	830	363	—	—	49	73
Other terr. or poss.	656	595	61	78	—	24	—
Foreign born	43,107	23,429	19,679	2,431	1,914	3,228	1,520
China	3,631	1,964	1,667	314	250	367	158
Indochina	880	388	492	159	68	39	49
Japan	7,282	2,883	4,399	342	206	852	341
Korea	1,972	866	1,105	129	—	184	139
Philippines	21,989	13,767	8,222	742	657	694	244
Other foreign	7,353	3,560	3,793	745	733	1,092	590
Not reported	1,514	788	726	78	52	168	56
Percent foreign born	12.9	12.1	13.8	8.4	8.2	9.5	12.0

**TABLE 15****Place of Birth by Occupation and Sex, 1975 (Continued)**

Place of birth	CLERICAL WORKERS		SALES WORKERS		CRAFTSMEN, FOREMEN		OPERA- TIVES
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
Total	14,294	45,137	11,328	13,757	39,628	1,869	23,209
Native born	13,338	41,846	10,412	11,688	35,631	1,542	20,055
Hawaii	11,577	33,933	7,172	8,300	31,626	1,346	18,243
Mainland: U.S.	1,720	7,861	3,240	3,387	3,668	196	1,542
American Samoa	23	35	—	—	194	—	180
Other terr. or poss.	19	18	—	—	143	—	89
Foreign born	888	3,098	822	1,889	3,893	327	3,112
China	118	331	69	69	141	93	165
Indochina	—	78	—	75	98	—	25
Japan	287	810	176	556	317	108	324
Korea	—	61	—	171	147	—	153
Philippines	372	950	344	662	2,654	103	2,290
Other foreign	112	868	234	356	535	24	155
Not reported	68	193	94	180	104	—	42
Percent foreign born	6.2	6.9	7.3	13.7	9.8	17.5	13.4

**TABLE 15****Place of Birth by Occupation and Sex, 1975 (Continued)**

	OPERA- TIVES— Con. Female	HOUSEHOLD AND SERVICE WORKERS		LABORERS		OCCUPA- TION NOT REPORTED	
		Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total	9,328	21,061	31,667	17,962	2,359	2,754	1,975
Native born	7,014	16,649	23,829	13,430	1,678	2,410	1,631
Hawaii	6,421	13,178	18,662	11,822	1,528	1,710	1,096
Mainland: U.S.	484	3,180	5,004	1,338	150	636	510
American Samoa	110	107	119	230	—	47	26
Other terr. or poss.	—	184	43	40	—	17	—
Foreign born	2,256	4,289	7,673	4,466	681	298	320
China	177	626	566	96	—	68	24
Indochina	45	43	152	25	24	—	—
Japan	635	335	1,626	226	50	25	68
Korea	112	180	574	72	—	—	47
Philippines	1,126	2,628	3,794	3,892	565	151	123
Other foreign	161	477	960	156	44	54	58
Not reported	58	123	165	66	—	46	24
Percent foreign born	24.2	20.4	24.2	24.9	28.9	10.8	16.2

Source: Hawaii State Department of Health, Hawaii health surveillance program, special tabulation.

**TABLE 16****Place of Birth by Industry, 1975****(Employed civilians, 16 years old and over)**

Place of birth	All industries	Agriculture	Construction, mining	Manufacturing	Transport., communication, utilities	Wholesale, retail trade	Finance, insurance, real estate	Services	Public admin.	Not available
Total	335,190	16,495	30,928	17,964	26,818	73,831	20,526	93,025	51,017	4,587
Native born	290,569	12,371	27,460	14,667	23,971	61,817	18,818	79,225	48,483	3,758
Hawaii	224,778	11,330	22,999	12,150	19,069	46,676	13,264	55,368	41,400	2,523
Mainland: U.S.	63,942	992	4,050	2,329	4,739	14,899	5,554	23,301	6,887	1,192
American Samoa	1,192	49	226	189	137	150	—	303	113	26
Other terr. or poss.	656	—	184	—	26	92	—	253	84	17
Foreign born	43,107	4,124	3,277	3,226	2,761	11,581	1,600	13,422	2,406	710
China	3,631	22	115	205	151	2,016	161	827	87	47
Indochina	880	—	116	49	131	296	42	208	38	—
Japan	7,282	226	306	711	818	3,044	163	1,627	266	122
Korea	1,972	52	90	25	189	969	47	492	59	47
Philippines	21,989	3,717	2,169	1,942	818	3,525	595	7,213	1,693	318
Other foreign	7,353	106	481	294	655	1,731	591	3,054	264	176
Not reported	1,514	—	191	71	86	433	108	378	128	119
Percent foreign born	12.9	25.0	10.6	18.0	10.3	15.7	7.8	14.4	4.7	15.5

Source: Hawaii State Department of Health, Hawaii health surveillance program, special tabulation.



**TABLE 17****Place of Birth of Family Heads by Annual Family Income, 1975****(Includes both military and civilian families)**

	All levels	Under \$5,000	ANNUAL FAMILY INCOME BEFORE TAXES					Not re- ported	Median (dol- lars)
			\$5,000 to \$9,999	\$10,000 to \$14,999	\$15,000 to \$19,999	\$20,000 to \$24,999	\$25,000 and over		
Total	210,304	16,290	47,750	49,409	36,341	23,327	25,320	11,868	13,599
Native born	181,612	12,507	38,488	42,970	32,737	21,735	23,168	10,008	14,049
Hawaii	124,902	8,889	23,922	29,978	24,892	15,484	14,894	6,842	14,372
Mainland: U.S.	54,531	3,081	13,737	12,618	7,699	1,180	8,275	2,902	13,564
American Samoa	1,377	362	504	180	108	—	—	223	7,133 <sup>b</sup>
Other terr. or poss.	803	174	325	193	138	31	—	42	—
Foreign born	28,230	3,736	9,239	6,397	3,555	1,569	2,068	1,666	10,239
China	2,128	204	461	446	354	164	318	181	13,457 <sup>b</sup>
Indochina	362	25	90	64	86	25	—	72	—
Japan	5,210	1,010	1,407	1,137	591	204	371	489	9,799 <sup>b</sup>
Korea	1,046	77	359	182	177	42	48	162	—
Philippines	15,581	1,942	6,089	3,706	1,732	746	821	546	9,577
Other foreign	3,903	479	832	863	616	389	511	215	13,087 <sup>b</sup>
Not reported	462	47	23	42	49	23	84	194	—
Percent foreign born	13.4	22.9	19.4	13.0	9.8	6.7	8.2	14.0	—

<sup>b</sup> Not shown where base (unexpanded) is less than 50.

Source: Hawaii State Department of Health, Hawaii health surveillance program, special tabulation.

**TABLE 18****Place of Birth of Military Family Heads by Annual Family Income, 1975****(Includes a small number of families headed by military dependents)**

Place of birth of family head	All levels	Under \$5,000	ANNUAL FAMILY INCOME BEFORE TAXES					Not re- ported	Median (dol- lars)
			\$5,000 to \$9,999	\$10,000 to \$14,999	\$15,000 to \$19,999	\$20,000 to \$24,999	\$25,000 and over		
Total	24,897	925	10,454	7,465	2,797	1,430	975	851	10,431
Native born	23,339	871	9,551	7,022	2,728	1,412	958	797	10,604
Hawaii	1,567	42	415	419	316	232	98	45	13,626
Mainland: U.S.	21,492	829	8,945	6,514	2,412	1,180	860	752	10,457
American Samoa	68	—	50	18	—	—	—	—	<sup>b</sup>
Other terr. or poss.	213	—	142	71	—	—	—	—	<sup>b</sup>
Foreign born	1,540	54	903	425	69	18	17	54	8,815
China	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Indochina	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Japan	38	—	38	—	—	—	—	—	<sup>b</sup>
Korea	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Philippines	1,197	35	703	336	69	18	—	36	8,879
Other foreign	306	19	162	90	—	—	17	18	<sup>b</sup>
Not reported	18	—	—	18	—	—	—	—	<sup>b</sup>
Percent foreign born	6.2	5.8	8.6	5.7	2.5	1.3	1.7	6.3	—

<sup>b</sup> Not shown where base (unexpanded) is less than 50.

Source: Hawaii State Department of Health, Hawaii health surveillance program, special tabulation.

**TABLE 19****Place of Birth of Civilian Family Heads by Annual Family Income, 1975****(Excludes families headed by military dependents)**

Place of birth of family head	All levels	Under \$5,000	ANNUAL FAMILY INCOME BEFORE TAXES					Not re- ported	Median (dol- lars)
			\$5,000 to \$9,999	\$10,000 to \$14,999	\$15,000 to \$19,999	\$20,000 to \$24,999	\$25,000 and over		
Total	185,407	15,365	37,296	41,944	33,544	21,897	24,345	11,017	14,115
Native born	158,273	11,636	28,937	35,948	30,009	20,323	22,210	9,211	14,722
Hawaii	123,335	8,847	23,507	29,559	24,576	15,252	14,796	6,797	14,382
Mainland: U.S.	33,039	2,252	4,792	6,104	5,287	5,040	7,415	2,150	17,171
American Samoa	1,309	362	454	162	108	—	—	223	6,993
Other terr. or poss.	590	174	183	122	38	31	—	42	<sup>b</sup>
Foreign born	26,690	3,682	8,336	5,972	3,486	1,551	2,051	1,612	10,436
China	2,128	204	461	446	354	164	318	181	13,457
Indochina	362	25	90	64	86	25	—	72	<sup>b</sup>
Japan	5,172	1,010	1,369	1,137	591	204	371	489	9,862
Korea	1,046	77	359	182	177	42	48	162	<sup>b</sup>
Philippines	14,384	1,907	5,386	3,370	1,663	728	821	510	9,668
Other foreign	3,597	460	670	773	616	389	494	197	13,686
Not reported	444	47	23	24	49	23	84	194	<sup>b</sup>
Percent foreign born	14.4	24.0	22.4	14.2	10.4	7.1	8.4	14.6	—

<sup>a</sup> Not shown where base (unexpanded) is less than 50.

Source: Hawaii State Department of Health, Hawaii health surveillance program, special tabulation.

**TABLE 20****Place of Birth of Unrelated Individuals in the Armed Forces by Annual Income, 1975**

Place of birth	All levels	Under \$5,000	ANNUAL INCOME BEFORE TAXES					Not re-reported	Median (dollars)
			\$5,000 to \$9,999	\$10,000 to \$14,999	\$15,000 to \$19,999	\$20,000 to \$24,999	\$25,000 and over		
Total	4,733	966	2,541	646	35	134	36	375	7,387
Native born	4,470	907	2,372	646	35	116	36	358	7,422
Hawaii	296	72	66	25	—	—	—	133	<sup>b</sup>
Mainland: U.S.	4,172	834	2,305	621	35	116	36	225	7,472
American Samoa	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Other terr. or poss.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Foreign born	166	40	126	—	—	—	—	—	<sup>b</sup>
China	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Indochina	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Japan	19	19	—	—	—	—	—	—	<sup>b</sup>
Korea	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Philippines	34	—	34	—	—	—	—	—	<sup>b</sup>
Other foreign	114	22	92	—	—	—	—	—	<sup>b</sup>
Not reported	97	19	43	—	—	18	—	17	<sup>b</sup>
Percent foreign born	3.5	4.1	5.0	—	—	—	—	—	—

<sup>b</sup> Not shown where base (unexpanded) is less than 50.

Source: Hawaii State Department of Health, Hawaii health surveillance program, special tabulation.

**TABLE 21****Place of Birth of Civilian Unrelated Individuals by Annual Income, 1975**

Place of birth	All levels	Under \$5,000	ANNUAL INCOME BEFORE TAXES					Not reported	Median (dollars)
			\$5,000 to \$9,999	\$10,000 to \$14,999	\$15,000 to \$19,999	\$20,000 to \$24,999	\$25,000 and over		
Total	55,195	21,894	16,032	6,729	2,635	771	1,340	5,793	5,876
Native born	44,822	15,962	13,866	5,990	2,407	675	1,207	4,714	6,476
Hawaii	22,852	8,146	7,300	3,190	1,109	375	450	2,282	6,465
Mainland: U.S.	21,493	7,576	6,451	2,800	1,281	300	757	2,328	6,555
American Samoa	174	23	70	—	17	—	—	64	<sup>b</sup>
Other terr. or poss.	302	217	45	—	—	—	—	40	<sup>b</sup>
Foreign born	9,805	5,644	2,071	715	228	96	133	917	<5,000
China	578	345	114	72	—	—	23	23	<sup>b</sup>
Indochina	138	72	25	18	—	—	—	23	<sup>b</sup>
Japan	2,517	1,607	539	140	48	24	—	158	<5,000
Korea	501	190	193	66	—	—	—	51	<sup>b</sup>
Philippines	3,787	2,638	617	99	23	—	38	370	<5,000
Other foreign	2,284	792	582	319	156	72	71	292	6,753
Not reported	568	288	95	24	—	—	—	162	<sup>b</sup>
Percent foreign born	17.8	25.8	12.9	10.6	8.6	12.4	1.0	15.8	—

<sup>b</sup> Not shown where base (unexpanded) is less than 50.

Source: Hawaii State Department of Health, Hawaii health surveillance program, special tabulation.

**TABLE 22****Citizenship, Spring 1976****(Excludes persons in institutions, military barracks, or on Niihau)**

<b>Island, age, and sex</b>	<b>All categories</b>	<b>Native born</b>	<b>Naturalized</b>	<b>U.S. nationals</b>	<b>Aliens</b>	<b>Status not reported</b>
Total	851,824	746,208	39,837	2,748	62,479	552
Percent	100.0	87.6	4.7	0.3	7.3	0.1
<b>Island</b>						
Hawaii	75,732	68,428	3,467	82	3,648	107
Maui	49,260	42,872	2,345	—	4,004	—
Lanai	2,000	1,379	230	—	391	—
Molokai	5,330	4,517	340	—	473	—
Oahu	685,933	599,618	31,897	2,666	51,307	445
Kauai	33,569	29,394	1,558	—	2,617	—
<b>Age</b>						
Under 20 years	294,301	278,247	3,408	951	11,564	130
20 to 39 years	283,671	246,541	11,646	1,339	24,009	136
40 to 59 years	180,966	157,258	12,010	305	11,300	93
60 years and over	83,179	55,903	12,345	133	14,670	130
Age not reported	9,707	8,259	428	20	937	63
<b>Sex</b>						
Male	428,821	380,355	20,206	1,087	26,836	338
Female	422,675	365,594	19,632	1,661	35,574	214
Sex not reported	328	259	—	—	69	—

Source: Hawaii State Department of Health and Department of Planning and Economic Development, *Population Characteristics of Hawaii, 1976*, Population Report No. 9 (October 1977), tables 11, 12, and 13.

most commonly cited mother tongues, other than English, were Japanese, 116,900; Pilipino, 50,200, most of whom probably referred to Ilocano; and Chinese, 26,900.

Many of these persons were born in Hawaii or on the mainland. The wording of the census question, unfortunately, failed to distinguish between occasional and dominant use of non-English tongues and thus had limited value. These statistics are reported in table 23.

Notwithstanding the large number of persons with a "mother tongue" other than English, most islanders read, write, and speak English with considerable fluency. According to results of the survey made for the Lieutenant Governor's office in 1976, 93.3 percent of all persons 18 years old and over were able to understand English easily, 5.7 percent could understand it with difficulty, and only 1.0 percent could not understand English. In 1977 the Hawaii State Department of Education counted 9,340 students in public elementary and secondary schools who had limited English-speaking ability: 1,133 who were monolingual in a different tongue, 1,342 for whom their original language was dominant, 4,126 who were bilingual, and 2,739 for whom English was dominant. The most common original languages among the 9,340 students were Ilocano, 3,232; Samoan, 1,595; and Korean, 1,057. Further breakdowns appear in tables 24 and 25.

Significantly greater numbers of mainlanders seek work in Hawaii than vice versa. In 1977, some 5,846 Hawaii workers sought employment and filed for benefits on the mainland, while 8,154 mainland workers filed claims for unemployment insurance and registered for work with the Hawaii State Employment Service. Annual statistics beginning with 1970 appear in table 26.

Relatively few retired persons move to Hawaii, perhaps because of the high cost of living. During the year ending June 30, 1976, 803 Old Age and Survivors Insurance beneficiaries, 65 years old and over, migrated to Hawaii from other States and territories and 499 left the islands. The net gain, 304 persons, was the largest net annual increase since records were first tabulated in 1962. Trends are traced in table 27.

Approximately one-third of all public welfare cases receiving financial assistance as of March 1978 had been born elsewhere, and only 4.8 percent had lived in Hawaii less than 1 year. Both figures are generally consistent with data for the total popula-

tion. Higher proportions of mainlanders and foreign-born residents were participating in the food stamp program. Table 28 presents welfare statistics by place of birth and length of residence.

Those are the major statistical series bearing on immigration and, in some respects, on interstate migration for Hawaii, and there are other series considerably less general. If you're interested, I can tell you about it.

MS. PUTMAN. Thank you. We do have a few questions for you.

MS. MANUEL. You touched upon language. We have the same problem here with the Hawaiian people who have a language problem. We are concerned because there are special programs especially for Pilipinos and Samoans, but there is no special program in any of the public schools for Hawaiian children. Now this is not pitting minorities against each other. That's not what we are trying to do. But how do we address this problem?

MR. SCHMITT. Well, that survey by the department of education found only 114 persons whose original language was Hawaiian, and of those, only 48 did not speak English or spoke primarily Hawaiian. Of course, what this misses is the population who presumably grew up speaking English of a sort, but it may have been a substandard type of English. It would not get those who grew up in an area that spoke primarily pidgin, for example, which, I suppose, by definition of the department of education is English. But that would certainly create language problems for anyone who did not speak a standard variety of English.

I can't help on programs. My concern has been primarily with statistics. I think that would be a question best addressed to one of the other specialists on today's agenda.

MS. THOMPSON. I have a couple of questions. Frequently, we get bogged down with statistics and findings. As a researcher, have you in any way tried to interpret this data in order to shed some light on the subject matter of this consultation?

MR. SCHMITT. Drawing general conclusions would be a little like trying to draw general conclusions from the Honolulu telephone book.

There are so many facts here. I have concentrated on trying to present the statistics and the specific findings. But I really haven't gotten into any implications for action, for example.

MS. THOMPSON. I think this coincides with the question Ms. Manuel asked you.

**TABLE 23****Mother Tongue by Place of Birth, 1970**

Mother tongue	Total	Hawaii	Main-land U.S.	Other U.S. <sup>1</sup>	U.S., State not rptd.	China	Japan	Korea	Philip-pines	Other foreign
Total population <sup>2</sup>	768,300	449,300	182,100	3,600	46,900	6,200	21,600	2,200	35,100	21,300
English	447,200	266,200	159,400	1,000	7,500	300	1,700	300	1,900	8,900
German	5,700	900	3,800	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,000
Portuguese	9,300	8,300	200	—	—	—	—	—	—	800
Spanish	13,300	6,500	4,500	500	200	—	300	—	200	1,100
Other European languages	10,500	800	7,500	100	—	—	—	100	100	1,900
Chinese	26,900	18,200	600	—	100	5,200	—	—	800	2,000
Korean	6,200	4,500	100	—	—	—	—	1,500	—	100
Japanese	116,900	95,000	1,100	100	100	400	18,700	—	—	1,500
Pilipino <sup>3</sup>	50,200	19,100	500	—	—	100	200	—	29,900	400
Hawaiian	18,700	17,900	200	—	100	—	—	—	300	200
Other Polynesian languages <sup>4</sup>	4,200	1,200	100	1,500	—	—	—	—	—	1,400
Other languages	13,100	5,300	1,600	300	800	200	700	300	1,900	2,000
Not reported	46,100	5,400	2,500	100	38,100	—	—	—	—	—

<sup>1</sup> Born in a U.S. territory or possession or born abroad or at sea of U.S. parents.

<sup>2</sup> The final census count for Hawaii was 769,913. For 1970 data on place of birth based on a larger sample, see table 1.

<sup>3</sup> Includes Ilocano, Tagalog, and other Pilipino tongues.

<sup>4</sup> Chiefly Samoan and Tongan. Also includes Micronesian and Melanesian languages.

Note: Based on replies to the question, "What language, other than English, was spoken in this person's home when he was a child?" This tabulation was made from a 1-percent sample and the results are hence subject to considerable sampling variation.

Source: U.S., Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *U.S. Census Population, Public Use Sample*, special tabulation.



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**TABLE 24****Understanding of the English Language, Spring 1976****(Excludes persons under 18 years of age, inmates of institutions, and residents of military barracks)**

<b>Understanding English</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percent</b>
All adults	596,039	100.0
Understand easily	556,225	93.3
Do not understand easily	33,882	5.7
Do not understand	5,902	1.0

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Source: Hawaii State Department of Health, *Comprehension of English in Hawaii*, R and S Report, no. 20 (February 1978), p. 5.

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**TABLE 25****Students with Limited English-Speaking Ability in Public Elementary and Secondary Schools, 1977**

<b>Original language</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Monolingual non-English</b>	<b>Non-English dominant</b>	<b>Bilingual</b>	<b>English dominant</b>	<b>Monolingual English</b>
All groups	9,340	1,133	1,342	4,126	2,739	—
Cantonese	629	46	87	347	149	—
Mandarin	222	28	52	113	29	—
Ilocano	3,232	393	345	1,274	1,220	—
Tagalog	453	43	64	189	157	—
Visayan/Cebuano	224	10	43	103	68	—
Japanese	683	65	71	257	290	—
Korean	1,057	164	210	472	211	—
Samoan	1,595	218	197	796	384	—
Vietnamese	508	47	113	267	81	—
Other nonnative	623	82	149	261	131	—
Hawaiian	114	37	11	47	19	—

Source: Hawaii State Department of Education, "Identification, Assessment, and Planning System for Limited English Speakers: Status Report" (July 1977), cited in the Hawaii State Commission on Manpower and Full Employment, Immigrant Services Center, *Immigrants in Hawaii—1977* (March 1978), p. 45.

**TABLE 26****Interstate Movement of Jobseekers, 1970 to 1977**

Year	Island workers on the mainland <sup>1</sup>	Mainland workers in Hawaii <sup>2</sup>	Ratio
1970	5,078	6,062	119
1971	6,215	6,908	111
1972	6,124	5,994	98
1973	5,255	6,116	116
1974	5,924	6,988	118
1975	7,607	8,785	115
1976	7,458	8,334	112
1977	5,846	8,154	139

<sup>1</sup> Covers Hawaii workers seeking work and filing for benefits on the mainland.

<sup>2</sup> Covers mainland workers filing claims for unemployment insurance and registered for work with the Hawaii State Employment Service.

Source: Hawaii State Department of Labor and Industrial Relations records.

**TABLE 27****Migration of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance Beneficiaries, Age 65 and Over, to and from Hawaii, 1962-76**

(Excludes migration between Hawaii and foreign countries)

Year ended June 30	Net migration	Migrated to Hawaii		Migrated from Hawaii but returned during same year <sup>1</sup>	Migrated from Hawaii	
		From other States	From U.S. possessions		To other States	To U.S. possessions
1962	+14	132	(NA)	2	118	(NA)
1967	+265	553	(NA)	78	288	(NA)
1968	+210	575	6	100	369	2
1969	+173	584	4	136	407	8
1970	+223	548	7	108	328	4
1973	+66	671	7	268	602	10
1975	+108	674	14	187	579	1
1976	+304	785	18	120	493	6

NA Not available.

<sup>1</sup> Between Hawaii and other States only.

Source: Data from U.S., Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Social Security Administration, cited in the Hawaii State Department of Planning and Economic Development, *Hawaii's In-Migrants, 1977*, Statistical Report 123 (June 28, 1978), table 18.

**TABLE 28****Migration Status of Public Welfare, Recipients, March 1978**

Place of birth or last previous residence	Number of welfare cases <sup>1</sup> Receiving financial assistance			Amount of monthly financial assistance (\$1,000)		
	Total	In Hawaii under 1 year	Medicaid	Food stamps only	All recipi- ents	In Hawaii under 1 year
Total	25,999	1,241	11,961	10,072	8,291	368
Born in Hawaii	15,277	—	5,091	4,652	5,039	—
Born elsewhere	9,021	1,241	5,446	5,152	2,749	368
Mainland	5,545	952	1,453	3,060	1,680	279
Samoa	1,262	176	220	214	510	58
Philippines	877	19	1,995	1,025	173	3
Orient <sup>2</sup>	486	23	1,521	595	124	6
Southeast Asia <sup>3</sup>	427	27	55	24	133	9
Other <sup>4</sup>	424	44	202	234	129	13
Unknown	1,701	—	1,424	268	503	—
Percent						
Total	100.0	4.8	100.0	100.0	100.0	4.4
Born in Hawaii	58.8	—	42.6	46.2	60.8	—
Born elsewhere	34.7	4.8	45.5	51.1	33.1	4.4
Mainland	21.3	3.7	12.1	30.4	20.3	3.4
Samoa	4.9	0.7	1.8	2.1	6.1	0.7
Philippines	3.4	0.1	16.7	10.2	2.1	—
Orient <sup>2</sup>	1.9	0.1	12.7	5.9	1.5	0.1
Southeast Asia <sup>3</sup>	1.6	0.1	0.5	0.2	1.6	0.1
Other <sup>4</sup>	1.6	0.1	1.7	2.3	1.5	0.1
Unknown	6.5	—	11.9	2.7	6.1	—

<sup>1</sup> The number of individuals (rather than cases) was 70,714 receiving financial assistance, 17,759 receiving medical assistance only, and 28,544 enrolled in the food stamp only program. Data include Aid to Families with Dependent Children, unemployed father, general assistance, and aged, blind, disabled supplement, but exclude foster care, non-needy caretaker cases and SSI.

<sup>2</sup> China, Japan, and Korea.

<sup>3</sup> Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos.

<sup>4</sup> South Pacific Islands, Canada, Europe, etc.

Note: This table reflects the March 1978 status of immigrants receiving financial assistance, Medicaid, and food stamps. Within the financial assistance category are 2,217 cases of aged, blind, and disabled cases receiving supplemental payments.

Source: Hawaii State Department of Social Services and Housing records.

MR. SCHMITT. And certainly now that all the figures are here, presumably, a large number of figures, what does all this mean?

It certainly shows a very sizable immigrant population here, and it has many problems, such as social welfare problems, lower income, lower socioeconomic status, or occupational status.

And unfortunately, none of these statistics really bear on the question of, say, discrimination. We don't really have good statistics on that. You might infer, for example, from the statistics on occupational status that because the immigrants tend to be heavily concentrated in lower level jobs with lower incomes that they are being discriminated against.

However, the statistics also show that the immigrants are predominantly of a lower educational level, and that is, presumably, not because they are being discriminated against, but because they are from a country where they had less opportunity to go to school. So that is not an American problem in the sense, I mean, of providing elementary or high school education.

Of course, it does suggest a need for adult education. The only way we can really get at the question of discrimination would be to, say, cross tabulate something like educational level by place of birth, or maybe by one's residence or by occupation, or get income data separately for immigrants and Hawaii-born and mainland-born persons cross tabulated by educational level.

You might find, for example, ethnic differentials comparable to those by sex, in which women of a given educational level are often earning less than men of the same educational level. Fortunately, for women there is a big enough sample to cross tabulate. However, the aliens are a fairly small group, not in absolute terms, but in the sense of a sample like this. So when you cross tabulate in so many levels, statistically, you wind up with too small a sample for accurate data, and a sampling variation can often fuzz up the conclusions so much that you really can't say anything firmly.

MS. THOMPSON. I think Mr. Schmitt answered the question that there are some problems relating to discrimination in terms of all these statistics. Sometimes we tend to stop at the statistics and not go on with the interpretation.

MR. SCHMITT. Of course, that's a starting point.

MS. THOMPSON. Right. I wanted to get that on the record that there are some other things to consider.

I noticed you mentioned Puerto Ricans, Spanish Americans, but you didn't get into Indians. Are they considered the "others" throughout your data?

MR. SCHMITT. Are you referring to American Indians? Is that what you are referring to?

MS. THOMPSON. I am thinking about comparing Hawaii with the mainland. I don't see it addressed here.

MR. SCHMITT. In ethnic statistics by place of birth, Indians were typically either American Indians or Canadian Indians or perhaps Mexican or South American Indians. In the ethnic statistics, they are in the miscellaneous category, and the reason for that is that in the decennial census they were found to be such a small group that the sample would be much too small for the data to be shown separately.

Now in 1970, the Indian population of Hawaii, as I recall, was something like 1,300, and many of those were on the military reservations.

MS. THOMPSON. In Hawaii?

MR. SCHMITT. Yes. That is, in military reservations. In other words, many of the American Indians here are members of the armed forces or dependents. In addition, the black population is very heavily concentrated in the armed forces, either as military personnel or their dependents. We have relatively few island blacks; just as we have relatively few island Indians. The numbers are quite small, and subsequently, they are often combined with other categories in census statistics.

MS. THOMPSON. Are Spanish Americans and Puerto Ricans, which make up a large majority on the mainland, a significant number here in Hawaii?

MR. SCHMITT. We do have a table which gives the number of ethnic Puerto Ricans. Table 10 shows 537 Puerto Ricans. Now this is based upon Hawaii's census definitions. In 1976 there was also a tabulation using the Bureau of Census' definition which takes all persons of mixed races and forces them into one of the so-called pure races. But here, you will notice, that there are two groups of mixed races shown separately: part Hawaiian and mixed other than part Hawaiian.

And the trouble with the Puerto Ricans is that most of them arrived in 1901, 1902, around there, and there were two subsequent migrations, with several hundred in each case—I'm not sure—in about 1906 or thereabouts and then again right after World War I. But the problem with Puerto Ricans is that they came long ago and there are now third and

fourth generation islanders. And like many islanders, they have engaged in interracial marriages.

Interracial marriage in Hawaii is very strongly correlated with the size of the group. The smaller the group, the more likely they are to intermarry. And so a large group like the Japanese, for example, has had much fewer intermarriages than the smaller groups, like the Koreans.

So many people are part Puerto Rican, and they are grouped in this category called "mixed except part Hawaiians" of 74,000. Now many of those "mixed other than part Hawaiians" have, say, a Caucasian father and Japanese mother, or Samoan mother and Pilipino father—that sort of thing. But there are also a fair number of Puerto Ricans who are mixed with some other group, and the result has been a washing out of the pure group, which, of course, is sort of an abstraction anyhow, because the Puerto Ricans are of a mixed race back in Puerto Rico, really, just as Pilipinos are not totally unmixed. Yet, we consider them a pure group for statistical purposes here.

The census category which covers persons of Spanish heritage is a mixture of, say, Cubans in Florida, Puerto Ricans in New York, and Mexicans in California, and so on. It has not been a useful category for Hawaii because, for one thing, there seems to be some confusion. Portuguese, for example, is a major ethnic group here. It was treated separately until the late thirties. Some persons with Portuguese background have names that are quite Spanish and sometimes get classified that way.

Similarly, some Pilipinos have Spanish names and they get misclassified. And many persons of Spanish heritage, with a Spanish mother tongue you might say, are in the armed forces, and many of the locally developed statistics do exclude the 30,000 persons in the military or in institutions.

MS. THOMPSON. Thank you.

A couple of times you have mentioned Canadian migration here, but felt that somehow we had fallen down on categorizing them or denoting them in the population and so on. Could you just briefly tell me why that is?

MR. SCHMITT. It was just an effort to note the Canadians are sort of a special kind of immigrant to Hawaii of often a much higher socioeconomic status than other immigrants, and they are not viewed as such by the local people very often. I mean, a Canadian is often viewed as much closer to an American from Washington State or Michigan than

he is to the traditional concept of the immigrant in Hawaii, say a Pilipino or a Japanese. So sometimes people tend to think of stereotypes and they fail to recognize that the immigrant totals include Canadians, who, by the way, are a special statistical problem because so many of them come here on a part-time basis. It's hard to decide if they are visitors or intended residents.

MS. PUTMAN. You're talking about the snow-birds?

MR. SCHMITT. Yes. They seem to have settled on Maui in large numbers. So I was just trying to point out that sometimes the statistics fail to recognize that certain groups dilute the data for other purposes. I don't think anybody is concerned, for example, over discrimination against somebody from British Columbia or Alberta, because they are quite often living here and are reasonably wealthy and retired.

MS. PUTMAN. Could you go through this thing again, the people with mixed heritage, are they always tabulated in mixed? It seems to me that I heard at one time it was the father's ethnic identity that carried over to the child?

MR. SCHMITT. This has changed, and it is something that is confusing statistically.

Up through the 1950 decennial census, the "pure" races include the category called Puerto Ricans. After 1950, the census classified Puerto Ricans as either white or black, mostly white. So they were no longer a racial group, but they became a place of birth group instead. Through 1960, if you had any fraction of Hawaiian blood other than 100 percent, you were classified as part Hawaiian, and most persons of mixed race were part Hawaiian and the one thing they had in common was the Hawaiian fraction. So that is why they were called part Hawaiian. They may have been one-fourth Hawaiian and three-quarters Chinese, but the one element that most persons of mixed race had in common was the Hawaiian factor, so they were called part Hawaiian.

But in 1950, for the first and only time the census asked a further question, "Are you of mixed race?" So persons who were of other mixtures were then broken down.

For example, they would be arbitrarily classified as Japanese, and there was a subtotal under that for those who were actually mixed. For census purposes, except in that one tabulation, if you were part Hawaiian, you were part Hawaiian. If you were a

mixture other than part Hawaiian, you were classified by the race of your father, unless you were part Caucasian. To be classified white, you had to be all white. That is, if you were part Caucasian and part something else, you were by race a nonwhite.

And by 1950, incidentally, Portuguese were no longer treated as a subcategory of Caucasian. Through the 1930 censuses, Portuguese were called Portuguese under a subtotal which was Caucasian along with the so-called haoles, the persons with northern European ancestry. Then in 1960 the census changed; it dropped the mixture question and changed the coverage of Puerto Ricans so that they were no longer treated as such a group. They continued to have part Hawaiians for certain special purposes. There were a few tabulations made, including a table in the report on nonwhite population by race, but otherwise they were thrown into the miscellaneous category. But they still classified persons of mixed race other than part Hawaiians by the race of the father or [if part white] by race of the nonwhite parent.

In 1970, everything got changed. First of all, the questionnaire was mailed out to every mailbox in the State, every residential address, and was picked up by enumerators. This was unlike the mainland where there was a questionnaire that said, "What race are you?" Then it listed eight or nine races and then a box for "other, please specify," and there were no instructions. So a person of mixed race very often didn't know how to handle this, especially part Hawaiians, and some of them said, "Well, my name is Chinese; I'll put down Chinese." Others would say, "I'm five-eighths Chinese; therefore, I'll put down I'm Chinese." Or they would say, "I'm proudest of this part of my background."

There are all different reasons, with no uniformity. Some, if they were, say, Chinese Hawaiian, would mark both. And then the census enumerator—if he came by and saw them—would say, "Please cross out one of those and put down one." If he didn't see it, it was edited in the census office, and they would take the one higher on the list. Or, if Chinese Hawaiian were marked, Chinese was coded. If you put down Hawaiian Chinese, it would be Hawaiian—whichever came first, you see. If, on the other hand, the respondent didn't mark anything and the person who came by to pick up the form saw this, and the person said, "What am I?" the enumerator would say, "Put down the race of your father."

Ms. PUTMAN. Do you know what is going to happen with the 1980 census?

MR. SCHMITT. Yes. There will be two changes. First, there will be some instructions on the form, at least that was their original intention after we brought this up. Second, they said if the person asks specifically he would be instructed to put down the race of his mother. Since many of the mixtures here have a Caucasian father and a non-Caucasian mother, or in the case of a Chinese Hawaiian, very often a Chinese father and a Hawaiian mother—this changes the practice of 10 years earlier. It is not comparable to 1970, it's not comparable to 1960, and it is not comparable to 1950.

There is no trend information available that's meaningful. There is no possibility of combining census statistics. The health surveillance program survey does obtain ethnic information in such a way that it can be coded either by the 1950 census method or they can code it by the system that I showed here, where persons of mixed race are shown as either part Hawaiian or mixed other than part Hawaiian.

But we have considerable chaos in our classifications here, and I'm beginning to wish that we could forget the subject of race entirely. It is becoming less and less meaningful.

Ms. PUTMAN. One final question, it is a two-part one: I want to see if there are some distinctions between Hawaii and other States. Do you know whether other States compile data as we are trying to do on the immigrant population? And second, you said that we have a significantly higher proportion of immigrants in our population. How does that compare with other States?

MR. SCHMITT. First, the compilation of data: Hawaii probably has more information on this subject than any other State. Most States are limited to just two sets of statistics on migration. One is the decennial census which asks, "Where did you live 5 years ago? Where were you born? What is your mother tongue?" and so on.

The other is the information published annually by the Immigration and Naturalization Service: immigrants arriving in the United States who declare each State as their intended residence. Very few States have locally available statistics, and some have none. Hawaii is extremely fortunate in this regard. Part of this is because we have locally available sources, because we have such a nice

geographic administrative setup. I mean, our borders are wet—you have to cross an ocean.

But to go from, say, Clark County in Washington State to Portland, Oregon, you are crossing a State boundary, but you are in the same metropolitan area. So on the mainland it is a much more different situation, geographically and statistically.

MS. PUTMAN. And, the second question about the relative proportion.

MR. SCHMITT. Oh, yes. I haven't seen any figures in the last 2 years. The last time we calculated it was in 1975, as I recall.

But in the number of immigrants in Hawaii, we were far above any other State. Second, in the reports on aliens, the proportion of the population that were aliens, we were highest. In the 1970 census, we were the highest for both foreign born and what we called population of foreign stock, which included persons of mixed or foreign parent-

<sup>2</sup> John F. O'Shea was the District Director of the Immigration and Naturalization Service Office in Honolulu at the time of the Advisory Committee consultation. He and Mr. Murray Brown, Deputy District Director, attended the consultation. The Honolulu District Director, Immigration and Naturalization Service, U.S. Department of Justice, was provided an opportunity to review and

age. In other words, either both parents were foreign born, or one parent was foreign born. So that we have in recent years been either at the top or within the first one or two. There have been a few years when we've dropped below in one category or another. Over this long-term period, we have outscored every other State in accepting immigrants.

MS. PUTMAN. Thank you very much.

MR. O'SHEA. May I clarify that?<sup>2</sup>

MR. SCHMITT. Certainly.

MS. PUTMAN. This is John O'Shea.

MR. O'SHEA. My name is O'Shea. I'm the Director of Immigration. We don't get more immigrants here, say, than California, but we do get more in proportion to our total population.

MR. SCHMITT. I should have made that clearer. Thank you.

MS. PUTMAN. Thank you very much.

comment upon the Feb. 23, 1979, draft of these proceedings. The district comments, received Mar. 6, 1979, were incorporated into these proceedings where appropriate. U.S. Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service, Honolulu District, "Review of the Hawaii Advisory Committee Consultation Proceedings" (Feb. 23, 1979, draft).



### 3. Social Characteristics of Pilipinos in the Mainland United States and Hawaii

Presentation of Peter C. Smith\*

The task that Dr. Gardner and I have been given is to try and focus the discussion on one particular immigrant group in Hawaii, namely, the Pilipinos, who are at the moment the largest single group migrating to the State.

Our approach to this will be as follows: I will present some general material on the social characteristics, and, in essence, the demography of Pilipinos in the United States, focusing on immigrant Pilipinos. Then Dr. Gardner will carry the discussion further by looking at the social and economic characteristics of Pilipinos, both immigrant and native born, in the State of Hawaii in the recent past. Therefore, my remarks should be looked upon as a kind of general introduction to the more specific, more focused comments that will be given by Dr. Gardner.

As I think most of us realize, Pilipinos have been immigrating into the United States, although in small numbers, from the earliest decades of this century. There have been two periods of substantial Pilipino immigration to the United States, defining what are commonly referred to as the first and second "waves" or "streams" of immigration.

The first wave occurred in connection with the labor migration of young men coming to the State of Hawaii, to the State of California, and to a lesser degree to the other States in the pursuit of work opportunities. The motivation for this migration was almost exclusively related to work, and the intention of many of these young men was not to remain in the United States but to return home. Many, in fact,

were unable to return home or changed their minds and remained in the United States, mainly concentrated in California and Hawaii.

The second wave of migration has been much more recent, essentially post-1965, and has had an entirely different social and economic composition.

Now we will look at figures which should clarify some of these points.<sup>1</sup>

Table 1 describes, in a general way, the changing social composition of the Pilipinos in the mainland United States.

If we look at the particular indicators in this table and try to put a picture together, we see evidence of three things. I'll try to summarize these without going into specific details.

First, there is evidence of a process of assimilation of Pilipinos, at least in economic terms, into the ongoing society. Over time, the social and economic characteristics of Pilipinos have become more and more like the social characteristics of other groups in the U.S. population. For example, we see this in the sex ratios, ratios of numbers of men and women. They start out very disproportionately in favor of males in America because an important motivation for that early migration was employment, and this labor factor had its greatest effect on Pilipino men. More recently, the sex ratio has essentially normalized, on the one hand, because of the growth of native Pilipino families with male and female offspring, and on the other hand, because of the immigration of both males and females more recently.

\* Dr. Peter C. Smith is a research associate with the East-West Population Institute at the East-West Center, University of Hawaii.

<sup>1</sup> The tabular material in Mr. Smith's presentation is based in part upon

"The Social Demography of Filipino Migrations Abroad," *International Migration Review*, vol. 10 (fall 1976), pp. 307-53.

**TABLE 1****The Changing Social Composition of Mainland Pilipinos, 1940**

Characteristic	Year		
	1940	1950	1970
Total Pilipinos	45,563	61,636	241,051
Native born	431	22,341	103,733
% native born	0.9	36.2	43.0
% urban	60.6	66.4	92.6
% rural/nonfarm	10.9	15.3	6.2
% farm	28.5	18.3	1.2
Sex ratio	6,802	2,968	1,151
% 35 and over, single			
Male	62.2	42.5 <sup>a</sup>	16.4
Female	7.1	5.9 <sup>a</sup>	11.4
% not in a private household	26.8	—	7.0
Median years of schooling <sup>b</sup>	7.4	7.6	13.5
Employed males 14 and over			
% professional	1.2	1.7	24.3
% domestic service	6.7	2.3	0.5
% farm laborer	47.7	35.2	9.7
% residing in California	68.9	65.6	56.1
% 25 and over with some college	7.7	10.8 <sup>c</sup>	43.2

<sup>a</sup> Ages 45 and over.<sup>b</sup> Ages 25 and over.<sup>c</sup> Ages 14 and over.

Sources: Reports by the U.S., Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *1970 Census of Population Subject Reports, Japanese, Chinese and Filipinos in the United States*, PC(2)-1G (July 1973); 1960 Subject Reports, *Nonwhite population by Race, Social and Economic Statistics for Negroes, Indians, Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos*, PC(2)-1C (1963); 1950 Special Reports, *Nonwhite Population by Race*, P-E, no. 3B (1953); *U.S. Census of Population: 1950*, vol. IV, Special Report, Part 3, Chapter B, "Nonwhite Population by Race" (1953); *Sixteenth Census of the United States: 1940 Population*, vol. II, Characteristics of the Population (1945), tables 5, 6, 11, 14, 15, and 22.

Second, table 1 reflects the growth of the native-born Pilipino population. Nearly one-half the Pilipinos on the mainland at 1970 census time had been born in the United States.

Thirdly, table 1 shows the arrival of the second wave of Pilipino immigrants, much more highly educated, much more family oriented than those who came before.

Figure 1 summarizes the data that we have on the age and sex composition of the Pilipino population in 1960, before the recent immigration. These data describe the country as a whole, including Hawaii. For those of you who are not familiar with a figure like this, the horizontal axis is simply numbers of people in each of the age groups. The youngest age group is at the bottom and the oldest is at the top. Most populations have a broad symmetrical pyramid type shape reflecting mortality and fertility patterns.

This figure illustrates several things. First, the shaded area is an estimate of the native-born population of Pilipino ancestry in the United States taken from census data. The unshaded area is an estimate of the foreign-born or immigrant Pilipino population in the United States.

Figure 1 describes the Pilipino population as of 1960. One can see that at the younger ages the population is predominately native born, while at the older ages it is predominately foreign born and predominantly male. So we have a clear reflection of what has recently happened to this population. If you will try to keep this picture in mind, we will move on to some other diagrams and compare them with this one.

Additional age-sex pyramids show several of the things that have happened to the Pilipino population more recently—particularly when we compare data from the two most recent censuses, those of 1960 and 1970.

The dark-shaded area in figure 2 represents Pilipinos living in the State of Hawaii in 1960. The lightly shaded area indicates Pilipinos in California, and the unshaded area represents Pilipinos living in any of the other States of the United States. We see here that in 1960 there was a very major concentration of Pilipinos in these two States, California and Hawaii.

When we look at a similar chart for 1970 [see figure 3], several kinds of things seem to have happened. Most importantly, the number of Pilipinos residing somewhere other than in California and Hawaii has increased dramatically [note the unshad-

ed areas]. Figures 2 and 3 also represent the age and sex characteristics of the recent migrants to the United States. In general, there has been a dispersion of native-born Pilipinos from California and Hawaii to other States, and in addition, the more recent arrivals seem to be dispersed throughout the United States.

One can also see in these figures the aging of that first wave of Pilipino immigrants. The bulge in the distribution reflecting that early group is now smaller because of the mortality that has occurred.

MR. SCHMITT. The part Hawaiians who were part Pilipinos were classified in Hawaii as "part Hawaiian" in 1960, but in 1970 they were usually classified as "Pilipinos," which resulted in a very sizable increase in the numbers of Pilipinos, chiefly through reclassification.

MR. SMITH. Mr. Schmitt, given this chart and the one before it, what sort of an effect would that have on the general shape of things?

MR. SCHMITT. It would affect the Hawaii data. There would be a sizable increase of the number of Pilipinos. I don't know if it would modify the age-sex patterns.

MR. SMITH. So we get those kinds of changes with the caveat that has just been raised.

Another pair of charts [see figures 4 and 5] illustrate the urban and rural residence pattern of Pilipinos. The shaded area indicates those residing in urban areas in the United States. One sees that Pilipinos are a predominantly urban population, with the exception of substantial numbers of older people living in rural areas, primarily males in the older age groups. Once again, this pattern reflects that first wave of agricultural, labor-oriented migration.

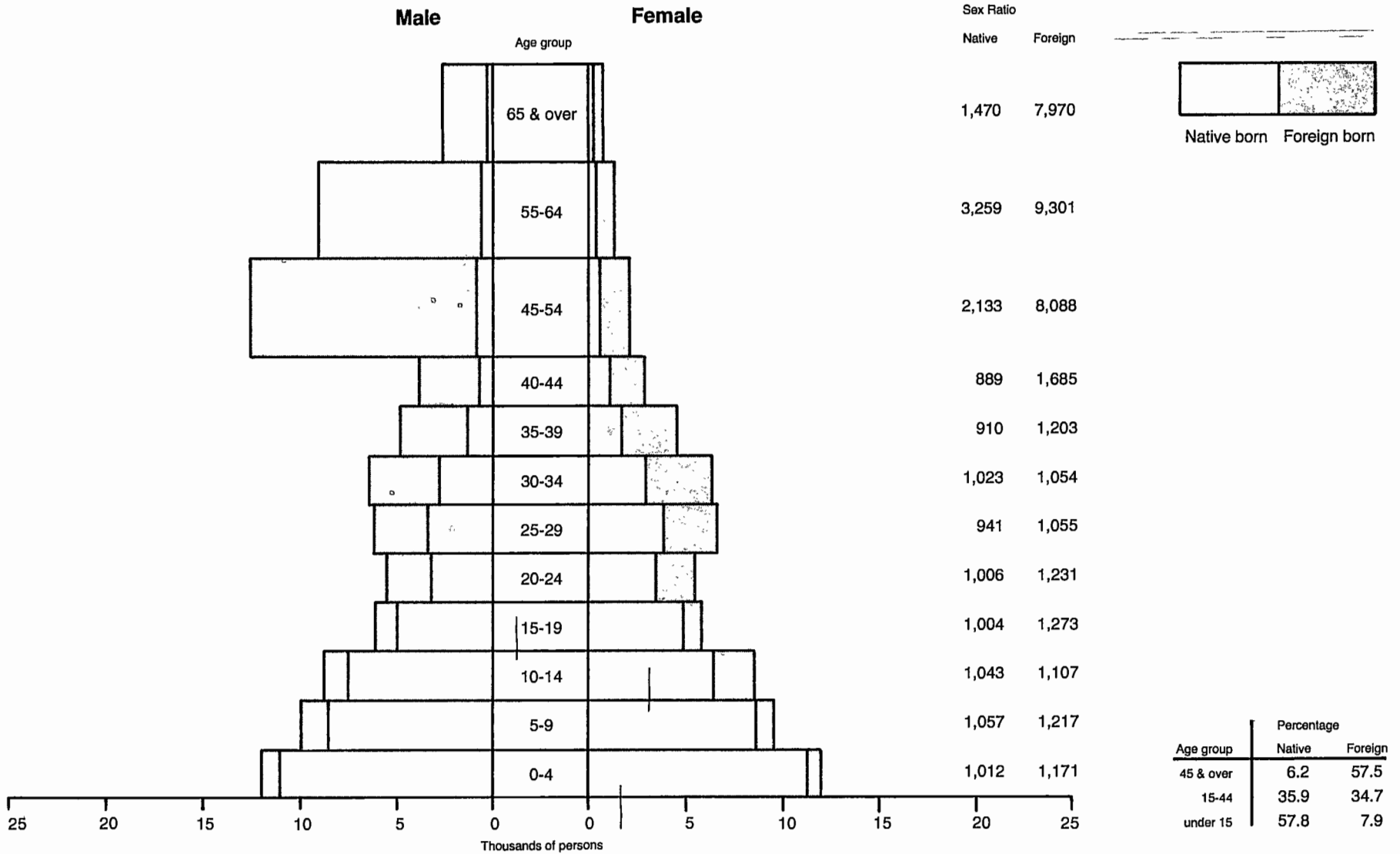
When we look at the same data for 1970 [see figure 5], the few rural concentrations that had existed have largely disappeared; we are now looking at what is essentially an urban population in all age groups and for both sexes.

There has been a transition from rural areas of residence. But also, recent immigrants to the United States from the Philippines have had almost exclusively urban destinations. The percentage of recent immigrants who say that they have rural destinations is less than 1 percent.

We have tried to make estimates of the recent migration by age and sex, and these are presented in figure 6. There can certainly be objections to these estimates in terms of statistical accuracy, but I think

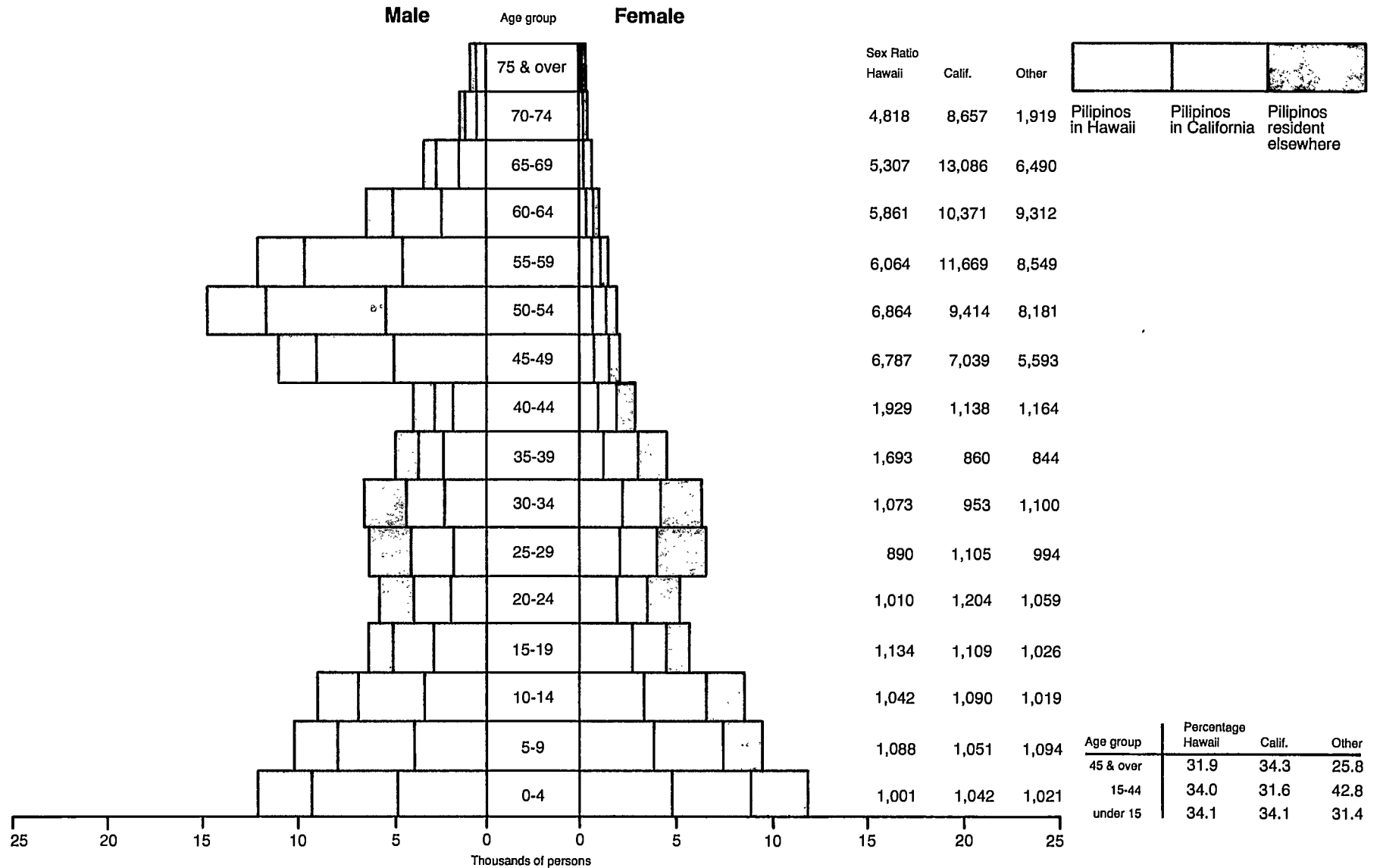
**FIGURE 1**

**Pilipinos in the United States by Nativity, 1960**



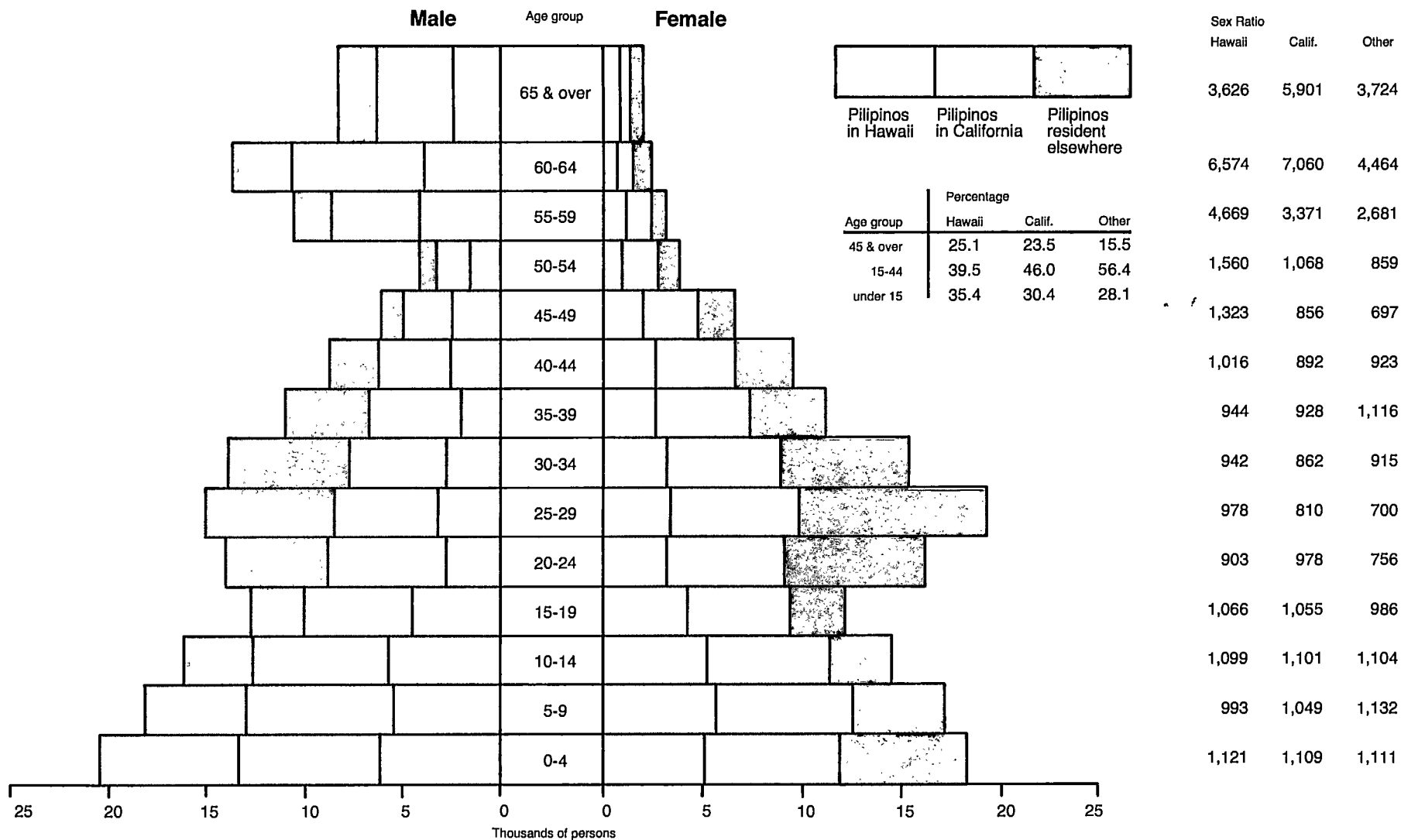
**FIGURE 2**

**Pilipinos in the United States by Area of Residence, 1960**



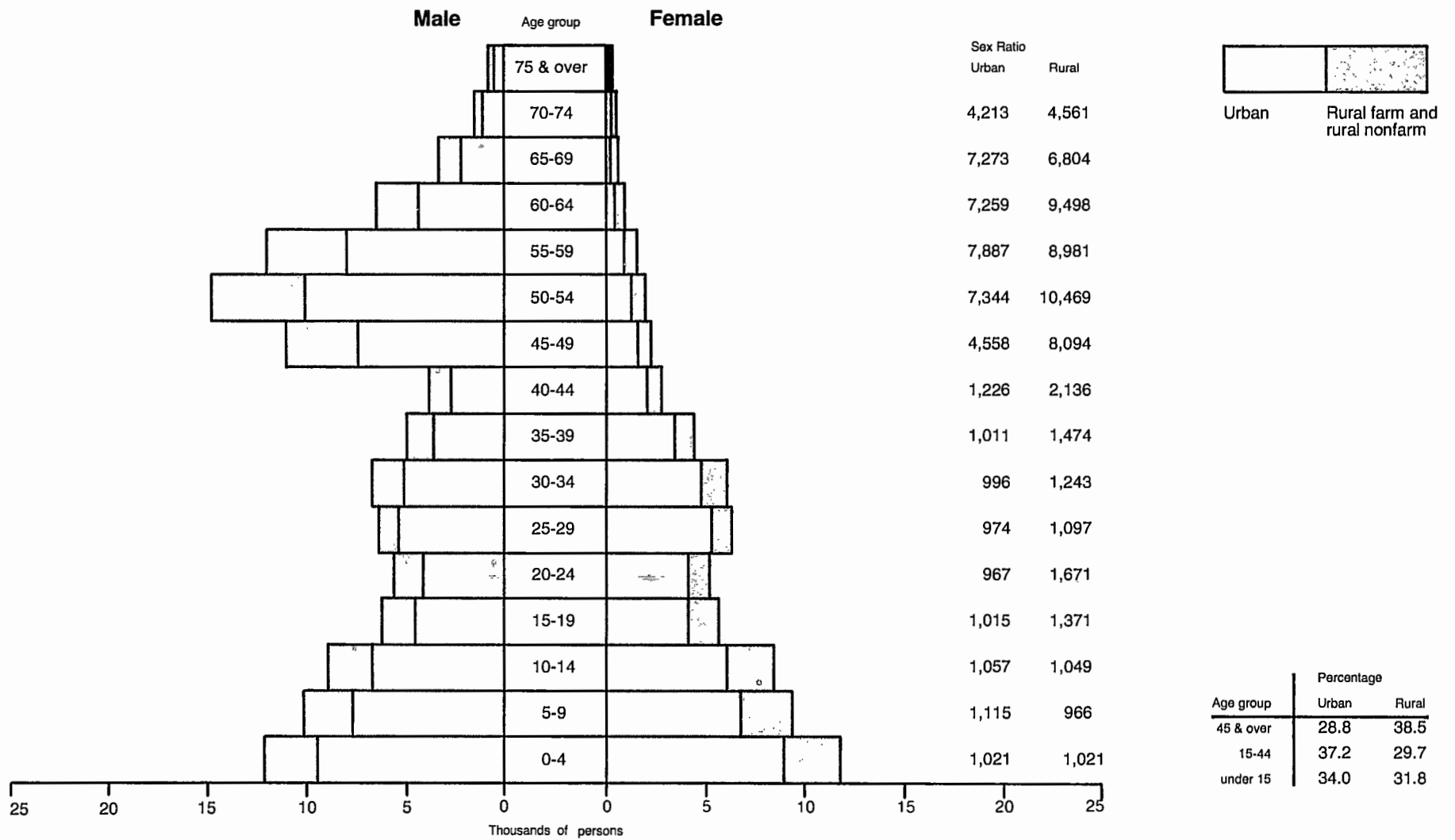
# FIGURE 3

## Pilipinos in the United States by Area of Residence, 1970



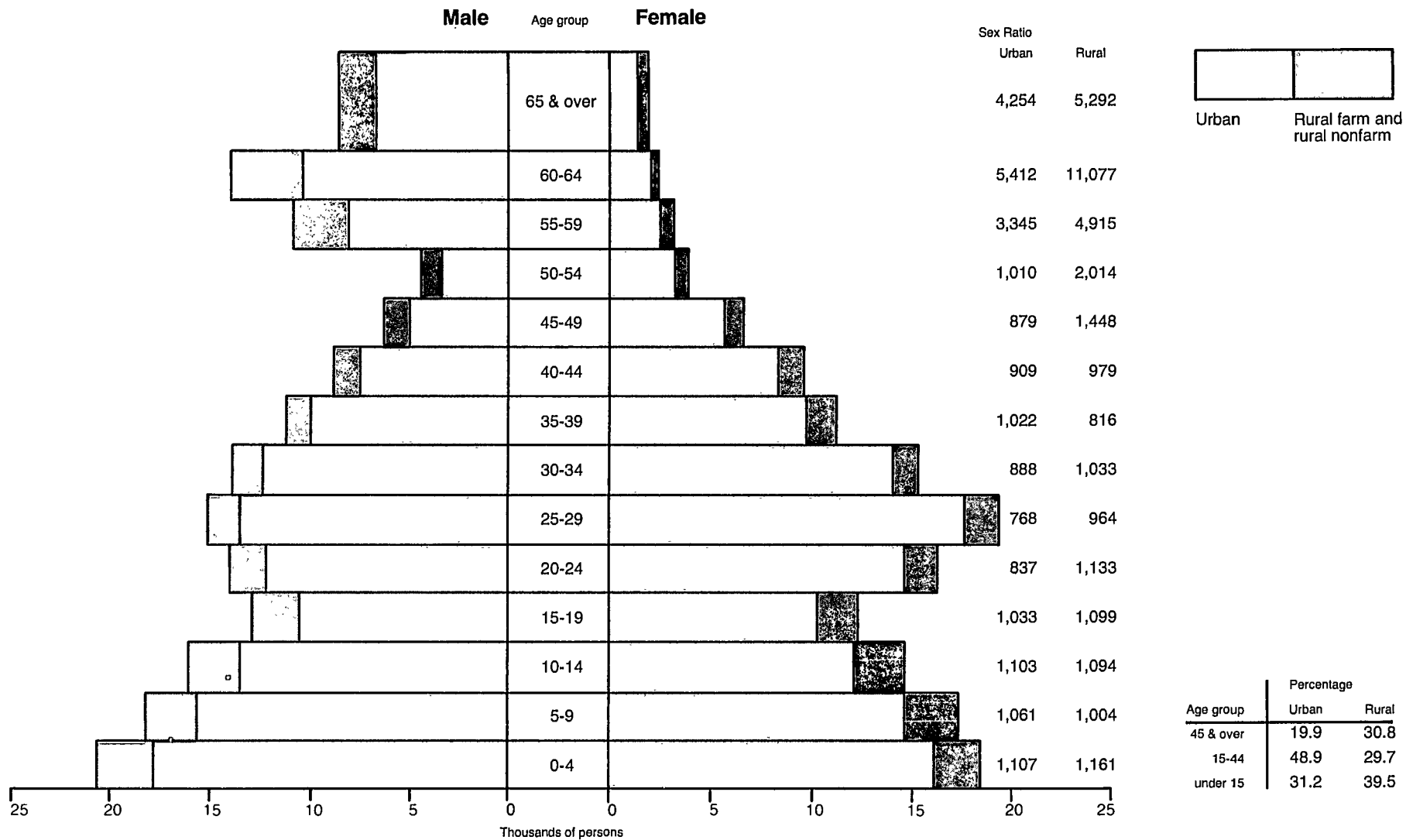
**FIGURE 4**

**Pilipinos in the United States by Urban/Rural Residence, 1960**



# FIGURE 5

## Pilipinos in the United States by Urban/Rural Residence, 1970





we do get at least a general picture of the recent migration from them.

Figure 6 reflects indirectly the estimated numbers of migrants from outside the country into the United States, people of Pilipino ancestry during the 1960-1970 period. The unshaded area represents Pilipinos who were already in the United States in 1960. They may or may not have been immigrants, and they may or may not have been citizens at that point in time, but they were already in the United States. The shaded area represents an estimate of arrivals since 1960, excluding departures and deaths in the interval.

This figure tells us, primarily, that recent immigrants—putting aside the first wave migrants and looking at what is really a post-1965 migration—have been mainly young adults and in some cases teenagers, and they have been disproportionately female. This is in sharp contrast to the earlier flow which, as we noticed earlier, was disproportionately male. The more recent streams have been much more balanced in terms of sex ratios but generally have favored females in terms of numbers. This important change reflects the kinds of decisions that are being made by Pilipino families in the Philippines about who ought to be migrating.

Next, I have three charts which summarize similar kinds of information for three metropolitan areas in the United States. The purpose in showing you these is to begin to focus on Hawaii and the particular kinds of Pilipino immigrants we have here and on the different kinds of problems that we have.

First, we look at patterns in two major metropolitan areas on the mainland: Los Angeles and Chicago. Figures 7 and 8 represent, indirectly, estimated numbers of net migrants by age and sex. The shaded areas indicate migrants. In Los Angeles [see figure 7], one sees that the Pilipino migrants are primarily in the younger age groups, with somewhat of a bias in favor of females. But in particular, figure 7 shows that the nonmigrant population already in Los Angeles in 1960 is small in relation to the migrant population. Recent migrants are a very large fraction of the total.

Similarly, and in fact in a more extreme fashion, those who were in the Chicago metropolitan area before 1960 are an even smaller proportion of each of the age groups. [See figure 8.] And in Chicago, we see a substantial bias amongst the migrants in favor of females over males. We might suppose, without substantiation, that this represents opportu-

nities for trained medical personnel. Many of the Pilipino females who migrate to the Chicago area are in that field.

Now we take those two general patterns and contrast them with the same sort of information for the Honolulu metropolitan area. [See figure 9.] Here we find that in contrast to Los Angeles and Chicago, nonmigrants [that is, those who were here before 1960] make up the larger share of the total by far. In Honolulu, we have a long-term Pilipino population with its own ongoing social system.

More recently, we have added immigrants whose numbers are really small in relation to the numbers of Pilipinos here prior to 1960. There is some bias in favor of females among the newer immigrants, but it is not a substantial bias. In fact, what we are seeing, in contrast to mainland big cities, is the arrival of entire families into the State. Thus, the Honolulu migration, which is in essence the State's migration, is quite different from the kinds of migration we see in other parts of the United States. The Chicago and Los Angeles data are, in fact, representative of essentially all other metropolitan areas. We have prepared these charts for other cities, and they appear about the same.

Having focused finally on Pilipinos living in the State of Hawaii, let us now look for just a moment at some social and economic characteristics of Pilipinos in Hawaii. We turn to table 2 and summarize only the main points.

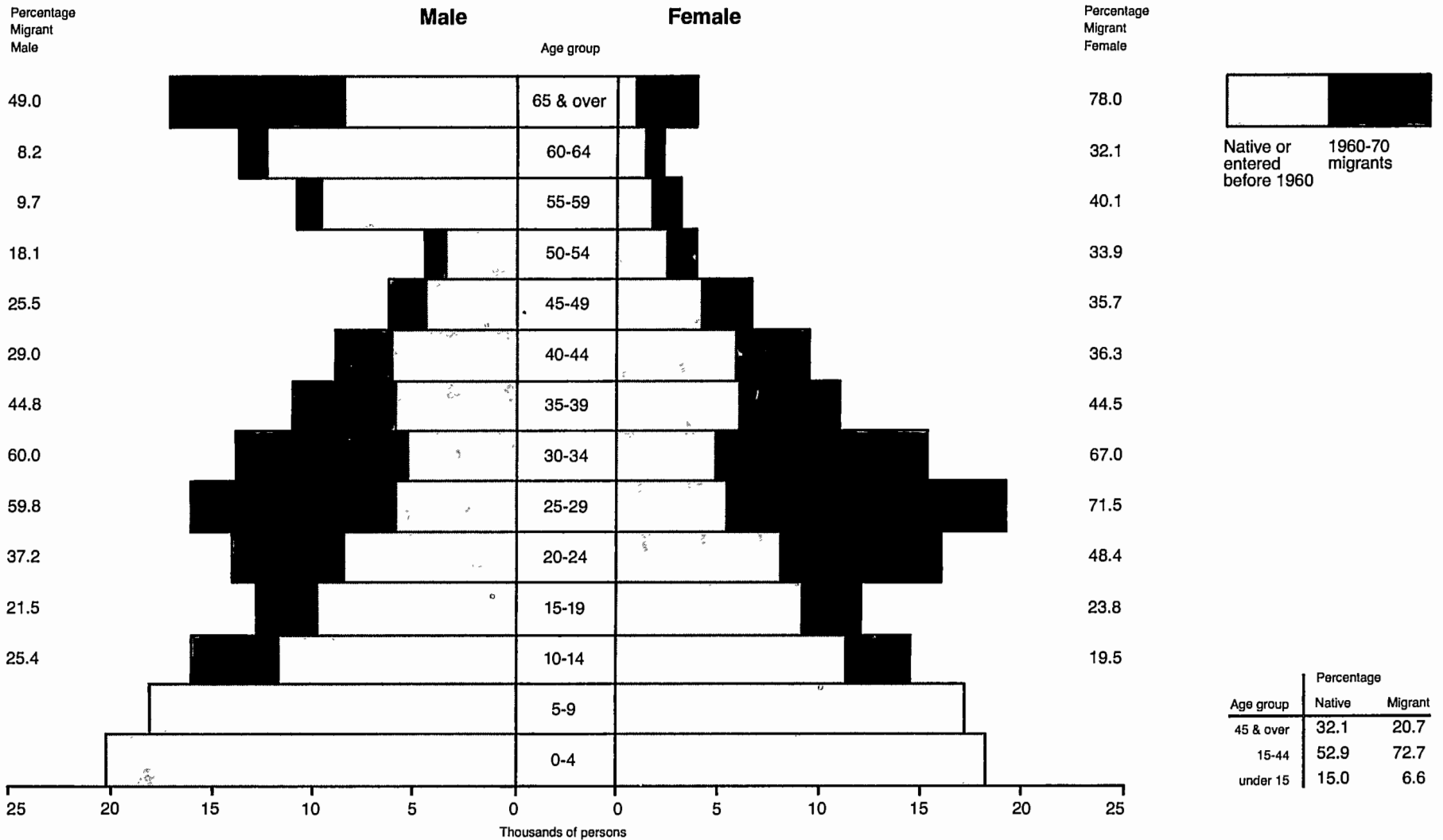
First of all, the Pilipino population of Honolulu is not growing nearly as rapidly as the Pilipino populations in other large metropolitan areas in the United States. The main reason for this is that in Honolulu we start with a large base, a large number of Pilipinos already here.

The sex ratios in table 2 show that the proportion of the population which is male has been extremely high in Honolulu in the past, and that the ratio of males and females is now moving toward a more regular sort of equal distribution. This shift, which has been very dramatic, represents a shift in the kind of migration we have had. Migration to Hawaii recently has been predominantly female, whereas in the past it had been predominantly male. In addition, Pilipino families in the State are, of course, having children of both sexes, and this helps to equalize the sex ratio.

Table 2 also shows that the Honolulu Pilipino population is comprised of whole families—husbands, wives, and children—to a much greater

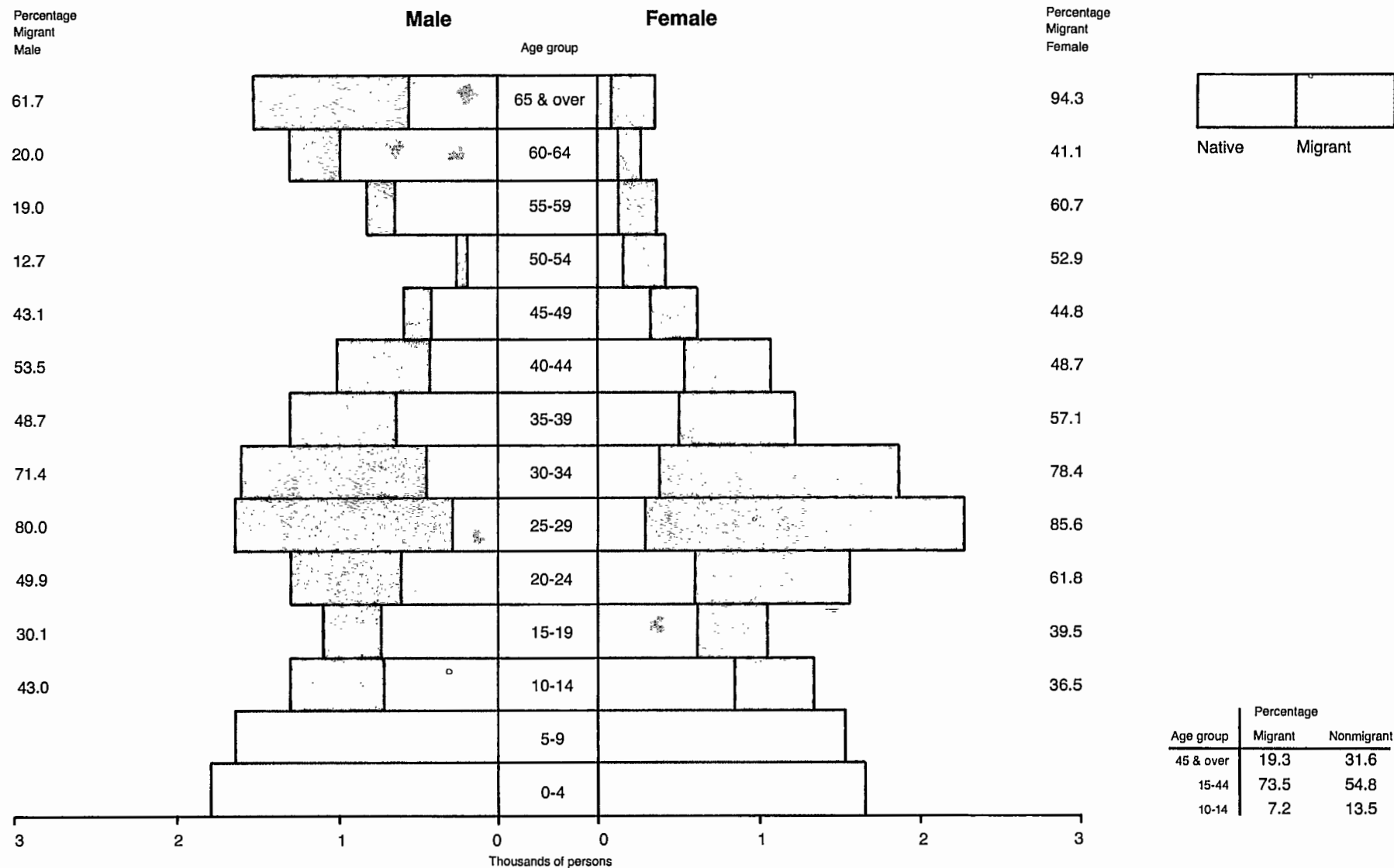
**FIGURE 6**

**Pilipinos in the United States by Migration Status, 1960-70**



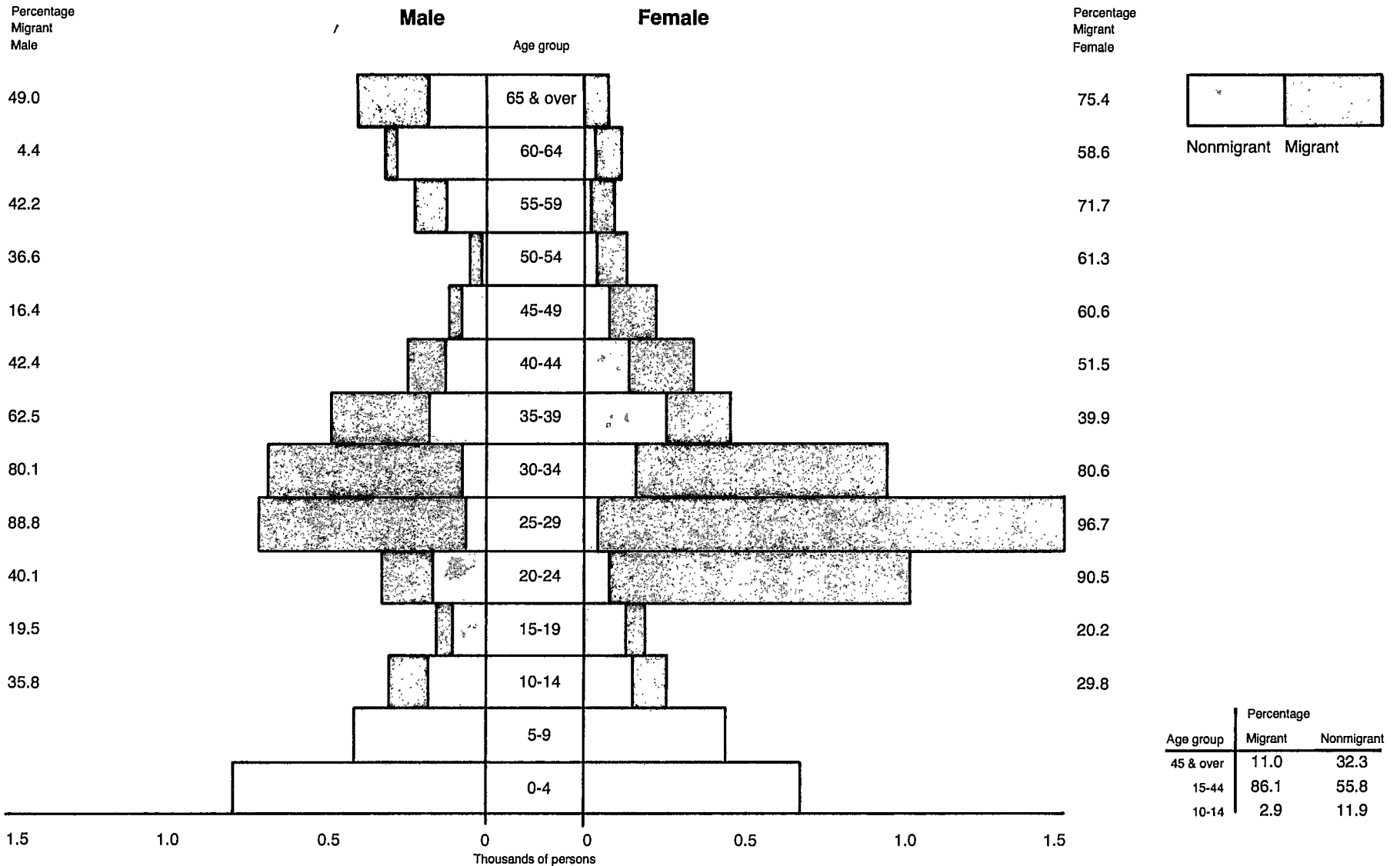
**FIGURE 7**

**Pilipinos in the Los Angeles SMSA by Migration Status, 1970**



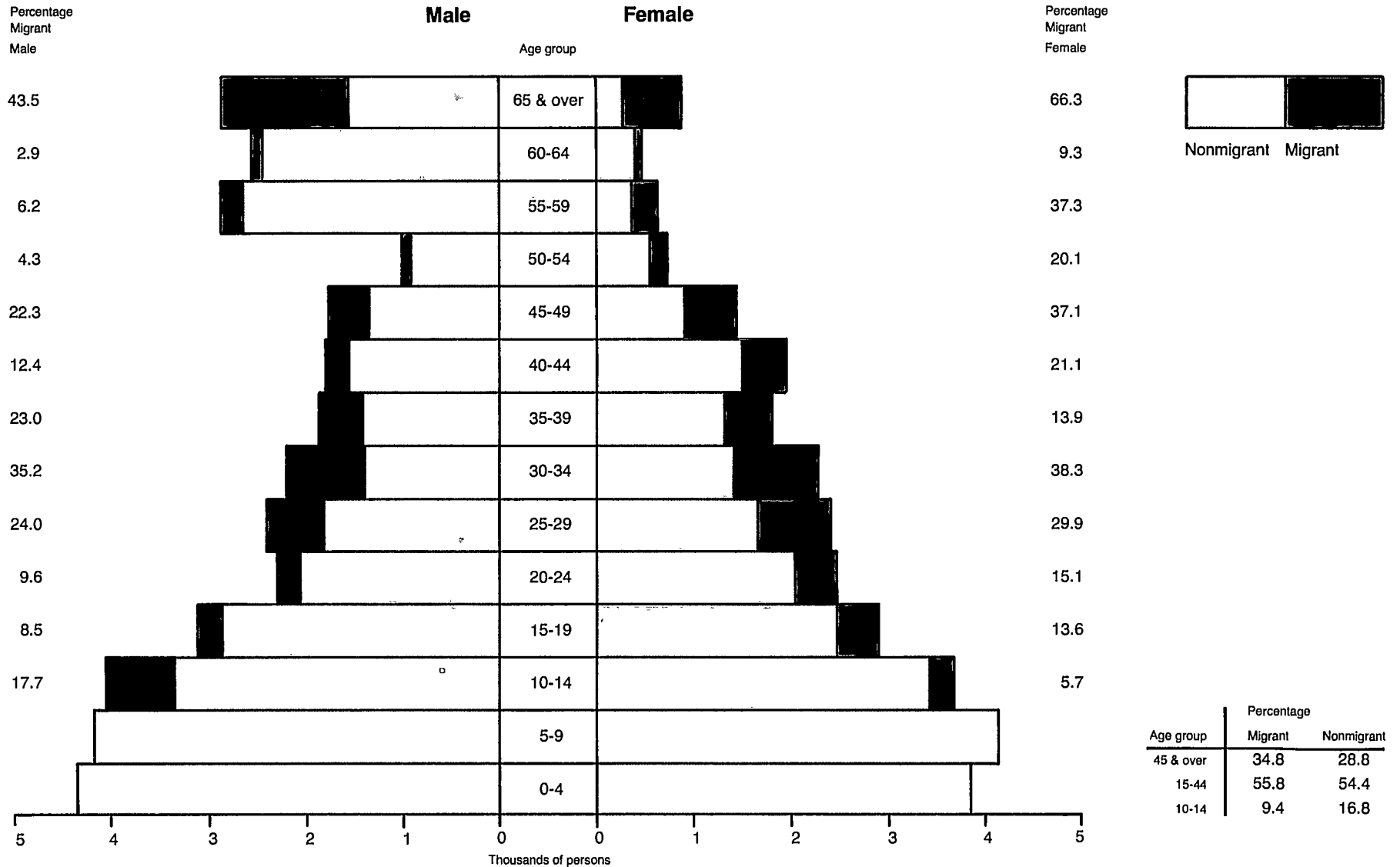
**FIGURE 8**

**Pilipinos in the Chicago SMSA by Migration Status, 1970**



# FIGURE 9

## Pilipinos in the Honolulu SMSA by Migration Status, 1970



**TABLE 2****A Social Profile of Pilipinos in Selected SMSA's, 1960 and 1970**

Characteristic *	Chicago		Honolulu		Los Angeles		New York		San Diego		San Francisco	
	1960	1970	1960	1970	1960	1970	1960	1970	1960	1970	1960	1970
Total population	3,554	11,568	45,320	66,653	13,074	32,018	4,892	12,455	5,123	15,069	22,304	44,326
% change	—	225	—	47	—	145	—	155	—	194	—	99
Age-sex composition												
% under 20	30.0	27.7	44.3	45.3	37.1	34.8	24.4	25.5	43.1	44.9	39.6	38.6
% 20-54	54.6	62.0	28.3	39.4	49.5	51.1	54.8	61.0	50.8	48.8	45.2	45.8
% 55+	15.4	10.3	27.4	15.3	13.4	14.1	20.9	13.5	6.1	6.4	15.2	15.6
Sex ratio	1,519	815	1,559	1,269	1,643	1,101	1,670	892	1,608	1,273	1,545	1,102
Family characteristics												
No. of families	—	2,611	—	12,955	—	7,446	—	2,874	—	3,008	—	9,395
% with husband and wife	—	85.1	—	85.7	—	86.5	—	82.4	—	81.5	—	86.7
% with female head	—	10.6	—	7.7	—	8.6	—	12.0	—	16.6	—	8.5
% with child <6	—	41.4	—	39.6	—	38.0	—	37.9	—	55.4	—	35.3
Children ever born per 1,000 ever married women aged 35-44	—	2,811	—	4,002	—	2,805	—	2,452	—	3,252	—	3,261
Household characteristics												
No. of households	1,181	3,539	10,721	15,134	4,145	9,668	1,752	4,299	1,124	3,320	6,350	11,551
Average household size	2.6	3.0	3.9	4.1	3.0	2.9	2.4	2.5	3.7	4.0	3.3	3.5
% of members unrelated to head	3.0	9.9	6.0	3.2	5.8	4.5	10.3	10.8	1.7	1.4	5.4	4.3
% of Adults (18+) other than husband and wife	—	24.8	—	20.1	—	18.7	—	26.2	—	19.1	—	21.0
% of heads with wife of other race	—	27.2	—	28.0	—	32.4	—	37.1	—	28.9	—	20.4
Employed males by occupation <sup>a</sup>												
% professional/managerial	20.4	50.3	3.7	8.2	9.4	25.8	21.8	52.3	13.0	11.7	6.9	15.9
% clerical/sales	15.2	19.6	6.2	8.0	8.1	18.8	8.5	17.7	8.9	14.4	8.3	19.7
% other occupations	20.8	14.6	38.5	44.2	25.9	26.0	23.2	13.8	27.6	21.7	21.7	20.9
% crafts/operatives	43.6	15.5	51.6	39.6	56.6	29.4	46.5	16.2	50.5	52.2	63.1	43.5

\* SMSA's with 10,000+ Pilipino population.

<sup>a</sup> Male 16+ in 1970.

Sources: U.S., Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *1970 Census of Population Subject Reports, Japanese, Chinese and Filipinos in the United States*, PC(2)-1G (July 1973); and U.S. *Census of Population by Race, Social and Economic Statistics for Negroes, Indians, Japanese, Chinese, and Filipinos*, Final Report PC(2)-1C (1963).

degree than one finds in the Pilipino population elsewhere in the country. In other parts of the country one finds a greater number of single people living together, for example, nurses living in dormitories and elderly men living alone in dormitory situations. While we do have that kind of pattern in Honolulu, and it represents a major political and civil rights issue, numerically, it is not nearly as common as in many of the other States.

The data in table 2 also show that the Pilipinos in this State have substantially more children per couple than Pilipinos in other States of the United States. With respect to childbearing, there is evidence of behavioral change or some kind of selection process. Pilipinos living in Hawaii behave in a way that is intermediate between behavior in the Philippines [many children] and, say, typical American behavior in this regard. Finally, Pilipino households in this State are larger on an average than elsewhere in the country, and yet they contain smaller numbers of unrelated individuals. In other words, the larger size of Pilipino households here reflects larger numbers of relatives in these households, partly because they have more children, and perhaps partly because of social patterns that encourage related people that come to the United States to live together, at least temporarily.

Compared to other populations on the mainland, Honolulu's Pilipinos have much lower proportions trained as professionals and higher proportions who are working in the service and blue-collar occupations. This is a reflection of the Pilipino population in this State in general, and it reflects the particular kinds of migrants that other States are receiving—predominantly professionally oriented and trained individuals. Honolulu is receiving those kinds of migrants, but it is also receiving those with more traditional backgrounds as well. So our picture is much more mixed than on the mainland.

The 1960 census reports included indicators of social status for each ethnic group. These are combined measures of occupation, income, and education. When we look at these socioeconomic-status indexes for the different ethnic groups—Pilipinos, Chinese, Japanese, blacks, whites, etc. [see table 3], we find that the Pilipino population stood second from the bottom among the groups just mentioned—second only to American blacks.

Significantly though, by 1970—for which we have a different but somewhat analogous sort of index [see table 4]—we find a much more mixed picture

and a good deal of evidence that the average social and economic attainment of the Pilipino population in the United States has increased very dramatically.

And in many specific regions in the country one sees that the average Pilipino rating on this measure is higher than for the Japanese and Chinese, higher than for the blacks, and essentially equal to the United States national average. Of course, some regions are lower and some regions are higher. It is a much more mixed picture, whereas in 1960 the pattern was quite uniform. The Pilipinos as a group were much lower than everyone else except American blacks, who were at the bottom.

It's not clear what the shift between 1960 and 1970 represents. It may represent the social and economic composition of migrants between 1960 and 1970—who on the whole have been more highly educated. As they have come in they have pulled up the Pilipino average overall, or it may reflect improved social and economic attainment among native-born Pilipinos or for the Pilipinos who were here before 1960.

Let me now make just a few statements drawn from the annual reports of the Immigration and Naturalization Service through 1976 which show broad changes in the composition and numbers of Pilipinos coming into the United States.

Of the immigrants to this country as a whole, Asians have accounted for a dramatically rising proportion. This proportion had increased to about 25 percent by 1970. [See table 5.] And by 1976 approximately 38 percent of all persons immigrating into the United States had an Asian origin. This is a substantial proportion: 8 or 9 percent had the Philippines as their country of origin, while an additional 7.7 percent had Korea as their country of origin. This statistic has been holding approximately constant for the Philippines, but the Korean figure has been increasing year by year. Of all of the Asian immigration to the United States, these two countries, Korea and the Philippines, account for about 45 percent.

The figures are, of course, different for the State of Hawaii. Our largest immigrant groups are the Pilipinos and Koreans and the proportion coming to Hawaii from Asian countries was far in excess of the national figure.

Of all immigrants to the United States, a rising fraction have come through Pacific ports of entry [see table 6], and the proportion coming through the

**TABLE 3****Mean SES Scores by Race, Age, and Sex, 1960**

<b>Age-sex group</b>	<b>Total U.S.</b>	<b>White</b>	<b>Black</b>	<b>Japanese</b>	<b>Chinese</b>	<b>Pilipino</b>
<b>Both sexes</b>						
-14	53.3	56.8	27.0	60.5	56.1	42.4
14-24	50.4	52.8	29.1	56.0	55.5	45.7
25-44	57.4	59.8	32.6	62.5	61.7	48.3
45-64	49.9	52.2	23.7	54.1	42.2	28.8
65+	32.9	34.7	14.5	48.6	25.1	17.1
All ages	51.9	54.6	27.5	59.3	54.5	40.8
<b>Male</b>						
-14	53.4	56.8	26.9	61.2	56.6	43.0
14-24	49.3	51.7	28.8	53.1	52.6	45.0
25-44	57.8	60.0	34.0	64.4	61.3	47.5
45-64	50.6	52.9	25.1	53.5	36.6	27.3
65+	32.2	33.9	14.7	46.7	20.4	15.5
All ages	52.0	54.6	27.9	59.8	51.6	37.9
<b>Female</b>						
-14	53.2	56.8	27.1	59.8	55.5	41.8
14-24	51.5	53.9	29.3	56.8	58.1	46.7
25-44	57.1	59.6	31.3	60.8	62.3	49.2
45-64	49.1	51.5	22.4	54.7	53.4	42.2
65+	33.7	35.5	14.3	51.1	48.0	—
All ages	51.8	54.5	27.1	58.9	57.8	44.9
<b>Ratio to total U.S., all races (both sexes)</b>						
-14	100.0	106.6	50.7	113.5	105.3	79.5
14-24	100.0	104.8	57.7	111.1	110.1	90.7
24-44	100.0	104.2	56.8	108.9	107.5	84.1
45-64	100.0	104.6	47.5	108.4	84.6	57.7
65+	100.0	105.5	44.1	147.7	76.3	52.0
All ages	100.0	105.2	53.0	114.3	105.0	78.6
<b>Ratio to Pilipinos (both sexes)</b>						
-14	125.7	134.0	63.7	142.7	132.3	100.0
14-24	110.3	115.5	63.7	122.5	121.4	100.0
24-44	118.8	123.8	67.5	129.4	127.7	100.0
45-64	173.3	181.3	82.3	187.8	146.5	100.0
65+	192.4	202.9	84.8	284.2	146.8	100.0
All ages	127.2	133.8	67.4	145.3	133.6	100.0
<b>Ratio to population aged 25-44 (both sexes)</b>						
-14	92.9	95.0	82.8	96.8	90.9	87.8
14-24	87.8	88.3	89.3	89.6	90.0	94.6
25-44	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
45-64	86.9	87.3	72.7	86.6	68.4	59.6
65+	57.3	58.0	44.5	77.8	40.7	35.4
All ages	90.4	91.3	84.4	94.9	88.3	84.5

Sources: U.S., Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *U.S. Census of Populations: 1960, Subject Reports, Socioeconomic Status*, PC(2)-5C (1967).



**TABLE 4****Percentages of Household Heads and Wives of Heads with Incomes below Poverty Level, by Race and by Region**

<b>Race and Sex</b>	<b>Total U.S.</b>	<b>Northeast</b>	<b>Northcentral</b>	<b>South</b>	<b>West</b>
<b>Male (household heads)</b>					
White	6.9	6.3	7.2	21.1	8.1
Black	21.0	20.4	21.3	38.2	20.9
Japanese	4.4	9.0	9.7	24.5	5.3
Chinese	8.9	11.0	9.1	12.0	8.9
Pilipino	8.3	9.4	6.8	15.1	11.5
All races	8.0	7.5	8.3	16.3	9.0
<b>Females (wives)</b>					
White	6.8	4.5	5.7	10.2	5.9
Black	20.5	10.0	10.3	21.7	10.7
Japanese	4.4	5.3	6.3	12.1	3.9
Chinese	8.8	10.7	8.5	9.6	7.9
Pilipino	7.9	5.9	5.3	10.1	8.2
All races	7.8	4.9	6.1	12.7	6.3
<b>All Persons</b>					
White	10.8	8.4	9.4	14.6	10.6
Black	34.6	24.0	25.3	43.5	24.8
Japanese	8.5	13.9	14.9	25.9	6.8
Chinese	12.5	14.2	14.0	16.7	11.0
Pilipino	13.7	14.8	10.0	16.6	13.7
All races	13.6	9.9	10.7	20.2	11.7
<b>Ratio to total U.S., all races</b>					
<b>All Persons</b>					
White	79.4	61.8	69.1	107.4	77.9
Black	254.4	176.5	186.0	319.9	182.4
Japanese	62.5	102.2	109.6	190.4	50.0
Chinese	91.9	104.4	102.9	122.8	80.9
Pilipino	100.7	108.8	73.5	122.1	100.7
All races	100.0	72.8	78.7	148.5	86.0
<b>Ratio to Pilipinos</b>					
<b>All Persons</b>					
White	78.8	56.8	94.0	88.0	77.4
Black	252.6	162.2	253.0	262.0	181.0
Japanese	62.0	93.9	149.0	156.0	49.6
Chinese	91.2	95.9	140.0	100.6	80.3
Pilipino	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
All races	99.3	66.9	107.0	121.7	85.4

Source: U.S., Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, *Low Income Population*, PC(2)-9A (1973), table 3.

**TABLE 5****Immigrants Admitted to the United States by Country of Birth and Year of Entry**

Country of birth	1964	%	1966	%	1968	%	1970	%	1972	%	1974	%	1976	%
All countries	292,248	100.0	323,040	100.0	454,448	100.0	373,326	100.0	384,685	100.0	394,861	100.0	398,613	100.0
Asia	21,845	7.4	41,432	12.8	58,989	12.9	94,883	25.4	121,058	31.5	130,662	33.1	149,881	37.6
China and Taiwan	5,009	1.7	13,736	4.2	12,738	2.8	14,093	3.8	17,339	4.5	18,056	4.5	18,823	4.7
Hongkong	639	0.2	3,872	1.2	3,696	0.8	3,863	1.0	4,391	1.1	4,629	1.2	5,766	1.4
India	634	0.2	2,458	0.7	4,682	1.0	10,114	2.7	16,926	4.4	12,779	3.2	17,487	4.4
Japan	3,680	1.3	3,394	1.1	3,613	0.8	4,485	1.2	4,757	1.2	4,860	1.2	4,258	1.1
Korea	2,362	0.8	2,492	0.7	3,811	0.8	9,314	2.5	18,876	4.9	28,028	7.0	30,803	7.7
Philippines	3,006	1.0	6,093	1.9	16,731	3.7	31,203	8.4	29,376	7.6	32,857	8.3	37,281	9.4
Thailand	170	0.05	230	0.07	645	0.1	1,826	0.5	4,102	1.1	4,956	1.5	6,925	1.7
Vietnam	219	0.07	275	0.1	590	0.1	1,450	0.3	3,412	0.8	3,192	0.8	3,048	0.8
Rest of Asia	6,126	2.1	8,882	2.8	12,483	2.8	18,535	5.0	21,879	5.7	21,305	5.4	7,503	1.9

Sources: Data derived from U.S., Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service, annual reports, 1964, 1966, 1968, 1970, 1974, and 1976.

Honolulu port of entry in 1976 was 14 percent, about one U.S. immigrant in seven.

In the recent past, these immigrants have been predominately young and predominantly female. [See table 7.] And as we noted earlier, they have almost exclusively indicated urban destinations. Less than 1 percent have indicated otherwise.

Perhaps just a final word or two in response to the relevant question that Ms. Thompson raised earlier. It is certainly a valid question, one that all social statisticians are concerned about to one degree or another. But we were asked to come today and try to create a descriptive setting within which civil rights issues could be discussed. We certainly hope that the information we are presenting is not entirely irrelevant to this goal.

We can see from all of these data and from the figures that Dr. Gardner will be presenting that we have in this State growing numbers of recent arrivals. The fraction of people who have arrived here within the last 2 years is an increasing proportion.

And, as I said earlier, the two major countries of origin are Korea and the Philippines. Neither of these countries has a particularly spectacular record on civil rights. I think, in general, that we are seeing the arrival of people who are not accustomed to a situation in which one can pursue one's civil rights, either within governmental agencies or otherwise.

It seems to me that one of the things we might do is to engage in helping these individuals learn what their civil rights in this country are; what their rights in general are; what the system is here in this State and the country—how it works; what sort of offices and agencies there are, and what they do.

This is very important, partly because we have a population of relatively low educational attainments and perhaps of relatively low sophistication in some respects. And to repeat a point which I think is very important, it's a population that is simply not accustomed to the notion of civil rights, at least in the two countries from which most of the immigrants are coming. I'm speaking especially of the recent past.

MS. PUTMAN. But they had some spirit of adventure to make the move.

MR. SMITH. One would think so, yes.

We can expect among other things much more severe problems in schools for these individuals than for the population as a whole. Partly, this is because of the illiteracy and the low educational level of the

parents and of the children and also because of the numbers of children per family. When we look at the age, sex, and ethnic composition of the school system, it proves to be very different, in a predictable way, from the ethnic composition of the population as a whole. There are disproportionately larger numbers of immigrants, especially in the Korean and Pilipino residential areas. I'm a little disappointed that we don't have more representation from the department of education at this hearing, because there is great importance in these matters.

Then there is the general question of job discrimination. None of the data we are presenting provide direct evidence of job discrimination. But they certainly raise the question of job discrimination among people who are accustomed to discriminatory practices in their own countries.

And one other kind of issue perhaps will illustrate the sorts of things that can come up. Looking again at the Pilipino population, one of the patterns one sees in this data, if we go back to the age-sex pyramids, is disproportionate numbers of older males and younger females. It is, demographically, a peculiar sort of age-sex structure. And in many instances, one sees this peculiar age-sex composition at the level of the family as well. We sometimes find an elderly man married to a substantially younger woman. When this couple has children it becomes, in essence, a three-generation family, though not in the usual sense of the three-generation family of grandparents, parents, and children.

This raises an issue that comes straight out of the demography of the situation. An elderly male parent has a much lower life expectancy than his much younger wife, partly because women live longer and partly because she is so much younger. Their children are very likely to become single-parent children before very long. They will likely be living with their mother alone, without a father. There are certainly social implications, I think, as well as civil rights implications in that kind of situation.

I simply use this to illustrate the ways in which the demographic structure of the population can give rise to social situations, which then may raise questions about social problems and perhaps civil rights problems.

MS. PUTMAN. Thank you very much, Dr. Smith.

Can we hear from Dr. Gardner now?

We will hold off our questions for you until both of you have made your presentations.

**TABLE 6****Immigrants Admitted to the United States by Selected Port of Entry, 1964–76**

<b>Ports of entry</b>	<b>1964</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>1966</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>1968</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>1970</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>1972</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>1974</b>	<b>%</b>	<b>1976</b>	<b>%</b>
Pacific	30,382	10.4	43,935	13.6	57,639	12.7	78,253	21.0	80,678	21.0	89,867	22.7	105,969	26.6
Agana, Guam	621	0.2	741	0.2	1,226	0.2	1,989	0.5	2,162	0.5	2,629	0.6	2,824	0.7
Honolulu, Hawaii	9,355	3.2	15,079	4.7	23,420	5.1	32,916	8.8	34,859	9.1	47,164	11.9	55,732	14.0
Los Angeles, Calif.	13,158	4.5	12,346	3.8	14,000	3.1	14,658	3.9	11,271	2.9	16,197	4.1	16,143	4.0
Portland, Oreg.	0	0.0	0	0.0	211	0.04	222	0.05	533	0.1	371	0.09	515	0.1
San Diego, Calif.	538	0.2	322	0.09	391	0.08	833	0.2	986	0.2	972	0.2	1,093	0.3
San Francisco, Calif.	3,172	1.1	30,036	3.1	8,543	1.9	15,306	4.1	19,388	5.0	15,314	3.9	19,313	4.8
Seattle, Wash.	3,385	1.2	5,323	1.6	9,452	2.1	11,887	3.2	11,458	2.9	7,166	1.8	10,311	2.6
Tacoma, Wash.	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	419	0.1	5	0.0	17	0.0	6	0.0
Other Pacific	153	0.05	88	0.02	607	0.1	23	0.006	16	0.0	37	0.0	32	0.0
Other ports	261,866	89.6	279,105	86.4	396,598	87.3	295,073	79.0	304,007	79.0	304,994	77.3	292,644	73.4
Total (All ports)	292,248	100.0	323,040	100.0	454,448	100.0	373,326	100.0	384,658	100.0	394,861	100.0	398,613	100.0

Sources: Data derived from U.S., Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service, annual reports, 1966, 1972, 1974, and 1976.

**TABLE 7****Immigrants by Selected Age (20–29 Years), Sex, and Country of Birth, 1964–76**

Percentage Percentage of all ages	ALL ORIGINS							PHILIPPINES					KOREA									
	1964	1966	1968	1970	1972	1974	1976	1964	1966	1968	1970	1972	1974	1976	1964	1966	1968	1970	1972	1974	1976	
Male	29.3	24.1	22.3	24.4	27.5	28.1	28.2	23.4	26.7	24.3	22.9	25.3	23.7	25.4	17.7	17.6	20.0	22.8	19.5	16.6	18.7	
Female	36.6	31.4	29.2	30.3	32.5	31.3	31.3	38.6	34.8	37.3	35.5	36.9	33.5	39.1	56.1	52.0	50.4	49.3	40.7	35.3	30.4	
<b>Sex Ratio</b>																						
Ages 20–29	.609	.598	.598	.727	.744	.787	.779	.325	.539	.485	.478	.456	.466	.516	.075	.106	.165	.225	.296	.311	.329	
All ages	.760	.779	.784	.901	.876	.877	.865	.536	.705	.743	.742	.664	.658	.714	.237	.314	.415	.169	.619	.662	.536	

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And one other kind of issue perhaps will illustrate the sorts of things that can come up. Looking again at the Pilipino population, one of the patterns one sees in this data, if we go back to the age-sex pyramids, is disproportionate numbers of older males and younger females. It is, demographically, a peculiar sort of age-sex structure. And in many instances, one sees this peculiar age-sex composition at the level of the family as well. We sometimes find an elderly man married to a substantially younger woman. When this couple has children it becomes, in essence, a three-generation family, though not in the usual sense of the three-generation family of grandparents, parents, and children.

This raises an issue that comes straight out of the demography of the situation. An elderly male parent has a much lower life expectancy than his much younger wife, partly because women live longer and partly because she is so much younger. Their children are very likely to become single-parent children before very long. They will likely be living with their mother alone, without a father. There are certainly social implications, I think, as well as civil rights implications in that kind of situation.

I simply use this to illustrate the ways in which the demographic structure of the population can give rise to social situations, which then may raise questions about social problems and perhaps civil rights problems.

MS. PUTMAN. Thank you very much, Dr. Smith.

Can we hear from Dr. Gardner now?

We will hold off our questions for you until both of you have made your presentations.

## 4. Comparative Analysis of Pilipinos in Hawaii

Presentation of Robert W. Gardner\*

If you haven't had enough numbers, I'm going to give you a few more. This will be very descriptive, just like Dr. Smith's presentation, with emphasis on Pilipinos, comparing them with other ethnic groups first, then focusing on groups within the Pilipino community, especially the immigrants with emphasis on the recent immigrants. I'm defining an immigrant as anyone who has a foreign place of birth.

Something Peter Smith didn't mention is that in 1975 the U.S. Office of Economic Opportunity [OEO] conducted what is called a "census update survey of the islands of Maui, Hawaii, and Oahu." Kauai had a separate survey in 1974. The data I will present are from this OEO survey and refer just to the Island of Oahu or the Honolulu metropolitan area, so I do not have data for the State as a whole. These are sample figures, and as Bob Schmitt mentioned, they do not have validity in the same way that the census does, especially when you get to groups with small numbers. Thus, they may not be as accurate for the State or for a specific group as if you were to do a complete census and ask the same questions. By and large though, the figures for Oahu probably represent the State to a good extent, and we think the groupings we examined are large enough for the data to be valid.

One point to keep in mind as I go along: whenever you have a summary measure for a group, such as an average for Pilipinos or Chinese, this measure may be affected by the age distribution of that popula-

tion. For instance, you might have Pilipinos and Chinese making the same amount of money at every age, but if the Pilipinos had an age distribution concentrated at the older ages, where incomes tend to be lower, and you calculated the average income for both Pilipinos and Chinese, you would get a higher average income for the Chinese because they had more people in the high-income, young adult ages.

Let's begin the discussion with a few facts: the Honolulu metropolitan area and Honolulu City ranked first among all metropolitan areas and cities in the country in terms of the number of Pilipinos in 1970. Hawaii, as a State, had 20 percent of all the Pilipinos in the United States. How many Pilipinos we have exactly is hard to tell because of the problems of ethnic definition. Using the census definition, there are probably over 100,000. This includes both immigrants and local born.

OEO's definition involved a self-evaluation. People were asked what ethnic group they belonged to, and they replied to that. Using this definition, Oahu had about 70,000 Pilipinos in 1975, just over 10 percent of the total population of Oahu. [See table 1.]<sup>1</sup> Looking at the foreign born, we see that 42 percent of all the foreign-born people in the State were Pilipinos as of 1975, and of all the Pilipinos in the State, over half were foreign born. [See table 2.] The Pilipinos thus dominated the immigrant situa-

Planning, University of the Philippines, Manila, and were prepared while he was a senior fellow at the East-West Population Institute. All of the tables are based upon data collected by the Office of Economic Opportunity, for the 1975 census update survey of Oahu.

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<sup>1</sup> Tables in Dr. Gardner's presentation are taken from two papers being prepared for publication by the East-West Population Institute. The papers are authored by Dr. Benjamin Carino of the Institute of Environmental

tion in Hawaii whether you look at it from one direction or another.

Where do the Filipinos live on the Island of Oahu? They tend to cluster in two or three places. They are found more than anywhere else in the Kalihi-Palama area and also in an area which we have defined as Waipahu-Ewa. [See table 3.] These areas are interesting because not only do Filipinos cluster in these areas, but foreign-born Filipinos cluster in these areas. [See table 4.]

What I want to do now is to go through different groupings of Filipinos and examine their employment status, their occupational status, their income, and their education focusing on these four as indicators of social status.

Regarding employment, people who want to have a job and don't have one, Filipinos in 1975 showed low levels of unemployment. Filipinos looking for jobs on Oahu find them, and their rate of unemployment is less than average for the island as a whole. That sounds like an indication of high status because unemployment is low. But if we then ask what kinds of jobs Filipinos are in, using the classification called professional, technical, and management or the occupations at the top of the list, Filipinos have a relatively low proportion of workers in these occupations. Also, in other white-collar occupations, such as clerical and sales, Filipinos tend to have relatively few people. So, although there are few unemployed among the Filipinos, there are few employed in the higher occupational levels, the higher paying jobs.

If we next look at educational levels of the Filipinos on Oahu, these levels tend to be slightly lower than those of other ethnic groups and for the total island. We have low unemployment, low occupational status, and an educational level slightly below average, and this comes to a head in the incomes of the different ethnic groups on the island. In spite of low unemployment, the Filipinos as a group, including immigrants and local born, have low incomes. Filipinos are concentrated in the low-paying jobs and their incomes are below those for the average island income for most other groups on the island. [See table 5.]

Now, if we look at migration status, focusing on Filipinos as a group and not comparing them with other ethnic groups but comparing them within themselves, we can go through the same four topics of unemployment, occupation, education, and in-

come and see how they rank according to migration status.

As far as unemployment is concerned, it seems that foreign born have lower unemployment than the local born. This is true of almost all of the areas of residence and for both sexes. [See table 6.] Now, you may wonder why the local born seem to have more trouble finding a job than the foreign born. And the answer seems to be similar to the answer we had when we compared Filipinos with non-Filipinos: the local-born Filipinos do not seem to be as satisfied with the lower paying or lower status jobs. The immigrants who come need to get a job right away, and they do not necessarily get a high-status job. So unemployment is low among the foreign born, but so is job status.

If we look at the median years of schooling for the Filipinos of different migration statuses, we find that the educational status of foreign-born migrants is lower than the local born. [See table 7.] So the migrants who come here find jobs quickly but seem to have lower educational status.

This brings up an important point: considering all the migrants together is risky, just as considering them without any age breakdown is risky. In the case of education, we have had different waves of Filipino migrants, some who came here with a very low average education. However, the more recent migrants have had much higher levels of education. The all-migrant average thus conceals the fact that the more recent migrants to Hawaii or Oahu have had much more education than the earlier migrants. We will get into that more in a minute.

As a result of the experience of the foreign-born Filipinos in the State, their income is much below the income of the local-born Filipinos. [See table 8.] So they rank okay on unemployment, but they are poorly off with regard to job status, education, and income. If you wish to make a generalization with regard to employment and income in the State, I don't have any reason to suspect that these results would be any different for the other islands.

I want to make a few points about how Filipino migrants compare with other groups, basically from Asia. Again, the Filipinos have low unemployment compared with other Asian immigrants. But again, they have low occupational status compared to other immigrants and low education and low income. So compared to the other Asian immigrants who have settled on Oahu, the Filipinos seem to be worst off. However, we are talking about all



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**TABLE 1****Total Population of Oahu by Ethnicity, 1975**

<b>Ethnic group</b>	<b>Percent distribution</b>	<b>Maui</b>	<b>Hawaii</b>
Black	1.4%	0.1%	0.2%
Caucasian	27.8	21.3	14.6
Portuguese	2.6	4.4	7.5
Chinese	5.6	0.7	1.3
Pilipino	10.2	15.3	9.5
Hawaiian	0.8	1.6	2.1
Part-Hawaiian	14.4	21.4	23.2
Japanese	24.5	25.1	30.4
Korean	1.5	0.3	0.3
Puerto Rican	0.6	0.4	0.9
Samoa	1.0	0.1	0.2
Mixed	8.2	8.6	8.8
Other	1.4	0.7	0.6
Total	100.0		
Sample no.	33,029		
Est. study pop.	676,365	59,661	74,700

Source: This table and all others in the presentation are based upon data collected by the 1975 Office of Economic Opportunity census update survey of Oahu. (See footnote 1.)

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**TABLE 2****Foreign-Born Population of Oahu by Ethnicity, 1975'**

<b>Ethnic Group</b>	<b>Estimated total population</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Foreign-born Population % of ethnic group</b>	<b>% of all foreign born</b>
Black	9,237	144	1.6	0.2
Caucasian	188,416	11,701	6.2	13.2
Portuguese	17,621	269	1.5	0.3
Chinese	37,997	7,480	19.7	8.4
Pilipino	68,760	37,262	54.2	42.0
Hawaiian	5,889	0	0.0	0.0
Part-Hawaiian	97,284	982	1.0	1.1
Japanese	166,328	16,461	9.9	18.6
Korean	9,838	4,712	47.9	5.3
Puerto Rican	3,789	216	5.7	0.2
Samoan	6,440	938	14.6	1.1
Mixed	55,447	4,834	8.7	5.4
Other	9,319	3,770	40.5	4.2
Total	676,365	88,769	13.1	100.0
Sample no.	33,029	4,250		

Source: U.S., Office of Economic Opportunity, census update survey of Oahu, 1975.

**TABLE 3****Pilipinos on Oahu by District of Residence, 1975**

Number of Pilipinos	OEO DISTRICTS		Estimated 1975 popula- tion	Esti- mated num- ber	PILIPINOS Propor- tion of Pilipinos to the dist. pop.	Percent distrib- ution
	Name	No.				
10,000+	Kalihi-Kapalama	11	29,947	10,616	35.4%	15.7%
6,000-9,999	Upper Kalihi	10	30,180	8,974	29.7	13.3
	Waipahu	16	30,022	7,623	25.4	11.3
3,000-5,999	Mililani-Waipio	19	32,005	5,697	17.8	8.4
	Ewa-Makakilo	17	20,578	4,866	23.6	7.2
	Moanalua-Salt Lake	12	40,741	4,242	10.4	6.3
1,000-2,999	Waianae Coast	18	26,926	3,114	11.6	4.6
	N. Shore-Waialua	21	13,675	3,041	22.2	4.5
	Wahiawa-Schofield	20	32,935	2,688	8.2	4.0
	Downtown-Kakaako	08	17,729	2,634	14.9	3.9
	Aiea-Halawa	13	23,000	2,138	9.3	3.2
	Moiliili-Makiki	06	38,793	1,985	5.1	2.9
	Pearl Harbor	15	20,425	1,915	9.4	2.8
	Pearl City	14	28,418	1,632	5.7	2.4
500-999	Kaneohe	23	41,620	1,627	3.9	2.4
	Waimanalo	25	8,435	966	11.5	1.4
	Nuuanu-Punchbowl	09	26,174	783	3.0	1.2
	Upper Windward	22	17,205	592	3.4	0.9
	Manoa-Makiki	05	40,453	577	1.4	0.9
Less than 500	Kailua	24	40,722	450	1.1	0.7
	Kaimuki-Kapahulu	03	27,775	418	1.5	0.6
	Waikiki	07	17,096	292	1.7	0.4
	Wilhelmina-Palolo	04	24,459	267	1.1	0.4
	Aina-Haina	01	26,191	201	0.1	0.3
	Waialae-Kahala	02	18,795	162	0.1	0.2
Total			646,524	67,499	10.4	100.0
Sample no.			33,080	3,690		

Source: U.S., Office of Economic Opportunity, census update survey of Oahu, 1975.

**TABLE 4****Birthplace of Pilipinos on Oahu by Place of Residence, 1975**

Place of birth	Place of Residence				Total
	Kalihi-Palama	Waipahu-Ewa	Other Honolulu	Other Oahu	
Oahu	29.8	40.4	25.9	43.6	36.0
Other country	65.8	53.6	59.2	42.9	54.3
Other U.S.	4.4	6.0	15.0	13.5	9.8
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Sample no.	951	837	405	1,478	3,671
Est. total no.	19,679	12,498	11,820	24,776	68,764

Source: U.S., Office of Economic Opportunity, census update survey of Oahu, 1975.

**TABLE 5****Median Income of Employed Oahu Residents 14 Years Old and Over by Ethnicity and Sex, 1975**

Ethnicity	Male	Female	Both sexes	Sample no.	Est. total no.
Black	\$ 6,986	\$4,446	\$5,554	63	1,353
Caucasian	13,619	5,512	8,708	2,703	49,770
Portuguese	10,986	4,987	9,179	359	6,516
Chinese	12,766	5,859	9,351	854	15,306
Pilipino	9,053	4,660	6,554	1,422	24,828
Hawaiian	11,687	3,831	8,455	125	2,312
Part-Hawaiian	10,504	5,094	8,000	1,515	25,517
Japanese	12,124	6,556	9,234	4,162	74,704
Korean	11,974	6,387	8,389	177	2,825
Puerto Rican	10,205	1,814	8,080	58	908
Samoan	8,167	5,029	5,756	79	1,215
Mixed	9,795	5,202	6,880	575	9,919
Other	11,000	5,840	7,520	104	1,913
Total	11,545	5,683	8,396	12,196	217,081

Source: U.S., Office of Economic Opportunity, census update survey of Oahu, 1975.

**TABLE 6****Percentage of Unemployed Pilipinos in Labor Force 14 Years Old and Over by Migration Status, Place of Residence, and Sex, 1975**

Migration status/sex	Place of Residence				Total
	Kalihi-Palama	Waipahu-Ewa	Other Honolulu	Other Oahu	
<b>Male</b>					
Nonmigrants	0.0%	3.6%	16.9%	9.7%	9.0%
Foreign born	4.3	2.8	6.7	2.6	4.1
All migrants	3.9	3.3	5.5	2.0	3.6
Total	3.5	3.4	8.4	4.3	4.8
<b>Female</b>					
Nonmigrants	13.7	2.6	14.0	14.7	12.3
Foreign born	5.7	5.8	23.7	10.4	10.1
All migrants	5.3	5.1	21.8	10.3	10.0
Total	6.5	4.2	19.5	11.7	10.5
<b>Both sexes</b>					
Nonmigrants	7.4	3.2	15.6	12.0	10.5
Foreign born	4.9	3.9	12.7	6.0	6.5
All migrants	4.5	3.9	11.8	5.6	6.3
Total	4.8	3.7	12.8	7.4	7.3

Source: U.S., Office of Economic Opportunity, census update survey of Oahu, 1975.

**TABLE 7****Median Highest Grade Attained by Pilipinos on Oahu 25 Years Old and Over by Migration Status, Place of Residence, and Sex in Percent, 1975**

Migration status/sex	Kalihi-Palama	Waipahu-Ewa	Other Honolulu	Other Oahu	Total
<b>Male</b>					
Nonmigrants	12.0	12.0	12.0	12.0	12.0
Foreign born	6.2	7.2	8.7	8.8	7.7
All migrants	6.6	7.6	9.8	9.8	8.4
Total	6.8	9.4	12.0	11.4	9.8
Sample no.	262	226	143	411	1,042
Est. total no.	5,562	3,393	4,148	6,960	20,064
<b>Female</b>					
Nonmigrants	12.0	12.0	12+	12.0	12.0
Foreign born	8.5	8.8	12.0	12.0	10.2
All migrants	8.7	11.1	12.0	12.0	11.3
Total	9.5	12.0	12.0	12.0	12.0
Sample no.	226	190	98	359	873
Est. total no.	4,722	2,870	2,982	6,014	16,588
<b>Both sexes</b>					
Nonmigrants	12.0	12.0	12.0	12.0	12.0
Foreign born	7.1	7.7	9.0	10.3	8.5
All migrants	7.5	8.2	12.0	11.0	9.0
Total	7.9	10.2	12.0	12.0	11.2
Sample no.	488	416	241	770	1,915
Est. total no.	10,284	6,263	7,130	12,974	36,652

Source: U.S., Office of Economic Opportunity, census update survey of Oahu, 1975.

**TABLE 8****Median Income of Employed Pilipinos on Oahu 14 Years Old and Over by Migration Status, Place of Residence, and Sex, 1975**

Migration status/sex	Kalihi-Palama	Waipahu-Ewa	Other Honolulu	Other Oahu	Total
<b>Male</b>					
Nonmigrants	\$6,756	\$10,524	\$9,488	\$10,479	\$ 9,757
Foreign born	8,000	8,960	6,970	8,989	8,529
All migrants	8,108	9,266	7,628	9,506	8,896
Total	7,838	9,660	8,277	9,711	9,091
Sample no.	214	164	94	285	757
Est. total no.	4,377	2,369	2,739	4,916	14,401
<b>Female</b>					
Nonmigrants	\$5,144	\$5,932	\$4,922	\$4,459	\$ 5,225
Foreign born	4,066	4,736	4,133	5,000	4,441
All migrants	4,083	4,650	4,471	5,071	4,497
Total	4,160	5,084	4,634	5,006	4,613
Sample no.	167	102	52	203	524
Est. total no.	3,404	1,532	1,557	3,597	10,091
<b>Both sexes</b>					
Nonmigrants	\$5,539	\$8,263	\$7,945	\$6,889	\$ 7,102
Foreign born	5,496	6,922	6,195	6,427	6,111
All migrants	5,593	7,058	6,365	6,711	6,362
Total	5,580	7,514	6,623	6,786	6,516
Sample no.	381	266	146	488	1,281
Est. total no.	7,781	3,901	4,296	8,513	24,492

Source: U.S., Office of Economic Opportunity, census update survey of Oahu, 1975.

**TABLE 9****Percentage of Unemployed Among Foreign-Born Pilipinos in the Labor Force 14 Years Old and Over by Years in Hawaii and Sex, 1975**

<b>YEARS IN HAWAII</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Both sexes</b>
0-7 years	6.8	13.0	9.6
8-29 years	1.2	5.7	3.2
30 yrs. and over	1.1	0.0	0.9
Total	4.1	10.0	6.5

Source: U.S., Office of Economic Opportunity, census update survey of Oahu, 1975.

Pilipinos, again, and this group contains a large number of older, first-wave migrants.

As I mentioned, some of the migrants came here long ago and are now old. Others have just arrived and these tend to be much younger and of a different background, less rural, more urban, more professional than the early immigrants. So if you make comparisons among the migrants, you will find some strong differences and something which gives us more information about what the future might hold. We can look at the more recent migrants and say, "The migrants who will come might be more like that." Thus, what we can look at finally is a comparison within the foreign-born population by number of years on the island.

Unemployment: the most recent migrants, those who had been here for fewer than 7 years before the survey, basically the ones who came since the migration laws have changed, have high unemployment. [See table 9.] They are not getting jobs as quickly as it seems from the earlier comparisons. The people who have been here longer have much lower unemployment, and the people from the earliest wave have almost no unemployment whatsoever.

What kinds of jobs do the migrants have? The recent migrants, the ones who had come during the last 7 years, do not have many people in the top rank, in the professional, technical, and managerial group. [See table 10.] The middle group, those who came fewer than 30 years ago but not recently, have the higher proportion in the highest status jobs. Time on the island is thus, seemingly, an important factor. These older immigrants probably worked their way up. But even so, the highest ranking Pilipino immigrants are still underrepresented in the

higher status jobs. They are still much lower on an average, even the ones who have made it best in the State, those who have been here 10 or 15 years. This is also true with regard to income, at least for males. The highest income group is the middle group of migrants, the ones who have arrived not recently but were not part of the agricultural wave. [See table 11.] Again, it looks like the early migrants have had a chance to get established and become what is sometimes called adapted. The more recent migrants are still having problems getting into the upper level jobs.

As noted earlier, the educational level of the most recent Pilipino migrants is higher than that of the previous waves. [See table 12.] They come here with more education and they may get even more after they arrive here. They are still in the lower paying jobs, in the lower status jobs, but the figures seem to indicate that, given more time in the State to adapt and work their way up, they will probably rise on the social ladder and eventually become better off than the ones who have been here a longer time.

That's going through unemployment, occupation, education, and income very quickly. Let me summarize a little bit about this.

As far as unemployment is concerned, Pilipinos don't seem to suffer very much, whether they are migrants or nonmigrants. The worst off are, in this case, the local born because they are not willing to take the same kind of jobs that the recent migrants will when they arrive.

As far as occupation is concerned, all Pilipinos show an underrepresentation in the professional, technical, and managerial classes. The ones who have been born in the State are best off in this regard.



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**TABLE 10****Percentage of Employed Foreign-Born Pilipinos 14 Years Old and Over in Professional/Clerical Occupations by Years in Hawaii and Sex, 1975**

Years in Hawaii	Professional/technical/ management			Clerical/sales		
	Male	Female	Both sexes	Male	Female	Both sexes
0-7 years	8.5	13.6	10.7	7.2	25.0	15.0
8-29 years	11.1	17.4	13.8	7.1	21.0	13.1
30 years. and over	9.5	2.7	8.3	4.2	17.0	6.6
Total	9.4	14.1	11.3	6.6	23.2	13.2

Source: U.S., Office of Economic Opportunity, census update survey of Oahu, 1975.

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**TABLE 11****Median Income of Employed Pilipino Immigrants on Oahu 14 Years Old and Over by Sex and Years in Hawaii, 1975**

Years in Hawaii	Male	Female	Both sexes	Sample no.	Estimated total no.
0-7 years	\$ 7,183	\$4,169	\$5,349	430	8,753
8-29 years	10,280	4,837	7,127	267	4,871
30 yrs and over	9,078	5,035	7,989	107	2,107
Total	8,529	4,441	6,111	804	15,730

Source: U.S., Office of Economic Opportunity, census update survey of Oahu, 1975.

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**TABLE 12****Median Highest Grade Attained by Foreign-Born Pilipinos by Sex and Years in Hawaii, 1975**

<b>Years in Hawaii</b>	<b>Male</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Both sexes</b>	<b>Sample no.</b>	<b>Estimated total no.</b>
0-7 years	12.0	12.0	12.0	1,052	11,827
8-29 years	11.2	9.4	10.5	448	6,728
30 yrs. and over	4.7	5.7	4.9	387	7,301
Total	7.7	10.2	8.5	1,887	25,856

Source: U.S., Office of Economic Opportunity, census update survey of Oahu, 1975.

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In education, Pilipinos, except for the most recent immigrants, tend to show a slight deficit, but the differentials here are not really strong. However, Pilipinos have very low incomes. It is lowest of all for the recent immigrants, but we can expect this to rise because of their educational level.

By these standards, then, Pilipinos, regardless of their immigration status or of how long they have been here, stand low on the socioeconomic ladder. A lot of this is influenced by the fact that we have a

lot of recent immigrants here. But even those who were born here or who have been here a long time are still underrepresented in the higher status occupations and have lower income.

In addition, Pilipino immigrants rank low among all Asian immigrants. Whether we use income or proportion in the higher status occupations, we find that, almost without exception, no Pilipino group comes really close to the island's mean with regard to these measures.

# 5. The Immigration and Naturalization Service and Civil Liberties in Hawaii

## Presentation of Reinhard Mohr\*

I have been asked by the sponsors of this consultation to address myself to four questions, all dealing with a civil libertarian's viewpoint of the Immigration and Naturalization Service, and I'll try as much as possible to limit myself to that narrow, defined topic. I'm not going to spend much time in talking about the discrimination of aliens in employment, either private or public or in social services or in schools. I was instructed to address some of the civil liberties problems in the immigration law and practices of the Immigration and Naturalization Service. I'll also talk about due process problems with some of the practices of the Immigration and Naturalization Service. I also think that equal protection problems arise. Finally, I'm going to address some of the Carter administration's proposals on alien immigration.

One caveat at the outset, I'm not an immigration lawyer and have no expertise in immigration law. I will approach the problem only from a civil liberties standpoint in applying some of these principles to the practices of the Immigration and Naturalization Service. Some of my research encompasses practices of the Immigration and Naturalization Service across the country.

Hawaii is fortunate in a sense. I have been in personal contact with the immigration office, and all the visits have been fairly positive and the personnel have been helpful. I think we are fortunate to have a fairly humane and enlightened district office here.

So some of my harsher comments will relate to past practices in certain parts of the country, such as

the Southwest and, historically, on some of the practices engaged in by the Immigration and Naturalization Service, most notable through the fifties and McCarthy era.

I am sort of grateful for being asked to speak on the subject. Grateful in the sense that I have learned a lot, and ungrateful in that it's going to make a lot more work for the American Civil Liberties Union and me for having learned this.

What I'm talking about specifically is, during my research, I came upon the astounding fact that there is in the State of Hawaii no free legal service to speak of for indigent aliens. Now this I'm going to discuss in the context of due process and equal protection problems.

I was assisted in doing some of this research by an attorney, or a potential attorney, named Maile Huvar. She interviewed the deputy district director of the Immigration Service on the problem.

The Immigration Service has a list of three organizations to which they refer indigent aliens. The first one is the Legal Aid Society. In checking with the Legal Aid Society, we found out that there was one attorney, approximately 2 years ago, who was assigned clients with immigration problems. Since that time there has been no attorney assigned to immigration problems.

The blame for this was put on the client council, which is an advisory body to the Legal Aid Society. It establishes the priorities for the Legal Aid Society and immigration was of very low priority. So the Legal Aid Society decided to eliminate the intake of

\* Mr. Reinhard Mohr is an attorney in private practice in Honolulu. At the time of the consultation, Mr. Mohr was executive director, American Civil Liberties Union of Hawaii.

these kinds of problems altogether. When Legal Aid gets inquiries from aliens, they continue to refer the aliens to the bar association or a referral service.

The immigration bar of Hawaii consists of approximately seven attorneys. Again, Deputy District Attorney Brown said, in his memory, he can only remember one time that a member of a private immigration bar handled a *pro bono*, which means for the public good. Only one time they handled a case for free for an alien client.

The third and final organization that was listed at the Immigration and Naturalization Service on the referral list was the Immigration Services Center, which apparently is a part of the Kalihi-Palama settlement. Gary Omori, the director there, said no one of the staff is qualified to advise clients, although they do provide translation services.

That leaves us with a rather sorry situation in the State of Hawaii, because aliens, indigent or not, have two choices, either to represent themselves or to hire a private attorney. Of course, most aliens can't afford the luxury of hiring private attorneys. In my paper, I have some facts on some of the prices charged by the immigration bar for such services as deportation hearings, applications for visas, and various other functions. They are prices which I suspect most aliens could not afford.

Now does this necessarily raise a due process problem? I maintain that it does. One, the right to counsel is recognized by the immigration authorities and has been held to exist by various court decisions. Now that means you have a right to bring a lawyer to the hearing. That doesn't mean that they are going to provide you with a lawyer if you can't afford one. For indigent aliens, that means that no free legal services exist if he or she cannot afford a private attorney. There's no legal recourse for the indigent alien. This seems to be a blatant violation of the due process clause.

Secondly, the equal protection element enters insofar as the indigent, the alien indigent, therefore, is one of two classes of people. One class is those who can't afford services; the other class is those who can. By placing this onerous burden on indigent aliens, you have discriminated against them in violation of the equal protection clause.

MS. PUTMAN. May I interrupt you?

MR. MOHR. Sure.

MS. PUTMAN. Is this situation of providing counsel for the indigent taken care of by any jurisdiction that you are aware of?

MR. MOHR. Yes. There are free legal services in other jurisdictions. In the paper, you will notice I cited recently decided cases. I really don't want to get into a lot of these.

MS. PUTMAN. Yes.

MR. MOHR. But one case comes out of California. A Federal district court decided that it would be mandatory for the Immigration and Naturalization Service to advise the indigent clients of the availability of free legal services.

MS. PUTMAN. Is that a State responsibility or a Federal responsibility?

MR. MOHR. That's an interesting question, and it's an unsettled question. Here you run into the problem of saying, "Well, it's no one's responsibility in a sense, and it's everyone's responsibility."

Then comes the question, "How can you force either the State or the Federal Government to exercise that duty and responsibility?" And as far as the State is concerned, you run into the problem of the 14th amendment due process and equal protection clauses. Those provisions only come into play when you have some State involvement or action, and how are you going to show that? In immigration problems, by definition and by case law, it has been deemed an aspect of national sovereignty, and Federal law preempts it.

So I think you'd have a very good case in suing the Federal Government to provide this kind of free service because you could beat the Federal Government through the fifth amendment, the due process law, and court cases which have ruled on due process and equal protection as well.

MS. PUTMAN. I'm sorry for interrupting.

MR. MOHR. So there is no statute that says the Federal Government or the State should provide free legal services. But I think it's a dereliction of both cases, the State and the Federal Governments, not to do so, especially the State. There is no good reason at all for either or both not to provide free legal services for indigent aliens.

Getting back to the Legal Aid Society, I can see setting a system of priorities according to the clients' needs expressed by the clients. But you have the unique situation of aliens: they have no political power; they can't vote; and especially if you are talking about aliens' legal problems, more often than not they are here illegally. So you are not going to get as much political lobbying from a group that is totally disenfranchised and politically powerless.

There really isn't any spokesperson in this community to speak for this group of people.

Now possible solutions: one suggestion has been to pressure the Immigration and Naturalization Service to establish an adjunct wing of the Immigration and Naturalization Service that would be independent, similarly to the way you have the public defender's office now as part of the criminal justice system. It's funded by the State, but it's independent. Its only duty is to its clients, supposedly, and there is no reason at all why the Immigration and Naturalization Service can't provide that kind of legal service.

That's one possibility. Another possibility is the Legal Aid Society picking up the ball again.

There are other suggestions that have come out in the literature. The New York district just instituted the ombudsman type of thing. An ombudsman, if not providing legal services, could facilitate representation because he or she could act as a liaison between attorneys and the Service. The office could act as a referral service for legal services and a variety of social services.

Some jurisdictions have had a limited success with lay advocates. The problem you run into with lay advocates is holding them to a standard of professional responsibility and integrity. I don't know how prevalent the practice is here in Hawaii. But on the mainland, especially in areas of large concentrations of aliens, you have a large number of immigrant counselors who are not competent and are highly unethical. There is notable success with lay counselors in the area of draft counseling and in the area of consumer counseling and there are paralegals who have proved to be successful.

There is no reason at all why this State can't experiment with social workers or with people who are in charitable religious organizations. Here again, this would not be a substitute for adequate legal representation, but as a complement to legal representation.

An entirely independent organization could be formed. Two or 3 years ago, the Legal Aid Society and some other organization and individuals got together and formed the Hawaii Correctional Legal Services program, which now handles litigation and administratively represents prisoners. So Legal Aid doesn't handle civil suits for prisoners anymore. It is all handled by a separate entity called Hawaii Correctional Legal Services. And there is no reason at all why you couldn't establish an independent

organization to handle nothing but immigration problems. I can see the advantage that it would have, as its sole focus would be immigration problems and the problems of aliens.

Just a few statistics from the Immigration and Naturalization Service Deputy District Director Brown—I found out that Hawaii has an estimated 360 deportation hearings a year. He estimates that about one-third of those are indigent aliens; that's about 130. This is only deportation hearings; it does not include other types of proceedings before the Immigration and Naturalization Service.

So the number of people who go into the proceedings without benefit of counsel is probably significantly higher, and I think any practitioner in the area of immigration law will attest to the phenomenal complexity of the immigration law. The only counterpart, I think, is tax law. It's equally as complicated.

We are starting from the well-established premise that the U.S. Constitution applies to aliens as well as citizens—with few minor exceptions to citizens, such as the holding of various constitutional offices. But every other provision in the Constitution just talks about persons or it talks about the accused. There is no distinction made between citizens and aliens. The courts have consistently held that there's no good reason to deny adequate legal representation to this group of people.

The dilemma lies elsewhere. For example, deportation hearings are not classified as a punishment. They are not criminal proceedings. They are civil proceedings, and therefore, you don't have the sixth amendment, the right to counsel, coming into play and all the procedural safeguards and the right to an appointed counsel at the government's expense and all the other phenomenal safeguards that are accorded suspects and defendants in the justice system.

If an alien is accused of a wrongdoing, the penalty for the alien is very harsh. There have been cases where aliens have resided here 20 and 30 years, and for some reason their status comes into question or they get caught smoking marijuana or they turn out to be homosexual or a variety of other prohibited types of behavior as defined by the immigration laws, and they are faced with deportation and there are some sad, sad stories involved.

In summary, I'm just flabbergasted that there is no legal representation for indigent aliens. There is a large group of aliens.

If anything comes out of these hearings, this project on immigration, I sincerely urge that that problem get very high priority because the legal needs of the aliens are infinitely more complex than others. There is no doubt that constitutional protection applies to aliens as well, even though it is not so in practice. It's a group largely overlooked in terms of legal representation. It's a travesty. It's a travesty of justice in this State that that kind of a situation exists.

The Immigration and Nationality Act is a nightmare for a civil libertarian. Some of the practices of the Immigration and Naturalization Service are also. Almost any way you look, you run into a civil liberty problem. I wouldn't even know where to start. You have warrantless arrests. You have evidence of illegal arrests introduced. There is some question regarding the *Miranda* warning and if it applies to aliens that are detained. The entire area is riddled with civil liberty problems and violations of constitutional rights.

There is a limit to which you can blame the Immigration and Naturalization Service. A New York Bar Association study concluded, rather sadly, that some of these practices are, as a matter of fact, legal. What we need is a complete reanalysis, a reevaluation of the immigration laws and practices of the Immigration and Naturalization Service.

Let me just briefly dispose of my reaction to the Carter administration proposals. Many of them are commendable. Probably the most enlightened of the proposals is to provide additional economic assistance to those countries from which most illegal aliens come.

Obviously the most numerous illegal aliens are from Mexico.<sup>1</sup> Here in Hawaii, we have heard evidence on Pilipino immigrants and southeast Asian immigrants.

Another proposal of the Carter administration's package includes allowing illegal aliens who have entered the country prior to January 1, 1970, to become permanent resident aliens. That is commendable. The only problem, from my viewpoint, is that it doesn't go quite far enough.

A second proposal is to create a new class of temporary aliens who are illegal aliens that come into this country prior to January 1, 1977. I think it's not outlandish to suggest a complete amnesty for illegal aliens who are present in this country, and

then concentrate, henceforth, on the problem of the illegal aliens who are still coming in from this point on.

The one proposal that I take the most exception to is the proposal to put the burden of determining the status of aliens on the employers of the aliens. At first, this may sound like a very good prospect. It's humanitarian, but it is doubtful, actually, whether it's going to achieve its objectives.

The major problem is dishonest and unscrupulous employers who continue to hire illegal aliens. Employers who are trying to abide by the law will be overcautious. That will lead to additional discrimination against minority racial and ethnic groups. An employer could be faced with stiff civil penalties and ultimately could be faced with criminal penalties. He is going to be extremely cautious in hiring people who look like foreigners or aliens or Spanish Americans, and it's going to create a large market of forged documents. The employer will never be quite certain whether it's an illegal alien or not that he is hiring, and a lot of employers will not—when faced with that risk and given the choice—they will not hire people of any minority racial or ethnic background.

There are other proposals in the Carter administration package that are really not objectionable and are not particularly commendable either.

Let me turn now to the State's attempt to limit its population growth and the passage of the residency law. I want to talk about the impact on the aliens. If you recall, in the 1977 legislative session, the State legislature passed a 1-year durational residency requirement. A similar requirement of a 3-year duration was struck down by the court in 1972. Despite advice by the attorney general's office and some good legal opinion that the law is unconstitutional, it was passed anyway.

The American Civil Liberties Union challenged it in court and the Federal district court agreed with us that it is an unconstitutional infringement on the right to travel.

MS. PUTMAN. Could you cite the citation for that?

MR. MOHR. For that case?

MS. PUTMAN. Yes.

MR. MOHR. I don't think it's been published yet. It's *Nehring v. Ariyoshi*.

<sup>1</sup> The number of nationalities of illegal aliens residing in the United States is currently unknown. According to the 1976 annual report from the

Immigration and Naturalization Service, most of the illegal aliens that INS officers apprehend are from Mexico.

But more importantly than the infringement on the right to travel as it affects aliens, it would require anyone recently arriving in the State, whether they are newcomers from the mainland or foreign-born aliens, a waiting period of 1 year for them to be eligible for public employment.

In the history of this country, the government has always been a means, an avenue for racial and ethnic minorities to become integrated economically, culturally, and socially. To ask an alien arbitrarily to wait an entire year before he or she is eligible for public employment is putting a tremendous financial burden on them. And in essence, it's a violation of the equal protection clause of the U.S. Constitution because then you create two classes of people: people who have been here a year or more, and people who have been here a year or less.

The courts have continuously held that you cannot discriminate against aliens, especially in light of the fact that the courts have declared aliens a group in need of special protection. There is a strict judicial standard that is applied to aliens.<sup>2</sup>

You had the State director of personnel services on the stand at the committee hearings, when this bill was introduced, saying that the durational residence requirement will have a minimum effect in terms of population growth in the State of Hawaii.

In the 1978 session, the legislature passed a law which would give a preference to the residents of the State of Hawaii—a hiring preference which would have given them, all other things being equal, an edge over new arrivals. It would give that to residents who have filed State income tax returns. Now, you cannot come to the State of Hawaii in 1978 and file a 1978 income tax return. You have to wait until 1979. So there is a possibility that one would have to wait an entire year to file your income tax return before you are eligible for this kind of preference for employment.

Just in defense of our organization, we are not opposed to limiting growth. As a matter of fact, most of the people in our organization would applaud it. But you cannot do that at the immigrants' and migrants' expense. Once you start compromising in certain constitutional principles, you've opened the door and set a very dangerous precedent.

I think the attempt to pass the durational residency law was a popular measure, but it is impractical, it's unworkable, and on top of that, it's unconstitu-

tional. It costs the State a lot of money to fight it. It's quite obvious, though, how this can affect aliens.

When you look at employment, the discrimination is evident. Obviously that affects aliens. There are many points in the public employment system where discrimination against aliens takes place. There's considerable discretion to discriminate even though you have the procedure institutionalized, a procedure which is grounded in statute. There is ample discretion all along the way, not only within the department of personnel services, but within the hiring agency which gets a list of five names and can choose from those five names.

Now I have been criticizing a lot. Let me take a positive approach and suggest some solutions. One of those areas is the Immigration and Naturalization Service in the surveillance of alien political ideals. That has been a sad chapter in the Immigration and Naturalization Service, and it still continues to this day. Hawaii is not completely immune from that practice. The problem starts even before an alien arrives. The American Civil Liberties Union a few years ago interceded on behalf of a Canadian who wanted to visit the United States and his port of entry was Honolulu. He was on some sort of list they had at the airport. He belonged to a number of leftwing organizations in Canada. They refused to allow him to enter and put him under detention. So as I said, Hawaii, although relatively more progressive and liberal about a person who wants to immigrate, has problems of that nature.

There was a recent case where the Immigration and Naturalization Service detained a fashion designer from Japan who openly admitted that he was a homosexual. An inspector at the airport went through all of his packages and opened all of his personal letters and started reading all the letters that he had gotten from a male friend on the mainland. From reading those, he concluded that the man was a homosexual, at which point the immigration authority instructed the airlines to present the alien to the Immigration and Naturalization Service's offices on Monday morning.

The visitor arrived on Friday night. The airlines hired a private security agency and kept the man a virtual prisoner for 3 days and 3 nights in a hotel room. They refused to let him leave the hotel room and moved into the hotel with him. They presented

<sup>2</sup> The U.S. Supreme Court held in *Graham v. Richardson*, 403 U.S. 365 (1971), that State laws discriminating against aliens once admitted to the

United States were "inherently suspect," so that States had to show a "compelling" interest in order to justify such laws.

him to the Immigration and Naturalization Service on Monday morning.

The Immigration and Naturalization Service wanted to make him undergo a medical examination. It's beyond me how that would conclusively prove that the man was homosexual or not. The Public Health Service has the jurisdiction to conduct these kinds of medical examinations and the Immigration and Naturalization Service follows up on the recommendation.

It's a blatant violation of a person's civil rights. It assumes that when a foreign visitor steps on American soil the U.S. Constitution does not apply to him. Some of the practices and the immigration law have simply not kept up with a changing society's attitudes and mores.

MS. PUTMAN. Some of the members of the committee would like to ask you some questions. Do you want to take 2 minutes to sum up and then we'll ask some questions.

MR. MOHR. Some of the recommendations that I was going to make include an immediate end to all Immigration and Naturalization Service's searches and arrests conducted without a warrant or probable cause. The probable cause requirement is not satisfied simply by the way a person is raised or the person's manner of dress or his speech.

An immediate end to the Immigration and Naturalization Service's practice of inquiring into political beliefs and associations of aliens in granting visas or granting of permanent residence or naturalization.

I have already mentioned a more enlightened policy toward sexual conduct.

There are some horror stories coming out in relationship to marijuana where a person gets caught with three joints and they are going to deport him.

But more importantly, and let me stress this again, establishing a full range of governmental legal services for aliens, whether those services are funded by the State or Federal or a combination, should be provided to the aliens.

A further recommendation is to the immigration bar. The immigration bar in the past has been content with not really acting in an adversary role. Perhaps a bit more ethical approach towards the problem of civil liberties is needed by the immigration bar. But the bottom line is legal services for

aliens in this State. I think that would go a long way to ensure all the rights that I have mentioned.

MS. MANUEL. It would be almost impossible, legally, to stem the flow of immigration to this State because it would be imposing on the right of a person to travel and his right to employment coming to this State; is that right?

MR. MOHR. No. As a matter of fact, the courts have upheld various schemes which discourage immigration and immigration, such as professional licensing.

All durational residency requirements—when I talk about duration, it means living in a place a certain period of time—are not unconstitutional. You have them for divorce. You have them for voting. It's in certain areas—one of those areas is welfare where they have consistently struck down all waiting periods for a person to apply for welfare because it is a necessity of life. The same way for employment. Even though there isn't any constitutional right to work, you need to have a job in order to live. It's in that kind of area where the courts have said, once the people are there, you cannot discriminate against them like that. There are other means to discourage immigration to Hawaii, constitutional means, and they have been held as such by the courts. It shouldn't give the State any problem.

Obviously we have to do something about the population.

MS. MANUEL. How would you start to manage growth?

MR. MOHR. Personally I think the population issue is somewhat of a smokescreen. Given our present population, I think this problem stems from some rather bad planning. I think it is bad planning on the part of this administration and past administrations. You know, you blame the high rates of unemployment on the population, but there are other reasons. The other reasons have nothing to do with population per se.

Hawaii's housing is so expensive. It has to do with the economic policies that have been established by the State. I think Filipinos and migrants from the mainland are being used as scapegoats for the problems that come from other sources.

MS. PUTMAN. Thank you very much. We really appreciate your presentation, and your entire statement will go into the record.



## 6. The Effect of National Immigration Laws on Growth and Population in Hawaii

Presentation of Eileen R. Anderson\*

Thank you. I would like to introduce Mrs. Peggy Comeau, from our professional staff, who has done much of the work on this subject for the administration.

I'll preface my remarks for just a moment. I come at this question definitely from a layperson's point of view. I'm not a statistician, and I'm not a specialist on immigration. I do express the views of the Governor with respect to his concern for the growth of Hawaii and its population.

What I would like to present to you today is essentially testimony which I gave to the Commission on Growth of the U.S. Congress, House of Representatives, which expresses the administration's concerns about the growth of Hawaii and, in particular, how we think the national immigration act has affected that growth.

As an introduction, and I'm sure you have already had some of this today, I will remind you that we are an island State here in Hawaii. Hawaii is located in the middle of the Pacific Ocean, 2,400 miles to the northwest of the continental United States. It has a land area of 6,425 square miles, distributed over seven major islands.

Tourism is the State's major industry, followed by defense expenditures and then agriculture, chiefly sugar and pineapple.

Hawaii's total resident population, as of mid-1977, numbered approximately 894,000 persons; its de facto population was closer to 1 million people. Between 1960 and 1975, Hawaii, with its population growth rate of 2.0 percent, was the sixth fastest

growing State in the Nation. Relative to the United States as a whole, the State of Hawaii was growing almost twice as fast.

In addition to its extremely rapid rate of population growth, Hawaii's population problems are aggravated by a gross imbalance in the way in which the State's population is distributed. More than four-fifths of the people live on the Island of Oahu, which comprises approximately 10 percent of the State's land area and which serves as the industrial, business, and political center of the State. Because of the larger number of people who live on Oahu, this island's de facto population density was 1,286.0 persons per square mile in 1976.

Hawaii's population has reached a low rate of fertility, primarily because of modern methods of birth control, education, and changing social and economic attitudes favoring small families. At the same time, migration has come to be the dominant factor in the growth of population, accounting for more than half of the population increase in the current decade as compared with 40 percent during the previous decade. Migration from foreign countries has increased nearly fourfold since the early sixties. Therefore, if a slower rate of population growth is to be realized in Hawaii, migration must be the primary focus of attention.

Looking at gross immigration to Hawaii, it is found that approximately one-fourth of Hawaii's immigrants are aliens, while the remainder are U.S. citizens. However, in terms of net immigration, that is, the excess of in and outmigration, it is estimated

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U.S. House of Representatives, House Select Committee on Population, in Washington, D.C., on June 7, 1978.

by the [Hawaii] Department of Planning and Economic Development that alien immigration accounts for much of the total, representing an estimated 70 percent of net immigration in the 1970-75 period, up from 16 percent in the 1960-65 period.

That immigrants have come to represent an increasingly larger proportion of net immigration may be traced, in large part, to changes made in 1965 in the Federal immigration laws. These changes facilitated the immigration of Asians as compared with Europeans,<sup>1</sup> as evidenced by the fact that prior to passage of the 1965 amendments, only 1 out of every 14 immigrants to the United States was Asian, but in 1973, the proportion had risen to 1 in every 3.

Because of its multiethnic population and central location in the Pacific, Hawaii has always been a popular destination for people emigrating from Asia. Thus, when the 1965 amendments were implemented, large numbers of immigrants began selecting Hawaii as their place of intended residence. This is evidenced by the following statistics: whereas prior to 1965, immigrants to Hawaii averaged 1,800 per year, the current arrival rate is about 7,000 per year, almost a fourfold increase. And compared to other States, Hawaii attracts a disproportionately larger number of immigrants. In FY 1975, for example, Hawaii received 8.7 immigrants per 1,000 population, the highest rate in the Nation and 4.8 times the United States average.

It is reasonable to expect immigration to Hawaii to remain at a high level as the large number of immigrants who came after the liberalized 1965 amendments attain citizenship or establish permanent residence and, in turn, sponsor relatives who may then immigrate under the preference system.<sup>2</sup>

Besides the Federal immigration laws, other factors which positively influence migration to Hawaii include: the availability of employment opportunities; efficient and frequent air transportation; Hawaii's climate and natural beauty; tourism, the State's major industry; and liberal welfare benefits. It is believed that most of these factors more heavily influence migration from the mainland United States rather than alien migration.

<sup>1</sup> Federal immigration law is codified under the Immigration and Nationality Act, enacted in 1952. In 1965 amendments to this act abolished the national origins system and the Asiatic barred zone which had restricted the immigration of Asians as compared to Europeans and other Western Hemisphere aliens. With the passage of these amendments, Asians now share the same opportunities given other aliens to immigrate to the United States.

Hawaii's 1970-77 population growth rate amounts to a doubling of the population every 34 years. Whether Hawaii can satisfactorily accommodate that many people without a serious deterioration in the quality of life is a question that many persons in Hawaii are asking. A recent survey found that over 80 percent of the people felt that the State's population is growing too fast.

Concern regarding the State's rapid population growth rate stems from several factors. Hawaii's limited physical size is clearly one obvious cause for concern. Hawaii ranks 47th among the States in terms of land area, but it ranks 15th in terms of population density.

Secondly, there is concern that uncontrolled urbanization may adversely and irreversibly affect one of Hawaii's most precious assets, its natural beauty and environment. Their degradation would be an irreparable loss and one that could spell economic disaster for the State.

A growing population also poses concerns related to employment. In recent years, Hawaii's job opportunities have been unable to keep pace with the rapid growth of its resident population, causing high rates of unemployment to persist. It is felt that unless we can come to grips with our population growth problem, it is likely that unemployment will remain at substantially high levels in the foreseeable future.

Finally, rapid growth brings socioeconomic costs, which appear to exceed the benefits. In his 1977 address to the Hawaii State Legislature, Governor George R. Ariyoshi committed himself and his administration to protecting Hawaii from the problems of excess growth and overpopulation, and in the summer of 1977 he established a growth management task force to identify specific actions that the State might take to shape and direct its future growth.

Tackling growth-related problems is part of the State's continuing commitment to achieve a better tomorrow for its residents. For some time now, Hawaii has played an innovative and precedent-setting role in many of its efforts to look at and deal with the future, as illustrated, for example, by its

<sup>2</sup> Under the Immigration and Nationality Act, each country in the Western and Eastern Hemispheres is subject to the same annual quota (20,000 per country) designed to restrict the numbers of immigrant visas issued per year. The act provides that in issuing visas preference consideration within each country will be given to applicants who have close relatives in the United States or who possess needed job skills, 8 U.S.C. §§1151-1153 (1970) (amended 1978).

recent adoption of a State plan by statute—a first in the Nation.

The task force that Governor Ariyoshi set up to address growth-related problems prepared a report entitled, "A Program for Selective Growth Management." Broadly speaking, the intent of the selective growth management program is to encourage the right kind of growth at the proper place and pace—the kind of growth that will serve to protect and enhance our natural resources, promote wise allocation of our physical and natural resources, and improve the socioeconomic condition of our residents. The program focuses on three aspects of growth: economic growth, population growth, and population distribution.

At the heart of the selective growth management program is a series of 29 legislative actions comprised of additions and/or amendments to the Hawaii Revised Statutes and Concurrent Resolutions, 39 administrative actions, and 3 proposed amendments to the Federal Immigration and Nationality Act. These actions are designed to slow down the rate of population growth; discourage the continued concentration of population on the island of Oahu; encourage the right kind of housing, jobs, and economy for neighbor islanders and their offspring so that neighbor island residents will be able to remain on their islands should they choose to do so, rather than be forced to move to Oahu for economic reasons; encourage the type of growth necessary to preserve open space, conservation areas, and agricultural land for the future; improve job opportunities for Hawaii's residents without stimulating immigration; and promote stable growth of the economy.

The task force recommended additions and/or amendments to the Hawaii Revised Statutes and the Concurrent Resolutions were submitted by Governor Ariyoshi to the ninth session of the Hawaii State Legislature which convened in January 1978. In submitting the package of 29 bills and resolutions to the legislature, the Governor expressed his desire that legislators use them as a device to begin dialogue on proper courses of action to preserve and protect Hawaii from excessive growth.

The ideas of 10 of the growth-related proposals received a nod of approval from the legislature in the form of either a bill or a resolution. Several of these measures are expected to have an impact on immigration to the State of Hawaii.

One, for example, limits welfare benefits to an extent that we should notice a reduction in the number of persons who come without the intent of becoming contributing members of our community. Another measure provides some reasonable, and we believe constitutionally valid, preferences for State and county government employment. Other measures related to population growth which received legislative approval include: a resolution calling for the design and development of a workable system for collecting migration data, a resolution requesting a study of the financial impact of population growth on the expansion of major public services and public facilities and of alternative methods for equitably distributing these costs among present and future generations, and a resolution endorsing and encouraging increased efforts to improve the accessibility of reproductive health care.

Currently, the administration is reviewing the growth management legislative proposals that did not receive legislative approval for possible modification and resubmission to the Hawaii State Legislature when it convenes next year. At the same time, other actions proposed by the growth management task force are being evaluated and, in some cases, implemented. Additional research and new investigations are underway.

There are a number of Federal actions that we believe would ease Hawaii's growth-related problems. The suggested Federal actions and a brief rationale are as follows:

1. Require a more equitable distribution of immigrants among the States by amending the Immigration and Nationality Act.

While nationwide there is an overall ceiling on the number of immigrants that can be admitted annually to the United States, there is no quota or ceiling by area or State within the country. As a result, immigrants tend to concentrate in a few States, thereby placing additional burdens on the limited financial resources of these locales and, in some cases, causing unemployment to rise when aliens compete with citizens for limited jobs.

We believe that Congress intended immigration to be a national responsibility. For this reason, we believe that consideration should be given to amending the U.S. Immigration and Nationality Act to provide for a more equitable distribution of immigrants among the 50 States. This amendment might incorporate the procedures presented on pages 53 and 54 of my written testimony before the House

Select Committee on Population, U.S. House of Representatives, on June 7, 1978.

2. Reduce alien dependency on welfare by amending appropriate laws.

Although immigrant admissions to the United States are conditioned on the explicit understanding that immigrants have means of support and will not become public charges, there is an increasing number of immigrants who are receiving public welfare assistance within 5 years of their entry into the United States, thereby creating a significant financial burden on the Federal Government and the States involved. At a time when Federal, State, and local welfare costs are rising dramatically, there does not appear to be any relief in sight under the current law and its interpretation.

Federal actions that could be taken to reduce the problem of alien welfare dependency include:

a. Amending the Federal legislation which established the various welfare programs to include a durational residency requirement of between 2 to 5 years for alien recipients or, alternatively, amending the Federal Immigration and Nationality Act to include receipt of public welfare money payments by an immigrant within, say, 5 years of his arrival as one of the criteria for determining whether a person is a "public charge" and therefore subject to deportation; and

b. Amending the Immigration and Naturalization Act to make the affidavits of support, provided by sponsors of aliens, legally enforceable agreements binding for a period of 5 years after admission.

If the Federal Government is not willing to promote these changes, then we believe it should be willing to assume the total social costs for welfare, housing, and unemployment of immigrants who are not able to support themselves.

3. To provide added Federal assistance to States with higher proportions of foreign-born population. Many foreign-born persons lack sufficient education to function adequately in our technological society. This lack of education often prevents such persons from finding satisfactory employment.

Other areas in which newly arrived, foreign-born individuals experience difficulties include nutrition, housing, and health.

For those parts of the country where the proportion of immigrants per 1,000 population is greater

than the national average, the above-cited problems place heavy financial strains on their limited resources. Since the Federal Government sets the policies that govern which persons can move to the United States, the Federal Government has a responsibility to assist those areas with large concentrations of foreign-born individuals in meeting the special needs thereby thrust upon such communities.

This assistance might take the form of a one-time cash grant per immigrant; alternatively, it might be provided annually based on the number of foreign-born individuals in the State.

4. Include Hawaii and other affected States in the decisionmaking process on programs and issues relating to the migration of people from the Pacific basin trust territories.

The United States Government has indicated that it will end its trusteeship over the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands by 1981. While the future political status of the trust territory is still undetermined, the Commonwealth of the Northern Marianas has already negotiated its own political settlement and has set a pattern which may be emulated by the other principal geographic areas in the trust territory.

If Hawaii's experience with the influx of American Samoans is indicative of what may happen in the near future with the trust territory, then it is necessary for the Federal and State governments to begin planning transitional programs to both minimize the State's burden and to maximize the capabilities of the newcomers in adjusting to American society.

Finally, there is need for a national population policy, developed in concert with State and local governments, to lessen the congestion and reduce pressure on the already overburdened resources of our metropolitan areas and to lessen the problems of transportation, environment decay, and social service delivery that are not being adequately dealt with for today's population. Such a policy should be consonant with a rural-urban balance of needs and regional potential.

Some suggested components of such a policy are listed on pages 65 and 66 of my written testimony before the House Select Committee on Population, United States House of Representatives, on June 7, 1978.

That concludes the summary and I would be happy to share any thoughts with you that you might have.

MS. THOMPSON. We have had some testimony this morning, and I imagine you are familiar with President Carter's proposals relating to aliens and illegal aliens. There was something in the document related to people being here prior to 1970 and how they qualified to become legal aliens and so on. The concept was brought up this morning that there is a possibility of maybe a blanket amnesty. What is your feeling on that?

MS. ANDERSON. I am not all that familiar with the details of President Carter's proposals. I think he was dealing most particularly with illegal aliens, immigrants who come across the borders [without documentation]. I don't think we view our problems as that kind of problem. We are dealing with legal aliens. It's not my impression that we are dealing with illegal aliens. So the question of whether they should all be granted legal status is something that we haven't really addressed carefully.

Let me ask Peggy Comeau.

MS. COMEAU. I think, basically, our illegal alien problem may come from the Samoans. It is very difficult to handle the people that may be involved. We haven't looked at the issue in detail. We have dealt with the problem in general. I think it is more of a problem in California, Texas, and New Mexico.

MS. PUTMAN. Reinhard Mohr testified on behalf of the [American] Civil Liberties Union [ACLU] of Hawaii, and in his testimony he referred to the residency legislation passed by the 1972 session which was found by the Federal district court to be unconstitutional. And then he characterized the revised version of that 1972 law, which was passed in 1977, as an attempt to achieve through the side door what the court disallowed through the front door, and said that the law is presently being challenged in court. And he characterized the essence of this as giving State residents who have filed in-State income tax returns a preference in hiring in public employment. Would you respond to that position?

MS. ANDERSON. The first bill that was passed, I think we have to admit, was an attempt to be a quick response to what has been a problem, and it did set forth a 1-year residency duration requirement. There were many people who advised that we should not trouble with that, because the duration aspect was a problem.

Be that as it may, the legislature did opt to pass it and the Governor did sign it and we did have a court challenge, which we expected, and it was

struck down. I don't think that really surprised anybody. If it did nothing else, it brought the issue firmly out on the table. It made our attorney general work very hard to justify, and I think that was worthwhile. There was public debate about it, and I think all of those things were worthwhile.

Having lost that case, however, the next session went to look at what we could do to really accomplish what we were trying to do. Without really going into details, the new law requires that you have to be a resident. Well, let me back up. The civil service law requires that when you certify names for a job opening you send five names. Okay, the new law says that in sending the five names, you must make sure that if, for example, the five names are nonresident, as that term is subsequently defined, then you must also send five names of residents for that position. So residents have an equal opportunity to be considered for employment. The question of who is chosen from that list is still a matter for the appointing authority to decide. It is an attempt to give the resident an equal chance at being picked, that is, irrespective of the score.

MS. PUTMAN. What do you mean by the score?

MS. ANDERSON. Say you have 10 people on the list. The top five may range from 81 down to 76 and are nonresidents and the next five are 75 down to 70. Never mind the fact that these people have lower scores than the top five, their names are sent, and they are considered for employment.

Now, in defining what is a resident there are a number of elements, one of which is that you have filed a State income tax return. That is one that is to be considered. Our deputy attorney general is really convinced of that case. They really looked at that one, and we are ready for a challenge on that. The ACLU has said before that it is going to challenge it but has not challenged it, but we expect them to do that.

MS. PUTMAN. Part of the State administration program is suggesting three areas of amendment to the Federal law. I am referring to your presentation before the U.S. House committee. But are you going to get support from the Hawaii contingent in Congress on these approaches?

MS. ANDERSON. Well, I would have to say that at the time our invitation to testify was by the Hawaii member of that committee who specifically asked that Hawaii be given an opportunity. They were not just looking at areas experiencing population growth but also looking at areas that are

experiencing a decline in population. We were on the panel discussing growth. We felt very pleased that we were able to get that invitation. I have not made contact with the other members of our congressional delegation.

Ms. PUTMAN. Are the other States that have a proportionately high percentage of immigrants interested in these same kinds of amendments to the immigration law?

Ms. ANDERSON. I have been directly in contact with two: one was a gentleman from New York who had concerns about our first comment about a more equitable distribution. He was disturbed by the implications of that, and we understood his concerns. We aren't really saying that all the people would have to have visas and all those kinds of things to go from one State to another. There are all kinds of ways they can be encouraged to distribute themselves more evenly. We are not necessarily saying that people have to get permission to go somewhere else. There are other ways of doing it.

I did not really have a chance to clarify our comments, except the one relating to the question of greater Federal support.

Ms. PUTMAN. I guess I was talking about State administrations.

Ms. ANDERSON. The other person I had contact with was from Florida, and he was very supportive of our comments because they have been through exactly the kinds of things we are going through. And as a matter of fact, the gentlemen from Florida said—with respect to the fact that the Congressman seemed "appalled" at Hawaii's idea of more equitable distribution which might be unconstitutional—and I quote him, "We can sit here and say it may be unconstitutional, but that does not make the problem go away."

Now, with respect to other States, we have not had direct contact.

Ms. PUTMAN. This consultation is part of a national study, and the other States in which consultations and/or open meetings have been held are Texas, California, and New York. And I think they also have a disproportionately high number of immigrants.

Ms. ANDERSON. We have no direct dealings with them.

Ms. MANUEL. Do the aliens that have been here for 5 or 10 years pay taxes?

Ms. ANDERSON. If they are working, yes.

Ms. MANUEL. They do?

Ms. ANDERSON. Yes.

Ms. MANUEL. When this tax comes out, are aliens considered as residents or still as nonresidents?

Ms. ANDERSON. In that case they are noncitizens, and the question of State or county employment is a difficult question.

Ms. COMEAU. The preference is given to tax-filing residents. And it is our understanding from talking to the tax departments, even people who don't make income do file a tax form, so I don't think the time limit of 5 years would come in there. There is some time limit in order to be here and to file.

Ms. MANUEL. What I really wanted to know is relative to a resident application versus nonresident application, if an alien has been here for 5 to 10 years, that would be?

Ms. PUTMAN. An alien resident.

Ms. MANUEL. How would you classify her application for the job?

Ms. COMEAU. As a resident.

Ms. ANDERSON. The specific rules and regulations are going to be developed by the department of personnel services through a public hearing, and they are going to have to deal with those questions.

Ms. PUTMAN. Do you know when those rules will be?

Ms. ANDERSON. They are coming along.

Ms. THOMPSON. It is kind of hard to separate this document and also emotions. For instance, on page 12 where you discuss criteria to determine whether a person is a public charge. If we permit only certain aliens to immigrate, we are going to end up with the economically elite based upon some concerns about public welfare and about whether the person is self-supportive and so on. And I was wondering if that is really what we have in the State of Hawaii? Might this be a ramification of something like this?

Ms. ANDERSON. It's my understanding, as it stands, that the intent is that they will not be public charges. That is the national position on this. I think all we are saying is, okay, if that is the national position, then let's make the law work that way. And if that is not going to be the national position and if we are willing to take those that do need help, then the national government has to help those States with the impact.

Ms. THOMPSON. Does this apply to our migrants as well?

Ms. ANDERSON. Just alien immigrants. See, we tried to do something ourselves with respect to citizen migrants from the mainland United States. We had a law which didn't matter whether they had the means to sustain themselves. We had a very generous welfare law, and we have changed that law. So, if you are under the age of 55 and you are able bodied, you cannot draw State welfare benefits.

So we are now looking at the Federal Government to stand up for its policies. We are also looking at ourselves and what we have been doing to our laws.

Ms. PUTMAN. There was a recent eight-part series in the *Honolulu Advertiser* on the refugees of Indochina, and in the concluding article there is a social worker of DSSH [Department of Social Services and Housing] and another private social worker who is quoted as saying that these immigrants are very proud and do not become public welfare changes. They work hard, and in fact, they prefer to stay away from government agencies because of their concern about the potential—whether it's a justified concern or not—of being deported. And there have been other similar studies indicating that the immigrants, as a group, are not overrepresented in the welfare population.

Ms. ANDERSON. I think that is true.

Ms. PUTMAN. So all this concern about welfare as far as immigrants is probably not justifiable?

Ms. ANDERSON. Let me say this: the Governor has said on a number of occasions that there is no one thing that is going to help us resolve this problem of population. It's going to take a little thing here and a little there. The welfare part is a very small part of a very large complex problem. It happens to be one of the ones that we can try and do something about ourselves.

Ms. PUTMAN. But those are the people who are really particularly vulnerable, it seems to me, and, if it doesn't contribute in a significant way to the problem that is being addressed, why go after the most vulnerable? That is my soft spot.

Ms. ANDERSON. We are talking about people that are under the age of 55 and are able bodied that do not have any dependent children.

And one of the testimonies that came out in the public hearings in the legislature was from the Legal Aid Society, who testified in favor of this bill

because they get telephone calls from the airport from people asking, "Where is the welfare office?" These are young, able-bodied citizens coming from the west coast.

Ms. PUTMAN. No. I'm talking about a refugee from Indochina.

Ms. ANDERSON. Oh, no, no. I misunderstood you. No, no. The law provides of course that we will take care of those that are not able to take care of themselves, if they are not able bodied and so forth. We haven't eliminated that, and I believe a lot of them are very proud.

We are not just looking at the immigration problem. We are looking at Hawaii as a place that can sustain a certain number of people under certain living conditions. We have to start looking down the road, 20 or 30 years. If we continue to grow at the rate we are growing, we will be unable to sustain a population of that level.

The question is: do we deal with it now? It's like the chicken and egg situation. There are many areas that are contributing to that growth, one of which is immigration. Or shall we just let it run away with us and deal with it 20 years from now when our options are very much less than they are now? We do not have the answers.

We are throwing things out to talk about them. If you disagree with us, I appreciate it, and we can talk about it. I sat through a whole legislative session practically all by myself. That's fine. Let's get the discussion started.

The Governor's position is that we can't wait until the population has already doubled and then say, "We should have done something 20 years ago."

Ms. MANUEL. So we are saying the migration from the States to Hawaii and from Samoa is a greater problem than the immigrants coming from east Cambodia?

Ms. ANDERSON. They are all part of it, all part of the problem.

Ms. MANUEL. But the big problem is from State to State?

Ms. ANDERSON. That problem has been dealt with internally. Even the birth rate is part of the problem.

Ms. PUTMAN. Thanks very much. We really appreciate you coming.

# 7. Immigrants in Hawaii: The State Immigrant Services Center Perspective

Presentation of Bienvenido D. Junasa\*

I certainly appreciate this opportunity to speak with the Hawaii Advisory Committee to the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights on immigrant problems here in the State of Hawaii. Let me start with background information on why we have these problems. I feel that any impact of a solution to a problem may be greater if viewed from this perspective.

The problem really starts with the U.S. immigration laws and the 1965 amendments which allowed admission to a greater number of people without a corresponding measure of facilitating their adjustments to American society. The impact of the 1965 amendments on the socioeconomic condition in Hawaii was tremendous.

First, it significantly increased the numbers of regular immigrants from the Pacific basin and other Eastern Hemisphere countries able to come to Hawaii. Secondly, it enhanced the desirability of American nationals and special refugees to make Hawaii their intended residence. Since 1965 there have been about 50,000 immigrants, 16,000 American Samoans, and 4,000 Indochinese refugees who were admitted to the State of Hawaii. These new groups of people have made a great impact on the economy and human service delivery in the State. May I cite some of the problems encountered by these new residents?

1. First, the problem of communication. English is not the language of communication in Pacific Asian countries. Although many of the recent immigrants are more educated than those who

came in the early 1900s, their English proficiency is not readily applicable in the American labor market. This is particularly true for those coming from Indochina, Japan, and Korea. Immigrants from the Philippines and American Samoa have fewer problems in terms of daily communication, but even their command of English is not adequate enough to compete with local people in seeking jobs.

2. Occupational skills. Many of the occupational skills that immigrants bring with them need to be developed to approximate the expectation and standard of American employers. In some instances, it is just a matter of reorienting the immigrant job seeker to western work ethics and cultural propensities of the American consuming public. Although there are many professionals among the recent immigrants, there still exists the need for more fluent communication and knowledge of American behavior in the world of work.

3. Housing problems. Even without adding the housing needs of immigrants, Hawaii already has an acute problem in affordable housing. The problem is more serious among the newly arrived immigrants because they don't have the means to buy high-cost housing or the bank credit necessary to obtain mortgages. Overcrowding in housing accommodations is not uncommon among recent immigrants. In terms of residential distribution, the immigrants are concentrated in areas where there is a semblance of the old culture and where there is already representation of their

\* Bienvenido D. Junasa is the director of the Hawaii State Immigrant Services Center, which is under the administration of the Hawaii State Commission on Manpower and Full Employment.



ethnic group. Kalihi-Palama is one of the most saturated areas for immigrants. Waianae-Nanakuli has a high concentration of newly arrived Samoans. Waikiki-Moiliili is also beginning to have a greater number of Pacific islanders and Indochinese refugees.

4. Health problems. The information from the department of health is quite confusing. Health statistical reports lump together all foreign born as immigrants which includes American nationals, visitors, foreign students, and other nonimmigrant visa holders. The department of health information then represents more than the immigrants as legally defined according to U.S. immigration laws.<sup>1</sup>

Contrary to general impressions, the immigrants are relatively healthy. Actually, immigrants admitted as permanent residents come under rigid physical examination ordered by the U.S. consul abroad. But nonimmigrants are not subjected to strict health restrictions and, therefore, may account for greater probability of health hazards. Hawaii has a high rate of tuberculosis identified among foreign-born residents. A report from the department of health shows that in 1976, 44.7 percent of our active tuberculosis cases were individuals who had lived in Hawaii less than 5 years and were foreign born. The 1976 rate for tuberculosis among foreign born in Hawaii was 584.3 per 100,000 population as compared to a rate of 15.7 per 100,000 population for U.S. born.

Also, according to the department of health report, the largest incidence of leprosy cases occurred among immigrants from the Philippines and Samoa. The findings seem to indicate that immigrants from those two countries are susceptible to this type of health problem.

Other health problems among immigrants include congenital malformities, rheumatic heart disease, asthma, ear infections, intestinal parasites, and orthopedic problems. Poor nutrition is identified as a major contributing factor in ill health among immigrants.

5. Social adjustment. There is also a problem of social adjustment among recent immigrants. By and large, Hawaii is a western community. Although there are a number of ethnic groups from Asian countries, our established social system and behavior are distinctively western. The newly

arrived immigrants then have tremendous adjustment to make in Hawaii.

Take, for instance, the Samoans. In Samoa, a Samoan lives in a socialistic society. If he feels hungry and sees a ripe fruit hanging from a tree along the street, all he has to do is pick it and eat. He will be in serious trouble if he does that in Hawaii. The transition from a socialistic society to a highly individualistic and capitalistic society is indeed very difficult.

Some Pilipinos also have serious problems in adjusting to American society. Basically, they are conservative regarding interpersonal behavior between the sexes. So when a Pilipino man or woman is approached for open conversation, he or she is likely to misinterpret the western behavior. Oftentimes a local person just wants to be kind and friendly to a bewildered newcomer.

There are also adjustment problems among Chinese and Japanese immigrants. Their problems may take a different level depending upon how they relate to their ethnic communities who have already gained wide acceptance in American society.

These are some of the serious problems confronting our newly arrived immigrants in Hawaii.

MS. PUTMAN. Maybe you could explain about your office and how it came about.

MR. JUNASA. Yes. I took it for granted that the Advisory Committee knew our office. The State Immigrant Services Center came about in 1970 after the 1969 Governor's Conference on Immigration. That conference identified problems similar to those I have just discussed today. The consensus of the conference delegates was for establishing a State agency to facilitate and coordinate public and private services toward newly arrived immigrants.

In July 1970, the State legislature and the office of the Governor established the State Immigrant Services Center as a pilot project to implement the recommendations made by the 1969 Governor's conference. In 1975, the State Immigrant Services Center became a permanent agency under the [Hawaii] Commission on Manpower and Full Employment in the office of the Governor. Our primary responsibility is to plan, coordinate, and advocate for immigrant needs. The overall purpose is to make our community become sensitive to immigrant needs and to help immigrants become productive members

(1970) (amended in 1978). An "alien" is defined as any person not a citizen or national of the United States, 8 U.S.C. §1101(a)(3) (1970).

<sup>1</sup> Under the Immigration and Nationality Act, an "immigrant" is defined as an alien who does not fall within the various classes of nonimmigrant aliens temporarily admitted to the United States, 8 U.S.C. §1101(a)(15) (A) to (L)

of American society. In areas where no particular agency can deliver the services, we assisted in creating localized projects.

MS. MANUEL. Have any elderly people come to your office to ask for transportation back to their homelands because they feel they are no longer needed here?

MR. JUNASA. No. However, there were some inquiries from social service agencies which we referred to the department of social services and housing.

MS. MANUEL. I'm talking about indigent aliens.

MR. JUNASA. We have a group in the Roman Catholic Church which provides help for this type of need. Father Neri's Balik-Bahay program seeks out elderly Pilipinos who want to go home but cannot do it on their own. At one time, they were supported by State funds through the progressive neighborhoods program of the Governor's office.

Our agency has a different emphasis. The priority is to give assistance to those who have been here less than 5 years so that they become adjusted to American society.

MS. MANUEL. So you really don't deal with those?

MR. JUNASA. Not exactly. Because of limited resources, priorities have been drawn to make our services more effective. However, as I said earlier, we refer to other agencies for direct services. For this particular problem, we have referred inquiries to the department of social services and housing.

MS. THOMPSON. You talked about the problems relating to communication, housing, and social adjustment. Do you have any specific recommendations as to some changes that ought to be brought about in terms of the Carter administration proposals?

MR. JUNASA: Yes, I have some suggestions. First, the U.S. Immigration and Naturalization Service might begin expanding their horizon to include adjustment services other than processing entry and exit of immigrants. Perhaps there is a need for a more humanistic approach to their delivery of services.

Secondly, there is a need to revive the bill introduced by U.S. Congresswoman Patsy Mink known as the Gateway Cities bill. At present there are no special funds for immigrant services except the Cuban and Indochinese Refugee Acts. For regular immigrant needs, we have to compete with

local needs and most often we don't get funding because newcomers have low priorities.

Thirdly, there ought to be a system of fair distribution of immigrants among the 50 States in the Union. Perhaps the Federal Government should provide better information to immigrants as to State or city that can best utilize their educational and work background. American consulates abroad may post information on opportunities that exist in all the 50 States.

MS. PUTMAN. That recommendation seems consistent with the State administration's proposal on spreading immigrants evenly across the States.

My question relates to some earlier testimony that was given by the American Civil Liberties Union of Hawaii, the executive director, Reinhard Mohr. He feels that the most important need for aliens, particularly indigent aliens, is the need for legal services, either through the bar or through public agencies and including paralegals. Do you see that as a very important need for the people that you come into contact with? Do you refer some of them to some legal offices?

MR. JUNASA. Yes, because we do not provide legal services, we refer immigrants with legal problems to local lawyers and the Legal Aid Society of Hawaii. Most legal problems of immigrants pertain to entry or exit in the immigration process. Perhaps any assistance to this problem ought to be related to the U.S. Immigration Service.

MS. PUTMAN. When you look for help from the Legal Aid or to individual lawyers, has the response been good?

MR. JUNASA. Not really good. A number of Samoans who came to our office with immigration problems felt that they could not afford local attorneys and the Legal Aid Society has a long waiting list of clients. Although we recognize this need, our office cannot afford to provide legal assistance.

MS. PUTMAN. The budget for your office is \$50,000?

MR. JUNASA. Yes. State Immigrant Services Center budget is only \$50,000 annually. This is barely enough to provide planning and coordinating functions.

MS. PUTMAN. How many employees do you have?

MR. JUNASA. I have three.

MS. PUTMAN. That is yourself and—

MR. JUNASA. And two others. We are lucky to obtain cooperation with the various agencies and fortunate to be awarded Federal grants for projects that provide other direct services to our immigrants. With that \$50,000 allotment I cannot see providing legal services to immigrants.

MS. THOMPSON. Based on all the very important information that you have given us, are you in favor of managed growth in Hawaii and restricting immigration?

MR. JUNASA. That depends on how you define that. I'd like to have a planned future. I am a planner by profession. I like a planned future. I am with the Governor in terms of a planned future. I am with him in suggesting a fair distribution of immigrants without violating constitutional rights. But I am not prepared to suggest legislation to limit the numbers now without discussing the whole approach of what our capabilities are in terms of accommodating the optimum population and maintaining the kind of

lifestyle the community would like. The issues are so involved I can't provide a precise answer.

MS. PUTMAN. Thank you very much.

MR. PILLA. Mr. Junasa, are you familiar with the Carter administration proposal in the area of immigration?

MR. JUNASA. Yes. I would like to refer you to the official administration statements of the Governor and Miss Anderson regarding this problem.

I would like to suggest that the Commission on Civil Rights provide an objective update as to what is happening in the amendments to the legislation introduced. Sometimes the interpretation we receive is only one-sided. But, if your Commission can put together all the implications of the amendments, the States would have a better source for a sound judgment. I am referring particularly to the bill cosponsored by Senator Percy and Senator Matsunaga. If you can clarify the conflicting issues involved in that bill, then we will be better prepared for citizen participation.

## 8. The Practice of Immigration Law in Hawaii

### Presentation of William F. Thompson III\*

My name is William Thompson III, and I am an attorney here in the State of Hawaii. I belong to a national association made up of some 800 attorneys throughout the United States. We have a local chapter and, unfortunately, in Hawaii we have only about seven members. It doesn't necessarily mean that the attorneys in the State of Hawaii are not interested in immigration law. It may mean that this field of law is not as busy as is, let's say, divorce or criminal law.

The Association of Immigration and Nationality Lawyers was founded back in 1946. It was founded basically by attorneys in New York for the purpose of trying to get together to exchange ideas as to how to improve the rights and benefits of the aliens in the United States and aliens seeking residence in the United States, as well as those petitioners who are citizens or permanent-resident aliens hoping to bring members of their families to the United States.

The types of cases that the attorney handles today in the field of immigration law are sort of twofold: number one, there is a proceeding called exclusion; number two, there is a proceeding called deportation. The difference between these two types of proceedings is as follows. An exclusion proceeding involves the right or the claim of the alien to be admitted to the United States. The deportation proceeding is instituted against an alien whom the United States Government believes is in the country unlawfully.

If any right of the alien or any right of the United States citizen or a lawful permanent resident is being

violated—we don't see it happening here in this district. The basic problem that exists here, and I'm speaking on behalf of the Hawaii chapter, it's not my personal view, is—unlike the State of California, the State of New York, or any one of our other 49 States, excepting probably Alaska—Hawaii is slightly disadvantaged as far as the rights of the alien and the rights of the citizen who is seeking to bring his loved ones to America. That is, we do not have what is called an immigration judge permanently presiding, that is, a person who hears the deportation-exclusion cases.

For some reason or another, either because we are stranded out here in the Pacific or because there is a lack of funds to provide a full-time immigration judge here in Hawaii to immediately hear these cases, the rights of the aliens and the citizens to a speedy hearing are being denied.

Our immigration judges arrive here every 2 months or so. You may say, "Well, you know, don't cases take a long time anyway in our civil courts and in our criminal courts to come before a judge or a hearing officer?" Yes, they do, but in immigration we feel that if those aliens or those citizens in California and in New York are being afforded early hearings, hearings that can be notified or set up within 7 days or less, we think that the alien here in Hawaii and the citizens here in Hawaii are being denied a fundamental right, a right that could affect an early reunification of a family. And therefore, we would say as a chapter, as a group concerned about the rights of the alien and the rights of the citizen

\* William F. Thompson III is an attorney in private practice in Hawaii. He is a member of the Board of Governors, National Association of Immigration and Naturalization Lawyers.

associated with the alien, why can't we have a hearing officer here sooner than the 2-month period we now have?

The other area of concern to all attorneys, and this is true with any type of bureaucracy that you are dealing with, is a matter of time again. While our district office, I think, perhaps adjudicates or works on its petitions or its applications faster than perhaps other district offices throughout the United States, we still would say, "We would like everything done like yesterday, because there is the important element of time that affects the rights of the alien and affects the rights of the citizen who is trying to petition these aliens there."

Let me show you an example. Let's say that a husband files a petition for his wife in Tokyo. Let's say, while the Immigration Service is working on this petition, and for some reason or another we are experiencing what we would consider a long delay, the citizen spouse dies. That alien spouse will not be allowed to come to the United States even though she may be carrying her deceased husband's child. I'm saying also that even if the citizen spouse doesn't die, you are, in affect, by this delay effecting the right of the citizen spouse to be reunited with his spouse as soon as possible.

It's basically a lack of manpower. It means that our government should consider increasing the number of adjudicators throughout the entire Service offices.

When the new Commissioner of the Immigration and Naturalization Service [INS] came into office, one of his goals was to try to reduce this great delay of adjudication of petitions and applications. What he did was better than not doing anything. He simply went to various Immigration and Naturalization Service district offices and pulled out bodies and sent them to district offices in Los Angeles and New York and tried to facilitate the early approval or denial of these petitions. That's fine; but when he did that, he also affected the district office in Hawaii, which has always been, I think, basically as effective as it can be with the manpower shortage.

It affected us here in Hawaii. You take two bodies away from Hawaii and you are going to delay, naturally, the adjudication process. So, our good friends in Los Angeles and San Francisco, where the backlog is unbearable and 2 years behind, get our employees to assist them, but at the expense of the citizen and alien in Hawaii.

There is absolutely no reason in my mind why in the field of immigration and nationality law our Government cannot consider increasing the manpower staff. We need them here in Hawaii.

Again, like I say, the period of time in which we are adjudicating petitions or applications is better than California, it's better than New York, but it's still slow for those who want to be reunited with their loved ones as soon as reasonably possible.

MS. PUTMAN. Do you have the kind of workload that would call for one person full time to carry out those functions?

MR. THOMPSON. I believe so. I believe that if the Immigration Service could have an additional staff member or two, that member could be assigned to do adjudications only. The problem with most district offices today is that the public servant is 1 minute answering the telephone and 1 minute talking to a member of the public and 1 minute getting back to the petition or application—he just can't do it.

I couldn't do my work properly if I had to jump from telephone to client and back to the brief that I'm trying to submit in support of a client's claim. It can't be done. You've got to concentrate. But you can't do it sometimes in a small office where you can't specialize. The adjudicator has to be able to address the public and take care of the telephones and jump up and look for files. But he shouldn't have to. It's a problem if you don't have the bodies.

MS. PUTMAN. Are there other significant civil rights and equal rights issues that you have come across involving the immigration and naturalization law?

MR. THOMPSON. It's something that we felt has been a problem, and that is the lack of representation and lack of counsel.

MS. PUTMAN. An ACLU member testified this morning to the effect that this is the most serious problem, particularly towards the indigent alien newcomers. Is there any response from the association of immigration lawyers to that effect?

MR. THOMPSON. There is. I think the association has always felt that the indigent and their loved ones, who are citizens, are being rudely affected by the lack of proper services. But what can we do about it? It may be the problem for the bar association to take up. We have the legal aid association. We have had it for years. They were once servicing the indigent. But now it's my understanding that they no longer service the indigent.

MS. PUTMAN. Do you think that is primarily a State or Federal responsibility?

MR. THOMPSON. It's the same—I would have to equate it with what Judge King and Judge Wong would do here in Hawaii in the Federal courts. Where it's a Federal matter, they will then appoint counsel. I see absolutely no reason, if you do not have the legal facilities available to the indigent in this State, why we cannot incorporate, under the Federal statutes, the right of our Federal judge to appoint counsel at a minimal fee in immigration proceedings.

Again, like I say, we haven't got the people to service the indigent. It would be worse if we created a legal aid society with incompetent attorneys.

We, as a chapter, have stepped in at times when called upon. But you know, there are only 24 hours in a day, and we just can't do it everyday.

MS. PUTMAN. I understand the law school is going to have a special course in immigration law as part of the curriculum. Do you think that will help?

MR. THOMPSON. Well, God bless our law school, and God bless those who come out of it. But immigration is just so highly specialized; you just can't go to the obstetrician who just got out of medical school, I don't think. Let him take an internship for 2 years, and then let him operate.

That is our concern even for those attorneys who have been in practice in the State of Hawaii for 5 years or more. If you don't know what an immigrant is and if you don't know what a nonimmigrant is, lo and behold, they will allow an alien to be deported based upon negligence. We don't want that. The association doesn't want that. But the only solution that our association can see, frankly, is that we must ask our Federal courts to use their power, their authority to appoint counsel for the immigrant. It may take legislation.

MS. PUTMAN. For the record, Mr. Thompson, did you bring any prepared testimony?

MR. THOMPSON. No. I didn't.

There is one more area of civil rights that we feel that the association has helped with which is rather serious, and Congress for years has done nothing even though bill after bill has been introduced, and that is this: the U.S. consuls abroad have extreme power and authority. They are not reviewable by any court in the United States.

In other words, let's assume Mr. O'Shea's office denies a petition, denies an application. I can appeal that decision through certain administrative avenues

or through the courts. That right of review is available to the alien and to the citizen when that person is here in the United States. Now, when the alien is seeking to enter the United States to be reunited with his loved ones, the U.S. consul abroad, be it Manila, Tokyo, or wherever, could arbitrarily and capriciously deny the petition or application for entrance into the United States.

I cannot sue Mr. Vance. I can, but I'm not going to win. I'd get defeated on the theory that the courts have no jurisdiction over the actions of the public servant abroad. At best, I can ask the Visa Office to review the consul's denial, and even though the reviewing officer back in Washington, D.C., from the Visa Office of the Department of State can disagree with the consul's action, he cannot overrule the consul's actions in the end. That, I think, is a serious situation in which at least there should be some authority allowing for judicial review or for an administrative review with the power to review and to change where appropriate.

I think one final word would be this: again, unlike California, unlike New York, and unlike some of the other States with district offices, the district office here in Hawaii does not have what is called a detention facility. A detention facility is exactly what it says. It is an area in which the alien is detained temporarily while an investigation is being conducted for a hearing that is going to be held.

We are at a disadvantage here in Hawaii. What happens when the alien is going to be detained, that is, if he's not released on bond by Mr. O'Shea, and there is good cause that he cannot release this alien, this alien is then sent to Halawa, Halawa being our institution for those who have been convicted of serious crimes. We do not think that aliens should be placed in the same surroundings as those who are professional criminals. The alien at this stage, when he is detained, is not a criminal. But, because of a lack of a physical detention facility, this man or this woman is being thrown in with hardened criminals. This we think is wrong. Again, how do we correct it? We have no solution to offer. It is a matter of space in the State of Hawaii.

MS. PUTMAN. Have you and your association taken a position about the Carter proposal on amnesty for illegal aliens?

MR. THOMPSON. Our association believes in the amnesty program, and needless to say, it is possibly one solution to solving the illegal alien problem.

And we have always felt that the period 1948 has long gone by,<sup>1</sup> and the anxiety that must go on in these aliens' minds is unbearable, I'm sure. We believe that after a certain period of time there is absolutely no reason to not admit a person who has been here.

We are pleased with a bill that would allow the alien to finally come out of hiding. We feel, however, that in a way the bill would do something else. You are saying to the illegal alien who has been here *X* years, "Welcome to the United States." On the other hand, the aliens who are here legally as nonimmigrants are the ones who are not going to benefit from amnesty. They may be here for 7 years going to school and yet they will not be brought within the amnesty provision. As I read it, you must be illegal: you must be undocumented in the United States before you get this blessing.

So you may have, like I say, perfectly legal persons attending the University of Hawaii or Chaminade [University of Honolulu] and perhaps it has taken them a few more years to get through and they have come here within the period of time that would qualify them for amnesty; but, because they are legal, we are saying, "Go home." Academically, it sort of throws you in trying to resolve it. But generally, the President's bill, we believe, is adequate for the immediate relief of a serious problem.

Past administrations have introduced into Congress what is called an employers sanction bill. One of the concerns with the illegal alien has been the belief that the alien is here taking a job away from a citizen or from a lawful permanent resident. The employers sanction bill, which has never passed, would have created a civil or criminal sanction upon an employer, and that includes General Motors, if that employer knowingly and willfully hired an alien who he knew to be illegal. Our association takes the stand that you are going to create a problem for those aliens of Latin American descent or who are not blond-haired and blue-eyed Caucasians. You are immediately going to create discrimination against the physical characteristics of certain people because the employer will hesitantly hire anyone knowing that the sanction could be imposed.

That bill never got through, and we have doubts whether an employer sanction bill would. There is a definite violation of the civil rights of an alien when

he would be discriminated against basically on race or color or appearance.

MS. PUTMAN. And that is directly contrary to the fair employment practice laws.

MR. THOMPSON. Right.

MS. PUTMAN. I'm wondering—you mentioned your concerns for regulations or responsibilities at the Federal level. We had testimony earlier from Reinhard Mohr of the American Civil Liberties Union, and he mentioned that he was concerned about—may I just quote—he says, "A thorough rethinking of the moral, social, political, and constitutional foundations of the immigration laws will have to take place." And he mentions an immediate end to all INS interrogations, an immediate end to inquiry into the political beliefs and associations of aliens, and more enlightened policies in relation to sexual conduct of aliens, and he goes on to mention five or six others. Do you see the Federal Government getting into that and maybe regulating or making some of the laws and restrictions more in keeping with what is happening?

MR. THOMPSON. They could. It is a Federal problem, and it would have to take place at that level. Congress would have to reexamine the Immigration and Nationality Act and perhaps bring it in more conformity with the mores of the time.

We believe that the act is archaic. As far as the interrogation problem, I don't see how you are going to have an enforceable immigration act without it. We have to work both sides. We have to have a fair act. If you do away with interrogation, you are going to do away with the determination of who is legal and who is illegal.

There has to be a certain amount of interrogation. If that association felt that the method of interrogation should be improved, fine. We believe that is proper. We don't think that an interrogator should go into certain questions, but we haven't found that to be the problem here in Hawaii. Perhaps in New York it might.

But the act could do with some rehabilitation in certain areas. Basically, as far as political affiliation—that is a touchy subject. Right now we prohibit one who has had any communistic bonds from coming into the United States. If that person cannot show within the past 5 years he or she actively opposed communism, the person is inadmissible as a permanent resident.

<sup>1</sup> An undocumented alien may avoid deportation and become a lawful resident alien if (s)he entered the United States prior to June 30, 1948, and meets certain other requirements, 8 U.S.C. §1259 (1970.)

One of the inconsistencies when we are talking about the issue of communism is this: The act itself is rather strange because, while it says one who is coming here to live permanently as an immigrant must actively show that he has opposed communism for the past 5 years, our law allows Communists to come in temporarily. The inconsistency as you can see is, how can you allow someone to come in who is a Communist on a temporary basis knowing that that person could decide not to depart the United States and, if you are fearful of the fact that the person might teach his political principles, he can do it on a temporary visa as well as on a permanent visa.

That inconsistency is hard to swallow. We believe where you will prevent one from coming in who is married to a citizen, who was a Communist, perhaps back when she was 18 years old and now she's 25 years old, and we have to show that within the past 5 years that she has stood up on the soapbox and said, "I hate Communists," is wrong. You can't always show within the past 5 years that anyone has done anything other than perhaps not subscribe to a political magazine propounding that type of a theory.

These are the areas we wish Congress would review.

MS. PUTMAN. Do we have any laws on nazism or anything of that sort? Do we identify only communism as un-American?

MR. THOMPSON. Well, anything that is contrary; I'm saying this as an example.

MS. PUTMAN. Well, I just wanted to clarify whether it was just an example.

MR. THOMPSON. It was just an example.

MS. PUTMAN. Okay. I have some concern about any law that might discriminate on the basis of gender. Do you find any problems with the Immigration and Naturalization Service law in the area of sex discrimination?

MR. THOMPSON. No. I do not.

MS. PUTMAN. It seemed that I heard something about a provision that if a woman was temporarily in the country, an alien, and gave birth to a baby, it became the place of birth for the child and established American citizenship, and then she can become a citizen through the child.<sup>2</sup> But that is not the case for the father of the children.

<sup>2</sup> Under current immigration law, parents of U.S. citizens may not enter as immigrants without regard to annual quotas unless their children are 21 years of age or older, 8 U.S.C. §1151(b) (1970). Parents whose children are

Are you familiar with that kind of discrimination?

MR. THOMPSON. No. I think you may be getting into something else.

MS. PUTMAN. Clarify it for me.

MR. THOMPSON. It is a basic problem, but that is not going to happen in Hawaii, because we have what's called a Uniform Parentage Act. I think that is what you're getting into, but if not, I'm sorry.

The Immigration Act says that a mother of an illegitimate child may receive certain benefits from that child. In other words, when that child reaches the age of 21, he or she would be in the position to petition his or her mother to come here as a permanent resident. The discrimination would come now when the child cannot petition for the alleged father.

MS. PUTMAN. That is a State law, though?

MR. THOMPSON. Right. The Immigration and Naturalization Service will follow the State law. In other words, our State law basically says now that if there are certain conditions then the father may claim the child as his legitimate child.

We recently had a case where we were successful in convincing the Service, one, that we do have the Uniform Parentage Act, and number two, we have the facts supporting the petition, and happily, the Service did grant the petition and the father of this illegitimate child will be reunited in another 2 months.

MS. PUTMAN. You don't know of any other classifications?

MR. THOMPSON. No. Not really.

MS. MANUEL. The legal problem with indigent aliens and the present eviction problems in Chinatown where the people have been asked to move out; how do you help those people with their immigration status?

MR. THOMPSON. Are they aliens?

MS. MANUEL. Most are aliens.

MR. THOMPSON. Well, it becomes what we call a civil problem. In other words, the attorney who handles those types of cases we don't usually qualify as an immigration attorney. It becomes a matter of a civil nature, and it may not make too much difference whether the tenant being evicted is an alien or is not an alien as far as the State law is concerned.

Does that answer your question?

U.S. citizens and under 21 years of age also are not entitled to preference consideration under the numerical quota system, 8 U.S.C. §1153(a)(1) through (7) (1978.)



In other words, I don't think there's any discrimination, per se, as far as we know between an alien tenant or a citizen tenant. The clients that we have represented have never expressed this nor have we

heard anything whereby the mere fact of being an alien has caused exclusion. That we haven't seen.

Ms. PUTMAN. Thank you very much. We appreciate you coming.

# 9. The Kalihi-Palama Immigrant Service Center

## Presentation of Gary Omori\*

The Kalihi-Palama Immigrant Service Center [KPISC] was founded in 1973 by the State Immigrant Services Center as a model cities program. The major thrust of this program was to service the geographic area of Kalihi-Palama due to a high percentage of immigrants residing in this area. At present, the geographic boundaries extend from Kalihi-Palama through Hawaii Kai.

Presently, the administering agency is the [Hawaii] Commission on Manpower and Full Employment, through the State Immigrant Services Center which is under the office of the Governor. The State Immigrant Services Center in turn subcontracts to the Palama Interchurch Council which operates the Kalihi-Palama Immigrant Service Center.

For FY 1977 and 1978, the Kalihi-Palama Immigrant Service Center received \$90,000 from the State and \$26,000 worth of positions from the CETA [Comprehensive Employment and Training Act] program through the city and county offices of human resources. The Kalihi-Palama Immigrant Service Center has a total of eight community workers—two Korean, one Pilipino, two Vietnamese, one Laotian, one Chinese, and one Samoan.

Of those community workers, three are CETA, one VISTA [Volunteer in Service to America] volunteer, one clerk/receptionist, one contract accountant, and a program director.

Quantitatively, the KPISC measures its work output in five basic ways—total individuals served, total client contacts, new clients, services performed, and closed cases.

Each client is assigned a separate number to avoid duplicate counting, and every transaction is documented by the community worker as either new or followup. Upon first contact, the community worker evaluates the client's needs and his relative state of adjustment to the environment, and specifies each separate treatable orientation problem with which he needs help. Next, a plan of intervention is devised whereby the community worker, the client, and perhaps some outside resource people attempt to resolve each problem, beginning with the most crucial.

Resolution may entail one simple interpretation over the telephone, or it may require several interpretations all over the city, several referrals, counseling, a job hunt, a house hunt, exhaustive information giving, and filling of many forms. If the center cannot resolve a problem, the client is forwarded to another agency which can. While the case is active with the KPISC, the community worker keeps detailed accounts of each individual client's progress.

When all treatable problems have been confronted and satisfactorily resolved, the case is closed under the category "service complete." Restated, "service complete" means that in the professional opinion of the community worker the direct services performed in response to the client's expressed and implied orientation needs directly resulted in satisfactory resolution of the problem or problems. The community worker's client records constitute a continuous measurement of the relative degree of

\* Gary Omori is the director of the Kalihi-Palama Immigrant Service Center.

the client's adjustment and the progress made to resolve his specific problems.

Other case termination categories "moved," "unable to contact," "referred to another agency," and "died" are self-explanatory.

Before going into pertinent data regarding KPISC activities in 1977 through 1978, I should first explain how we categorize the services we perform in terms of client needs. Basically, we classify our services as either primary orientation services or secondary orientation services.

Primary orientation services are those which are of first necessity to the newcomer. These include information giving; interpretation; filling out forms; and employment, housing, job training, and financial referrals.

Past experience has shown that the typical newcomer is usually able to make a satisfactory adjustment to the new environment within 2 to 3 years, and while he is in transition, he is most likely to require primary orientation services. The longer he resides here the less dependent upon primary services he becomes and the more he can turn to secondary orientation services for improvement of his personal situation.

Secondary orientation services are referrals and personal transactions which require the participation of the client and his willingness to help himself. These involve things such as health, education, and counseling. Newly arrived immigrants usually do not have the time to explore these areas right away because they are still involved with the primary survival battle. However, once they achieve a reasonably solid footing in the community, then they may look into secondary areas of improvement, and the KPISC is equipped to help them.

With this brief background on how we view our organization and our services, it is now appropriate to share with you some of the important statistics generated out of the last program year.<sup>1</sup>

First, let's look at the new clients we enrolled during 1977-1978 from the point of view of ethnicity and also from the point of view of how long they have been in the United States. [See table 1.]

Bear in mind that an immigrant is a permanent resident who has been here less than 5 years,

whereas an alien is a permanent resident who has been here more than 5 years.<sup>2</sup> A Samoan is an American national, and I think everyone by now knows what a refugee is.

The Kalihi-Palama Immigrant Service Center took in 1,673 new clients in 1977 to 1978, the largest ethnic group being Koreans, 36.5 percent, followed by Indochinese refugees, 26.8 percent, most of whom were Laotians. Ninety-one and six-tenths percent of the new clients had arrived in the United States since 1972, meeting the criterion of immigrant; 88 percent of these were very new arrivals seeking assistance during their period of greatest dependency on public and private resources; only 8.4 percent of our new clients arrived prior to 1972, and of these, 61.7 percent were Pilipino aliens or Samoans, most of whom live in semi-isolation and continue to experience some cultural disorientation.

On the whole, these figures indicate that the KPISC is addressing the correct target group and reaches a significant portion of all of Hawaii's new arrivals from Asia and the Pacific.

Typically, a KPISC client will stay with us for several months, sometimes over a year, while he is adjusting himself to the new environment and learning enough about America and Honolulu to get along on his own. The following figures represent the actual number of separate individuals who were active clients with KPISC in 1977-78. [See table 2.]

Subtracting the 1,675 new clients signed up last year, 1,109 were carryovers from 1976-1977.

Again, as with the new client figures, Koreans were the largest ethnic group seeking service, followed closely by the Indochinese refugees, reflecting an observable increase in immigration trends to Hawaii over the past few years.

Our next statistical category is total client contacts from which can be generalized the degree of difficulty the various ethnic groups have adjusting to Hawaii and their dependencies on outside assistance. [See table 3.]

If you look at this [referring to the slides of table 3] it is obvious that the Chinese and Indochinese clients have the more serious or complex difficulties because they returned for assistance considerably more than the other ethnic groups.

<sup>1</sup> Unless otherwise noted, the source for all tables in Mr. Omoris presentation is the Kalihi-Palama Immigrant Service Center.

<sup>2</sup> The Immigration and Naturalization Service definition of an immigrant is everyone who is not a nonimmigrant; that is to say, an immigrant is an alien who has abandoned his foreign residence and plans to reside permanently in

the United States. The term "alien," in the Immigration and Naturalization Service view, refers to a person who is not a citizen or national of the United States. U.S., Department of Justice, Immigration and Naturalization Service, Honolulu District Office, "Review of the Hawaii Advisory Committee Consultation proceedings" (Feb. 28, 1977, draft).

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**TABLE 1****KPISC New Clients, 1977-78**

<b>Year of immigration</b>	<b>Chinese</b>	<b>Pilipino</b>	<b>Korean</b>	<b>Samoan</b>	<b>Indoch.</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>%</b>
1975-78	111	184	469	140	444	1,348	80.6
1972-74	19	35	102	24	4	184	11.0
1967-71	7	35	19	14	1	76	4.5
Pre-1967	4	26	17	8	—	55	3.3
Local born	2	4	4	—	—	10	0.6
Total	143	284	611	186	449	1,673	100.0
Percent	8.6	17.0	36.5	11.1	26.8	100.0	

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Source: Kalihi-Palama Immigrant Service Center, 1978.

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**TABLE 2****KPISC Total Individual Clients Served, 1977-78  
(Unduplicated)**

<b>Ethnic group</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Chinese	385	13.8
Pilipino	491	17.7
Korean	837	30.1
Samoan	324	11.6
Indochinese	745	26.8
Total	2,782	100.0

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Source: Kalihi-Palama Immigrant Service Center, 1978.

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**TABLE 3****KPISC Total Client Contacts, 1977-78**

<b>Ethnic group</b>	<b>Number</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Chinese	1,780	18.2
Pilipino	1,420	14.5
Korean	2,362	24.1
Samoan	833	8.5
Indochinese	3,398	34.7
Total	9,793	100.0

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Source: Kalihi-Palama Immigrant Service Center, 1978.

This observation will be further borne out by a brief analysis of the services performed by KPISC in 1977-78. [See table 4.]

The KPISC performed 27,440 separate services for its clients in 1977 to 1978, an increase of 3,158 over 1976-1977. Of these 27,440, 52 percent were primary orientation services, 39 percent were secondary orientation services, and 9 percent were follow-up. The largest service categories, in order, were interpretation, information giving, filling out forms, counseling, casework interviews, collaboration with other agencies, employment referrals, and health referrals. The typical KPISC client received an average of 10 separate services as the result of his average 3.5 contacts with the agency.

Here are some brief observations on the needs and problems of the five ethnic groups served by the center generalized from the following data. A more detailed analysis will be forthcoming with our annual report, which will be available to the public.

I will take each ethnic group in alphabetical order, starting with the Chinese. [See table 5.]

Chinese clients, while constituting only 14 percent of all the interpretation services, indicate that they have substantial difficulties communicating in Hawaii and need someone to talk for them at doctors' offices, government offices, and so on. The Chinese community workers performed 42 percent of all the KPISC collaborative services last year because of this tendency for newly arrived Chinese or elder residents who do not have the opportunity to learn English. Despite this problem, however, only 14 individuals were referred to English classes or adult evening schools. One explanation for this apparent dilemma is that many Chinese adults work long hours and have little time to attend classes. Their children, on the other hand, tend to do well at school.

Employment does not appear to be a major problem, at least not in our statistics, because the community worker saw the need to offer only 30 referrals last year. Most newly arrived Chinese find employment quickly, and they are usually in restaurants. Whether or not this employment is suitable by contemporary community standards is a subject that might be researched separately.

In summary, the service pattern for the Chinese clients in 1977 to 1978 indicates that they tend to isolate themselves from the rest of the community while working long, hard hours, and their most

severe social adjustment problems center around their inability to effectively communicate in English.

The Pilipino clients requested a broad range of services last year with emphasis on information, counseling, casework interviews, and collaborative services. They also received 27 percent of the employment referrals, 74 percent placements, and 51 percent of the job training referrals, strongly indicating that their adjustment needs and problems are on the primary level and are financially oriented, even though 35.2 percent of the new clients arrived in the United States prior to 1975 and, statistically, should have passed their primary dependency period. [See table 6.]

This is partially explained by the fact that many Pilipino aliens on Oahu remain socially isolated and continue to need assistance from time to time even after many years of residence.

The Pilipino clients also required the fewest number of immigration office referrals, indicating that their problems are possibly more social in nature than the technical kinds of problems dealing with the legality of residing in the United States, such as are experienced quite heavily by the Indo-chinese and Samoan clients.

Indochinese clients—745 individuals served in 1977-1978—were all recent arrivals and well within their expected period of dependency upon outside assistance with primary needs. [See table 7.] Therefore, it is not surprising that they received 38 percent of all the KPISC primary orientation services last year.

Of all the ethnic groups served by the center, Indochinese led in interpretations, filling out forms, counseling, transportation, legal referrals, and casework interviews. They received few welfare and employment referrals because there have been specific agencies in operation taking care of those needs for over 2 years.

However, most of the refugees are to some extent dependent upon social assistance for financial and medical matters and tend to make best use of the KPISC for interpretations and counseling and with seeing them through all aspects of the complicated immigration and naturalization requirements for permanent residency and naturalization.

Korean clients were also recent arrivals—77 percent arrived since 1975—and in their period of dependency as KPISC clients, they received the largest share of information services, the most employment referrals, the most financial referrals,

**TABLE 4****Kalihi-Palama Immigrant Service Center Services, 1977-78**

	(385) Chinese	(491) Pilipino	(837) Korean	(324) Samoan	(745) Indoch.	(2,782) Total	%
<b>Primary services</b>							
Information	723	870	1,324	591	924	4,432	16.2
Interpretation	1,045	421	715	493	1,982	4,656	17.0
Filling of forms	251	304	434	271	2,294	3,554	12.9
Employment ref. (Placements)	30 5	253 74	509 97	46 4	107 41	945 221	3.4 —
Housing referrals (Placements)	23 7	25 6	66 8	2 2	27 24	143 47	0.5 —
Financial ref.	24	20	340	26	46	456	1.7
Job training ref.	1	42	25	1	13	82	0.3
Total primary	2,097	1,935	3,413	1,430	5,393	14,268	52.0
% Primary	14.7	13.6	23.9	10.0	37.8	100.0	—
% Grand total	7.6	7.1	12.4	5.2	19.7	52.0	—
Avg. primary/client	5.4	3.9	4.1	4.4	7.2	5.1	—
<b>Secondary Services:</b>							
Casework interviews	333	722	611	191	969	2,826	10.3
Counseling	467	615	767	415	1,021	3,285	12.0
Collaboration	880	565	432	46	192	2,115	7.7
Transportation	121	158	271	69	312	931	3.4
Health ref.	127	128	240	10	54	559	2.0
Immigration ref.	32	14	67	153	141	407	1.5
Education ref.	14	30	91	7	66	208	0.8
Legal ref.	7	7	31	11	52	108	0.4
Other ref.	4	17	53	—	67	141	0.5
Total secondary	1,985	2,256	2,563	902	2,874	10,580	38.6
% Secondary	18.8	21.3	24.2	8.5	27.2	100.0	—
% Grand total	7.2	8.2	9.3	3.3	10.5	38.5	—
Avg. secondary/client	5.2	4.6	3.1	2.8	3.9	3.8	—
<b>Follow-up Services:</b>	146	246	862	740	598	2,592	9.4
%	5.6	9.5	33.3	28.5	23.1	100.0	—
% Grand total	0.5	0.9	3.1	2.8	3.9	3.8	—
<b>Grand total services:</b>	4,228	4,437	6,838	3,072	8,865	27,440	100.0
%	15.4	16.2	24.9	11.2	32.3	100.0	—
Avg. services/client	11.0	9.0	8.2	9.5	11.9	9.9	—

Source: Kalihi-Palama Immigrant Service Center, 1978.

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**TABLE 5****Problems and Reasons for Closing Cases of Chinese Immigrants**

	<b>Service complete</b>	<b>Moved</b>	<b>Unable to contact</b>	<b>Referred</b>	<b>Died</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>%</b>
Employment	60	5	1	2	—	68	14.0
Housing	45	2	—	—	—	47	9.0
Health	98	1	—	—	—	99	20.0
Financial	56	—	—	2	2	60	12.0
Education	63	4	—	2	—	69	14.0
Immigration	38	3	—	—	—	41	8.0
Legal	18	2	—	—	1	21	4.0
Personal/ orientation	67	3	—	6	1	77	16.0
Total	445	20	1	12	4	482	100.0
Percent	92.3	4.2	0.2	2.5	0.8	100.0	

Source: Kalihi-Palama Immigrant Service Center, 1978.



**TABLE 6****Problems and Reasons for Closing Cases of Pilipino Immigrants**

	<b>Service complete</b>	<b>Moved</b>	<b>Unable to contact</b>	<b>Referred</b>	<b>Died</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>%</b>
Employment	52	26	14	2	—	94	34.1
Housing	8	4	—	1	—	13	4.7
Health	22	7	7	2	—	38	13.8
Financial	33	16	8	9	—	66	23.9
Education	9	7	1	—	—	17	6.2
Immigration	10	10	2	4	—	26	9.4
Legal	6	1	—	—	—	7	2.5
Personal/ orientation	9	3	2	1	—	15	5.4
Total	149	74	34	19	—	276	100.0
Percent	54.0	26.8	12.3	6.9	—	100.0	

Source: Kalihi-Palama Immigrant Service Center, 1978.

**TABLE 7****Problems and Reasons for Closing Cases of Indochinese Immigrants**

	<b>Service complete</b>	<b>Moved</b>	<b>Unable to contact</b>	<b>Referred</b>	<b>Died</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>%</b>
Employment	35	7	—	—	—	42	10.6
Housing	9	3	—	—	—	12	3.0
Health	52	7	—	—	—	59	14.9
Financial	24	5	—	—	—	29	7.3
Education	21	7	—	—	—	28	7.1
Immigration	127	19	1	—	—	147	37.1
Legal	35	8	—	—	—	43	10.9
Personal/ orientation	34	2	—	—	—	36	9.1
Total	337	58	1	—	—	396	100.0
Percent	85.1	14.7	0.2	—	—	100.0	

Source: Kalihi-Palama Immigrant Service Center, 1978.

the most health referrals, the most housing and education referrals, and the second most counseling, casework interview, transportation, and job training referrals. This indicates that their adjustment problems are many, varied, complex, and of a serious nature. [See table 8.]

Unlike other ethnic groups, whose problems seem to be centered in a few specific areas, the typical Korean immigrant seems to be least prepared for the American experience in most aspects of life and needs the broadest range of services to start him off on the right foot. Koreans are the center's fastest growing client group.

Samoans are American nationals, with the exception of Western Samoans, and can come and go as they please. Technically, they are not immigrants, but because many experience the same kinds of adjustment difficulties as Asian and other Pacific people, they are included in the KPISC target group.

On the whole, Samoans request the smallest range of services of all the groups served by the center. In 1977-1978 they received the fewest housing, health, and education referrals and the second fewest employment referrals, indicating that their problems may not be primary in nature. However, they receive the largest number of immigration office referrals, mostly dealing with specific problems such as filling out "affidavits of support" to bring their spouses or relatives to Hawaii, or interpretations at the immigration office, usually in connection with the same activity. [See table 9.]

Socially, the Samoan clients appear to be adequately oriented, at least to the extent that they understand American culture and institutions. However, because of the differences in lifestyles and family systems in Hawaii and Samoa, many Samoans find it hard to make a satisfactory adjustment to local life and tend to isolate themselves from the rest of the community. Therefore, it is anticipated that there will be a continuing need for Samoan community services at the KPISC in future years, with increased emphasis on counseling.

Aside from the various categories of services the Kalihi-Palama Immigrant Service Center has been actively engaged in, we have had a few orientation tours. That depends upon what kinds of funds we have available. These tours go around the island or they might just go to points of interest around the island.

With this brief summary, I believe information on the closed cases would be profitable. Like other service delivery agencies, the KPISC measures its effectiveness primarily by the number and percentage of cases it was able to successfully close over a period of time. The process of termination is approached very soberly, and each case is studied thoroughly before a final disposition is made.

As previously mentioned, the community workers are well versed in being able to respond to stated and implied needs and apply appropriate strategies for resolution. Our data reporting system requires complete recording of all problems and services rendered on a daily basis. Only when all problems have been addressed and resolved is the case considered for termination.

Table 10 is self-explanatory. As you can see, a total of 901 cases were closed. Of the problems presented in the major primary areas for services, we found 1,622 separate problems presented in the closed cases: 85 percent of these problems were resolved at the center; 11 percent moved out of the area; 3 percent were unable to contact; 2 percent were referred and assigned to other agencies.

I must apologize for not having the table available which illustrates a significant increase from 1975 of the number of cases closed in 1978 and an increased percentage in the services-complete category.

It is highly probable that the community workers of this center have been very successful in delivering services to the recipient population, especially in the area of major primary needs. This success rate can be readily attributed to the cooperation of other public and private agencies and the support of the Kalihi-Palama Interagency Council for Immigrant Services for encouraging a unified effort in getting services to the immigrants.

This concludes one portion of my presentation on agency functions, and I would now like to move on to some issues relating to common concerns.

Before I venture into this area, perhaps, I should first clarify the method which I will be using in defining the issues that affect members of this community. To me, the most important issues that we would like to ask you to explore are those which directly, in the opinion of our service agencies, affect immigrants.

Of major concern are the issues which hinder accessibility of available services to immigrants. One of the major fears among the immigrants, with the

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**TABLE 8****Problems and Reasons for Closing Cases of Korean Immigrants**

	Service complete	Moved	Unable to contact	Referred	Died	Total	%
Employment	60	—	—	—	—	60	18.9
Housing	22	—	—	—	—	22	6.9
Health	113	—	—	—	—	113	35.7
Financial	73	—	—	—	—	73	23.0
Education	22	—	—	—	—	22	6.9
Immigration	11	—	—	—	—	11	3.5
Legal	16	—	—	—	—	16	5.1
Personal/ orientation	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	317	—	—	—	—	317	100.0
Percent	100.0	—	—	—	—	—	—

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Source: Kalihi-Palama Immigrant Service Center, 1978.

**TABLE 9****Problems and Reasons for Closing Cases of Samoan Immigrants**

	Service complete	Moved	Unable to contact	Referred	Died	Total	%
Employment	11	2	—	—	—	13	9.0
Housing	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Health	13	1	—	—	—	14	9.7
Financial	17	4	1	—	—	22	15.3
Education	4	—	—	—	—	4	2.8
Immigration	72	10	5	—	—	87	60.4
Legal	4	—	—	—	—	4	2.8
Personal/ orientation	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Total	121	17	6	—	—	144	100.0
Percent	84.0	11.8	4.2	—	—	100.0	

Source: Kalihi-Palama Immigrant Service Center, 1978.

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**TABLE 10****KPISC Reasons for Closing Asian American Cases, July 1, 1977, to June 30, 1978**

	<b>Service complete</b>	<b>Unable to contact</b>	<b>Moved</b>	<b>Referred</b>	<b>Died</b>	<b>Total</b>	<b>Percent</b>
Chinese	264	1	15	9	1	290	32.2
Pilipino	84	19	40	7	—	150	16.6
Korean	155	—	—	—	—	155	17.2
Samoan	106	6	14	—	—	126	14.0
Indochinese	163	1	16	—	—	180	20.4
Total	772	27	85	16	1	901	100.0
Percent	85.7	3.0	9.4	1.8	0.1	100.0	

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Source: Kalihi-Palama Immigrant Service Center, 1978.

exception of American nationals and refugees, is the fear of deportation.

The Immigration and Naturalization Act, section 241, subparagraph A, states that:

Hereafter, an alien can be deported within 5 years after entry, if the alien becomes institutionalized at public expense because of mental disease, defect, or deficiency unless the alien can show that such disease, defect, or deficiency did not exist prior to his admission to the United States.<sup>3</sup>

In the application to file a petition for naturalization, the Immigration and Naturalization Service asks, "Have you ever been a patient in an institution or been treated anywhere else for a mental or nervous illness or disorder?" We feel this question is unnecessary, and any alien with a mental disorder can answer "no" to this without having too much to fear because, if a psychiatrist has been seeing him, the psychiatrist must respect the confidentiality of the information he is collecting from the alien during the treatment process. The psychiatrist does not have the liberty of divulging any information without the consent of his client. This act discourages an alien from seeking assistance from mental health agencies and other services he is entitled to during a very critical point in time, which is during the resettlement phase when the alien undergoes the most stress.

This section of the Immigration and Naturalization Act, coupled with the alien's feeling of embarrassment about his English language abilities, is perhaps one of the greatest obstacles in making the process of resettlement a less stressful one.

We understand that the U.S. Embassy in the Philippines is requiring sponsors to get a letter from the Hawaii State Department of Social Services and Housing in order to assure that the sponsor is not on DSSH or receiving any form of public assistance. We question this requirement for this particular ethnic group and ask that the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights look into this matter.

The third issue we are concerned with is H.R. 7200 and its amendments. The general consensus among the center's workers on H.R. 7200 seems favorable in that they support amending social security provisions to ascribe to an alien applicant,

for such benefits, the income and resources of the sponsor.

Ms. PUTMAN. This H.R. 7200, has it been drafted?

Mr. OMORI. It is passed, but we did not get any information on this bill, and we would like to find out more about it.

Ms. PUTMAN. It's H.R. 7200?

Mr. OMORI. Right, and it states that:

any individual who receives cash benefits under the SSI program established by Title XVI, under programs established by Titles I, X, XIV, or part A of Title IV or under any other State or Federal public assistance based on need, shall for the purposes of the Immigration and Nationality Act be considered to be a "public charge" without regard to whether such alien is liable to repay such benefits or whether any demand is made for repayment.

The last thing I wanted to bring up was that I just wanted to ask the people on the Commission on Civil Rights to keep in contact with us. I come out over here and make this presentation; then you folks go back to wherever you folks are from.

Ms. PUTMAN. Let me clarify something, Gary. Louise Manuel and Donnis Thompson and I are members of the Hawaii Advisory Committee to the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. Each State has an Advisory Committee. We are holding this consultation in Hawaii today to find out the particular civil rights concerns people have with INS [Immigration and Naturalization Service] and immigration law and its administration. This report we will submit through the regional office, in California, which Tom Pilla and Laurie Campbell are part of. And that report will go to the Commission which is doing a national study, but is also interested in the particular problems that concern Hawaii. So they will take into account all your recommendations and suggestions and comments.

Mr. OMORI. Okay. I was wondering what happened after these things. Thank you.

Ms. PUTMAN. I would go further to say, Gary, that the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights reports its findings and activities to the Congress and to the President. It serves, more or less, as the conscience of the Nation in civil rights matters. We would hope that this would have an effect.

<sup>3</sup> 8 U.S.C. §1251(a)(3) (1970).

Are there any questions?

MS. MANUEL. Why is the U.S. Embassy trying to manage growth here in Hawaii? Why would you call that a problem?

MR. OMORI. Would I call the management of growth in Hawaii a problem?

MS. MANUEL. No. In order to sponsor someone from the Philippines, the U.S. Embassy needs to have a recommendation from the State welfare department stating if they have been on welfare. Is that what you are saying?

MR. OMORI. Yes. I guess what I'm questioning basically is, why is it directed towards one particular ethnic immigrant?

We are finding, according to DSSH reports, that only 8 percent of the total welfare cases are foreign born. That includes, I think, people who have resided here for more than 5 years. I'm talking about plantation people who have actually contributed into making Hawaii what it is today. I think 8 percent is a small amount.

MS. MANUEL. Do you refer these people to agencies or do you refer them to private jobs like the hotels and restaurants?

MR. OMORI. We do both. We refer them to the State department of labor, and they try to place them.

MS. MANUEL. All those Chinese people that come in who are working in restaurants—are their sponsors restaurant owners?

MR. OMORI. In fact, many times they go right into that area.

MS. THOMPSON. You had a very interesting presentation and I would just like to thank you for that.

Have you compared your statistics with the State?

MR. OMORI. The State immigration service is primarily responsible for planning and coordinating direct services that feed into the State.

MS. THOMPSON. You talked about some of the negative things that are happening in the society, but we haven't mentioned crime at all. I was wondering if there were some statistics on that?

MR. OMORI. We find that there is a very small percentage of crime because the coordination between the language ability and the percentage of them getting into trouble—if a person has lived here longer and understands English, he seems to get into criminal activities.

MS. THOMPSON. It's based on the more he knows?

MR. OMORI. The less he knows, the more he buckles down and doesn't get into trouble. The longer they stay here, the more susceptible. They understand how the system works, and they find out what they can get away with.

MS. PUTMAN. The children in the client families, do you think they are getting appropriate bilingual and cultural education in the public schools?

MR. OMORI. I don't think so. I think it's a real problem.

MS. PUTMAN. Can you expand on that?

MR. OMORI. There are two things: one is that the schools do not respond; they have other priorities. And the other problem has to do with the disintegration of the family as a unit. We see this happening.

It seems that the more education the child gets and the parents go out and work—they have a more difficult time relating to the children. You know, you have that kind of a problem occurring. It's very sad. I know that we need just as much education as other disadvantaged groups.

MS. THOMPSON. One other question: you mentioned something about a period of reliance on community service.

MR. OMORI. The first 2 or 3 years, that is when they really need the services. That's when they are in the process of resettling.

MS. MANUEL. You mentioned health problems, such as tuberculosis and various other diseases—do you come across that in the new immigrants coming in?

MR. OMORI. No. There was this article in the paper about communicable diseases. It made reference to the fact that there wasn't the problem anymore—I don't know. I may be wrong. This is what the demographer said at that time.

MS. PUTMAN. Thank you very much, Gary, we really appreciate you coming. I give you my assurance that this will be considered by the Commission.

MR. OMORI. I wanted to make just one suggestion if I may.

MS. PUTMAN. Yes.

MR. OMORI. We have this service now for the immigrants, and I was wondering if you could refer these things directly to them.

MS. PUTMAN. Yes, and we do plan to get some input in writing on that.



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