

CONTAGIOUS DIVIDES

Nayan Shah

Epidemics and Race in
San Francisco's Chinatown



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University of California Press
Berkeley · Los Angeles · London

University of California Press
Berkeley and Los Angeles, California

University of California Press, Ltd.
London, England

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Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Shah, Nayan, 1966–

Contagious divides : epidemics and race in San
Francisco's Chinatown / Nayan Shah.

p. cm. — (American crossroads ; 7)

Includes bibliographical references and index.

ISBN 0-520-22628-3 (alk. paper) —

ISBN 0-520-22629-1 (pbk. : alk. paper)

I. Chinese Americans—Health and hygiene—
—California—(Chinatown) San Francisco—His-
tory. 2. Public health—California—(China-
town) San Francisco—History. 3. Epidemics
—California—(Chinatown) San Francisco—
History. 4. Immigrants—Health and hygiene—
California—(Chinatown) San Francisco—History.
5. Chinese Americans—Health and hygiene—
Social aspects—California—(Chinatown) San
Francisco—History. I. Title. II. Series.

RA448.5.C45 S53 2001

614.4'9794'61089951073—dc21 2001027615

Manufactured in the United States of America

10 09 08 07 06 05 04 03 02 01

10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

The paper used in this publication meets the mini-
mum requirements of ANSI/NISO Z39.48-1992(R
1997) (*Permanence of Paper*).Ⓢ

Contagious Divides

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For my parents

Acknowledgments

I have depended on many mentors, colleagues, institutions, and friends to make this work possible. This project began as a dissertation at the University of Chicago and was guided by an engaging and challenging committee. Jan Goldstein, George Chauncey, and William Novak shared invaluable insights, offered research strategies, and expanded my conceptual horizons. I am especially grateful to Thomas C. Holt, who directed the dissertation project. The conversations we have had over the years have opened new worlds of interpretation for me and kindled an appreciation for the difficulties of rigorous scholarship. The warmth of his mentorship and the example of his intellectual daring and conscience have sustained me at moments when the enormity of this undertaking daunted me.

Archives and special collections throughout the United States have been invaluable to my research. I am indebted to the archival staffs of the Center for Research Libraries; the California Historical Society; the San Francisco Labor Archives and Research Center; the Bancroft Library at the University of California; the Asian American Studies Library at the University of California at Berkeley; the San Francisco History Room at the San Francisco Public Library; the National Archives in San Bruno, California; the San Francisco Theological Union in San Anselmo, California; Lane Medical Library at Stanford University; the Herbert Hoover Library; the University of California at San Francisco

Archives; the Holt-Atherton Department of Special Collections at the University of the Pacific in Stockton; the Presbyterian Office of History in Philadelphia; the Pennsylvania Medical College Archives; the National Archives in Washington, D.C.; the National Archives II in College Park, Maryland; the Oberlin College Archives; and the Special Collections of Knight Library at the University of Oregon in Eugene. Special thanks are due to Jeffrey Barr at the California Historical Society; Susan Parker Sherwood at the San Francisco Labor Archives; Wei-Chi Poon at the Asian American Studies Library; Dan Neelson at the National Archives San Bruno; and Aloha South at the National Archives in Washington, D.C. I have also benefited from the archival guidance and generosity of the historians Him Mark Lai, Theresa Mah, Peggy Pascoe, Lucy Saylor, Ling Chi Wang, and Judy Yung.

I received generous financial support for research and writing from the SUNY United University Professions; the Binghamton Foundation; the Mellon Foundation; the American Historical Association's Albert Beveridge Award; and the Mellon Foundation–University of Chicago Dissertation Fellowship. The revision of the book manuscript was supported by residential fellowships at the University of California Humanities Research Institute and the New York University International Center for Advanced Studies. I am grateful to Robyn Wiegman and Patricia O'Brien at the University of California Humanities Research Institute and the fellows in the Interdisciplinary Queer Studies group. Madelyn Detloff, Carla Freccero, David Gere, George Haggerty, Eithne Luibheid, Lisa Rofel, and Sandy Stone challenged me to rethink the ethics and politics of queer formations in my work. My thanks as well to Thomas Bender and Barbara Abrash at New York University and the engaging fellows who joined me on the Project on Cities and Urban Knowledges during its inaugural year. Meske Brhane, Teresa Caldeira, Christine Choy, John Czaplicka, Farha Ghannam, Steven Gregory, James Holston, Mark LeVine, Louise Maxwell, Thierry Nlandu, John Rajchmann, Nicole Rustin, Smriti Srinivas, and Tracy Tullis enabled me to think capaciously about the cultural politics and tensions of divided cities worldwide. I am particularly grateful to John Chaffee, my department chair at SUNY Binghamton, for allowing me the time away from teaching duties to pursue intensive revisions.

Over the years many colleagues and friends read and offered generous commentary at different stages of the writing project. My thanks to Rifa'at Abou-El-Haj, Leora Auslander, Anne Blackburn, Katherine Bliss, Mary Pat Brady, Howard Brown, Kathleen Brown, Antoinette

Burton, Melinda Campbell, Patricia Chu, Deborah Cohen, Elizabeth Cohen, Nancy Cott, Susan Craddock, Katherine Crawford, Elizabeth Dale, Michael Davidson, Melvyn Dubofsky, Jill Dupont, Sarah Elbert, Yen Espiritu, Bud Foster, Dana Frank, Tak Fujitani, Alexandra Gillen, Lori Ginzburg, Gayatri Gopinath, Jessica Hagedorn, Judith Halberstam, Eleanor Hannah, Marta Hanson, William Haver, Chad Heap, Julie Hessler, Sarah Hodges, Trevor Hope, Miranda Joseph, Grace Kao, Elizabeth Kennedy, Daniel Kim, Elaine Kim, Alan Kraut, Philippa Levine, David Lloyd, Lisa Lowe, Theresa Mah, Martin Manalansan, Curtis Marez, Antoinette Chaurfauros McDaniel, David Morrison, Lisa Moses, Anne Elizabeth Murdy, Carl Nightingale, Gary Okiihiro, Michael Omi, Tiffany Patterson, Vijay Prashad, Donald Quataert, Daniel Rodgers, Hannah Rosen, Charles Rosenberg, Dara Silberstein, Kathryn Kish Sklar, Thomas Sugrue, David Tannehaus, John Kuo Tchen, Leti Vollp, Michael Willrich, K. Scott Wong, Shelley Sunn Wong, and Marilyn Young.

I am fortunate to have had an extraordinary set of readers at the University of California Press. The American Crossroads series editors Earl Lewis, George Lipsitz, Peggy Pascoe, George Sánchez, and Dana Tagaki gave me spirited and challenging reviews of the book manuscript. In the final stages of revision George Lipsitz and Peggy Pascoe offered detailed comments and invaluable advice in shaping the book for publication. In addition, two anonymous readers helped me strengthen and clarify the book's key arguments. Finally, Monica McCormick has shepherded this book through many transformations, and I am grateful for her enthusiasm and confidence in the work. I also thank Bonita Hurd for her careful copyediting and Jean McAneny for bringing the book through production.

In San Francisco, a number of friends have opened their homes to me and invited me into their lives. I am grateful for the companionship of Elsa E'der, Shaffiq Essajee, Kevin Grant, Hima B., Dar Horton, David Jenkins, Pablo Jenkins, Ginu Kamani, Priya Kamani, Anna Karydas, Cathy Kudlick, Jasbir Puar, Greg Roberts, Sandip Roy, Hasan Shafiqullah, Rachel Sturman, Susan Tiemroth, and Lisa Trivedi. Several friends in Chicago and in Binghamton deserve special mention: Anne Blackburn, Adele Brown, Patricia Chu, Lisa Moses, Anne Elizabeth Murdy, Mahua Sarkar, Dara Silberstein, Dana Stewart, and Paul Venet have all provided impassioned support and given me their time and care when I have needed it most. In the last several years, Chandan Reddy's insights have stretched my own vision for this project.

My brother, sister-in-law, cousins, aunts, uncles, and grandfather have patiently waited for the birth of this book. Their good humor and interest in this never-ending project have made the pleasure of its arrival all the sweeter. Ken Foster has nurtured this book to completion. His spirited enthusiasm for the project, generous reading of the manuscript, and tender care have pulled me through.

Finally, I dedicate this book to my parents, Devyani and Bhupendra Shah. Their resolute faith in me, the generosity of their affections and the inspiration of their courageous lives have enabled my work.

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Public Health, Race, and Citizenship

A sudden and severe epidemic of smallpox struck San Francisco in the summer of 1876. By October, the epidemic had infected more than 1,600 and taken nearly 450 lives. Dr. John Meares, the newly appointed city health officer, acted swiftly to check the spread of the disease, instituting programs of quarantine of the infected and public vaccination of the uninfected. Meares blamed the spread and severity of the epidemic on the presence of 30,000 “unscrupulous, lying and treacherous Chinamen” living in the heart of the city and their “willful and diabolical disregard of our sanitary laws.” The wanton and “malicious” defiance of hygienic conduct among “this infamous race,” Meares feared, had made Chinatown a “laboratory of infection” that contaminated the rest of the city.¹

Meares and his colleagues defined Chinatown as the material manifestation of the alien within the modern American city, emphasizing Chinese difference from, deviance from, and danger to white society and the American nation. Nineteenth-century San Francisco health officials and politicians conceived of Chinatown as the preeminent site of urban sickness, vice, crime, poverty, and depravity. The San Francisco Board of Health and the Public Health Department employees under its supervision took the lead in investigating health conditions citywide. Their reports produced extremely menacing conceptions of Chinatown, identifying it as a “plague spot,” a “cesspool,” and the source of epidemic disease and physical ailments. Health authorities readily conflated the physical condition of Chinatown with the characteristics of Chinese peo-

ple. They depicted Chinese immigrants as a filthy and diseased “race” who incubated such incurable afflictions as smallpox, syphilis, and bubonic plague and infected white Americans.²

More than sixty years later, in 1939, the city health officer Dr. Jacob Casson Geiger pinpointed Chinatown as the epicenter of another rampant epidemic—tuberculosis. One-fourth of all city tuberculosis cases lived in Chinatown, and Chinese residents faced a tuberculosis infection rate three times the city average in a period when overall tuberculosis infection rates had tumbled. Geiger, however, did not characterize Chinatown as a threat to the rest of the city. Instead he blamed the deplorable tenement housing conditions that imperiled the health of the Chinese residents themselves.

In these tenements, Chinese residents faced a “conspicuous absence” of “hygienic standards,” notably “community toilets, baths and kitchens” and dangerous “habits” such as the “common serving dish from which the entire family partakes of meals.” In Geiger’s assessment, a segregated housing market, rapacious landlords, and the fatalism of “older Chinese” bachelors who “refused . . . to admit that gross defects exist” all contributed to the dismal living conditions. However, Geiger saw hope for improvement in the commitment of “younger” Chinese families to transform their habits and adapt “Oriental customs to Occidental living,” as well as in their eagerness “to participate in city-wide activities”—which evidenced their “desire to be good citizens.” The healthy conduct and consciousness of young Chinese Americans galvanized the Public Health Department to redouble its efforts to test, track, and treat Chinese tuberculosis victims and enhance instruction in “healthy habits.” In the 1930s and 1940s, health officials, along with white and Chinese business leaders, social workers, and civic activists, advocated that San Francisco’s government should demonstrate its “civic responsibility” to Chinatown residents by making investments in public housing, clinics, and social welfare services in order to turn the tide of the tuberculosis epidemic.³

What accounts for this extraordinary switch from demonizing San Francisco’s Chinese residents as a medical menace to assisting them as deserving citizens? Was it simply evidence of the progress of medical knowledge and evolution of public health practice that militated against the bias and opprobrium of an earlier era? Or was it further evidence of the process of inclusion in American society and the process of assimilation on the part of Chinese immigrants and their children to the “American way of life”? If the latter, what were the possibilities and the

limits of liberal democracy's expansion of the privileges of citizenship in the twentieth century?

To see the Chinese Americans as the patient and fortunate recipients of the fruits of medical, social, and political progress would underestimate the remarkable agency of the San Francisco men and women, Chinese and white, who contested and rewrote the terms of political and cultural belonging and alienation in an American city. For Chinese Americans, the journey from menace to model minority followed a deep undercurrent of ideas about citizenship, conduct, and health. The idea that the Chinese were a people racially distinct and apart from other American immigrants and citizens was remarkably resilient, but the meanings of that difference and whether that difference could be accommodated or must be expunged were changeable. What unfolds is a remarkable and vexing tale of race, citizenship, and public health.

In the nineteenth century, lethal epidemics of cholera, smallpox, and bubonic plague struck locales with devastating force. These epidemics arbitrarily took lives and incapacitated and disfigured those who survived. European and North American public health officials, physicians, and scientists pursued a quest to understand the causes of these contagious and often fatal maladies. Public health investigation produced a repertoire of precautions and prophylactics to dampen the spread of contagious diseases.⁴ Through strategies of sanitation, vaccination, and therapeutic care, public health extended human longevity, increased the chances of childhood survival, and suppressed epidemic disease. In fact, these tangible and benevolent results of public health were considered to be the hallmark of modernity's promise of progress, a triumph of technological and scientific innovation. Precisely because of public health's powerful influence in transforming social lives in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries and its centrality in definitions of modernity, how public health operated demands critical evaluation.⁵

Public health served as one of the most agile and expansive regulatory mechanisms in nineteenth-century American cities. Next to the police and tax assessors, municipal public health administrators assumed the most sweeping authority to survey and monitor the city and its inhabitants. Although municipal public health institutions often had small budgets and staffs, their legal authority to regulate property and people's conduct was considerable.⁶ Public health's mandate demanded measurement of the welfare of municipal inhabitants and the removal of any threats to the general population's longevity, health, and well-being. The idea of securing the "health" of the population linked the condition and

conduct of individuals with the vitality, strength, and prosperity of society overall.⁷

Measuring and maintaining health entailed a new way of thinking about persons and their lives in the environment and in society. In the early nineteenth century, sickness was no longer seen as an inevitable condition of living but rather as an avoidable flaw. Steadfast regulation of the body, conduct, and living environment became an increasingly crucial practice in guarding against the infiltration of disease. In the name of preserving life and protecting from disease, public health developed general regimens of personal hygiene and public sanitation. Voluntary associations and local government in the nineteenth century promoted hygienic care and sanitary management as essential to the modern project of ensuring human longevity, maintaining health, and managing the vitality of the population. Nineteenth-century bourgeois economic classes particularly valued the health benefits of self-care and contrasted their enlightened conduct and consciousness with the legions of the working poor and traditional agriculturists. Their models of proper conduct employed new categories of normal and deviant, which were dramatically defined and invigorated by putative race and class differences.⁸

Nineteenth-century San Francisco physicians and health officials feared that the mission of enabling human vitality was undercut by the reputed vile and disease-breeding qualities of Chinese settlement in the city. In the name of safeguarding the health of the entire population, public health strategies of surveillance, documentation, and quarantine generated new conceptions of Chinese behavior at odds with the standards of proper social conduct. The collection and interpretation of knowledge about the incidence of epidemic disease, mortality, and morbidity produced an ethnography of different groups and locations in the city, of their habits, and of their conditions. Public health agencies and physicians generated considerable “knowledge” about the living conditions and social conduct of Chinese residents in San Francisco. They assembled a broad array of cultural and social differences to account for epidemic transmission. At the turn of the century, medical explanations for the cause of disease shifted from miasma and environmental discharges to microbes, but the application of these scientific principles both shaped and affected cultural and political dynamics in the city. This medical knowledge of Chinese deviance and danger emerged in the context of a fervent anti-Chinese political culture and escalating class confrontations generated by the social tumult of industrialization, rapid urbanization, and tremendous migration into San Francisco.⁹