"The Enemy Alien Files: Hidden Stories of World War II" presents for the first time the little known wartime experiences of Italian, German and Japanese immigrants in the US and from Latin America. With photographs, documents, and oral history excerpts, the exhibit brings to light these stories and explores how international events, political and military actions, national security threat, and changes in public attitudes led to similarities and differences in the treatment, exclusion, internment and deportation of several thousand "enemy aliens."

The display also shares how such individuals responded to wartime traumas and the legacies these experiences have left on our nation as a whole. While the focus is on the experience of particular communities during WWII, the exhibit's related programming provides opportunities for public dialogue about parallels to current national and world events in the aftermath of the September 11th tragedies and the U.S. "war on terrorism."

The US government responses to the Pearl Harbor and September 11th attacks provide important points for comparison and contrast and bring the lessons of history into the public's immediate consciousness.

This exhibit offers audiences the opportunity to explore how our nation, now and during WWII, reconciles potentially competing national ideals—the promotion of reliance on ethnic diversity, the sanctity of the Bill of Rights and the necessity of national security.

A unique comparative and multicultural presentation, THE ENEMY ALIEN FILES makes accessible to the public an important aspect of World War II that has direct relevance to today's domestic and world events.

Creative Direction, Design and Production: NDD Creative

"The Enemy Alien Files" Exhibit is a collaboration among the National Japanese American Historical Society (NJAHS), Japanese Peruvian Oral History Project (JPOHP), American Italian Historical Association—Western Regional Chapter (AIHA/WRC), and the German American Education Fund (GAEF).

Funding to produce and tour this exhibit was made possible in part by grants from the California Arts Council, the California Council for the Humanities and the California Civil Liberties Public Education Program.

We are grateful to US Congressional Representative Mike Honda of California for his valuable support of this exhibit.

"The entire topic—both historically and as currently relevant—is so important! Outstanding!"
- Santa Cruz

"Shedding light on a chapter in our nation's history that most of the American public does not know happened, this exhibit exposes the truth through visual images and written words to produce an extremely powerful message."
- Don Nakanishi, Director, Asian American Studies Center, University of California, Los Angeles

"This is a provocative photo-exhibit which encourages viewers to draw parallels between WWII and today."
- Carol Fuller, ACLU, Santa Cruz

"The compelling stories and multi-faceted aspect of the exhibit, including histories of various cultures, individual quotes, and images is very powerful. The exhibit exceeded my expectations in regards to content."
- Sacramento

"This exhibit helps us remember the lessons from this shameful chapter of U.S. history."
- Mike Honda, U.S. Congressman from CA

"It was informative and accessible...beautiful and powerful"
- Berkeley
During WWII, the US government operated an "enemy alien" program which affected nearly one million immigrants from the Italian, German and Japanese communities in the US and from Latin America. This program was separate from the internment of the 120,000 US citizens and resident immigrants of Japanese ancestry.

In the late 1930s, as turmoil in Europe and Asia escalated, the US government began to prepare for the possibility of US involvement in war. Preparations included surveillance of Japanese, German and Italian resident aliens, compiling lists of "potentially dangerous persons" and plans for internment and deportation. This was massive racial and ethnic profiling, not based on action or evidence but rather on who could potentially be dangerous.

Following the Japanese military attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, nearly one million law-abiding immigrants were labeled "enemy aliens." No distinction was made between resident immigrants and aliens in the US on a temporary basis. The US government also went outside its borders and violated the rights of civilians in 15 Latin American countries. Over 6000 men, women and children of German, Italian and Japanese ancestry—both immigrant residents as well as citizens of those countries—were taken from their homes, forcibly deported and interned in US concentration camps for the purpose of prisoner exchange.

A total of over 31,000 enemy aliens of German, Italian, and Japanese ancestry in the US and from Latin America were apprehended, and thousands were interned for reasons of "national security." Detainees received a brief hearing during which they were not allowed counsel; were not told of charges against them, and could not confront witnesses. Internees were held indefinitely without charges or a trial. Over 4800 persons, including US citizens who were the minor children of permanent resident aliens, were forcibly deported to war zones of the Far East and Europe in civilian prisoner exchanges. Most internes were released from camp by the end of the war in 1946, but some were interned for seven years. Others remained at Ellis Island until 1949.

Later review of records of these "dangerous" enemy aliens show there was often no specific evidence of subversive activities. Rather they lost years of their lives on the basis of "potential" danger. The impact of these violations has been long lasting in their communities and has current day significance for our democratic institutions and freedoms.
I would like more information about “The Enemy Alien Files” Exhibit
(Materials may also be available for downloading from the NJAHS website at www.njahs.org)
- packet for prospective host venues
- general information packet
- specific information: ____________________________________________________________________

Yes, I would like to support the Exhibit with a gift.
Enclosed is my check of: $500 $250 $100 $50 Other $ __________
(Please make your check payable to "NJAHS" and notate "EAF exhibit". Your gift is tax deductible to the extent allowed by law.)

Name _____________________________________________________________
Title ______________________________________________________________
Organization _________________________________________________________
Address ______________________________________________________________________________
City/State/Zip __________________________________________________________________________
Day-time Phone ___________________________ Evening Phone _____________________________
Fax __________________________ Email __________________________

The Enemy Alien Files: Hidden Stories of World War II
WHO WILL BE NEXT?

HERE, IN AMERICA?
THE ASSEMBLY ON WARTIME RELOCATION & INTERNMENT OF CIVILIANS

Hear new personal stories from World War II and today

Friday, April 8th & Saturday April 9th, 2005
Hastings College of the Law - 200 McAllister St. San Francisco, CA
For more information, call 415-921-5007 or visit www.campaignforjusticejla.org
Here, In America?

THE ASSEMBLY ON THE WARTIME RELOCATION AND INTERNMENT OF CIVILIANS

New Personal Testimonies from World War II and Today

APRIL 8-9, 2005  10 AM - 4 PM

UC Hastings College of the Law, Alumni Reception Center, 200 McAllister St. (at Hyde) San Francisco, CA

FREE – Advance reservations recommended. RSVP by April 1st: (415) 921-5007.

The Assembly on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians, a grassroots public education forum, will focus on the personal testimonies of US citizens and immigrants of Japanese, German and Italian ancestry in the US and from Latin America, who have not received proper acknowledgment nor an apology for the violation of their civil and human rights due to US government action during World War II. We will highlight stories of individuals and families who were interned in the Department of Justice camps and Army facilities as part of the enemy alien program. Included will be some of the family experiences of over 6,000 German and Japanese Latin Americans who were abducted from 15 Latin American countries and interned in the US for the purpose of prisoner exchange. We will also provide an opportunity for individuals and community organizations to speak to the importance of ongoing education about issues and lessons that are relevant to present-day concerns.

Join us! A panel of distinguished scholars and community leaders will help to:

• Raise public awareness and acknowledgement of the diverse experiences of former relocatees and internees

• Hear expert witnesses and commentary on issues including:
  ➢ How race and ethnic prejudice, war hysteria, and a failure of political leadership can impact both citizens and immigrants who are targeted as the “enemy” during wartime and national crises
  ➢ Past and present day concerns regarding the relationship of national security and preservation of civil liberties
  ➢ US and international standards of government accountability and redress for civil and human rights violations
  ➢ Consequences and implications of the failure to acknowledge and redress civil and human rights violations

An official record of the testimonies will be created for educational and archival purposes to be deposited at the National Japanese American Historical Society archives in San Francisco. Copies of the testimony and videotaped excerpts from the proceedings will be submitted to the US Congress and the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights (a body of the Organization of American States) as background educational information for consideration of pending and future legislation and litigation.

For information on event and how to submit testimony:
E-mail: jpohp@prodigy.net    Ph: (415) 921-5007    www.campaignforjusticeila.org

Tax deductible contributions can be made payable to “NJAHS”. (Please note “Assembly” on the memo line.) Send checks to NJAHS, 1684 Post St., San Francisco, CA 94115-3604.

The AWRIC is made possible in part by the California Civil Liberties Public Education Program; the California Council for the Humanities - California Stories Fund; and generous contributions from individuals & community organizations.

Japanese Peruvian Oral History Project

JAPANESE LATIN AMERICANS
&
THE HOSTAGE EXCHANGE PROGRAM DURING WWII

Q: WHAT COUNTRIES WERE INVOLVED IN THE HOSTAGE EXCHANGE PROGRAM?

A: THE UNITED STATES AND 13 LATIN AMERICAN COUNTRIES

The United States government initiated and orchestrated the exchange program, assuming all expenses and responsibility. The Department of State was responsible for the deportations from Latin American countries and the exchanges with Japan. The Department of Justice was responsible for interning Japanese Latin Americans in the United States.

13 Latin American countries cooperated with the exchange program by apprehending, detaining and deporting citizens and permanent residents of Japanese ancestry: Bolivia, Columbia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama and Peru.

Q: HOW MANY JAPANESE LATIN AMERICANS WERE APPREHENDED, DEPORTED TO & INTERNED IN THE UNITED STATES?

A: 2264 JAPANESE LATIN AMERICANS + 68 BABIES BORN DURING INTERNMENT

2264 men, women & children of Japanese ancestry, citizens & permanent residents of 13 Latin American countries

At least 331 men were also interned at the U.S. military base in Panama (some being forced to perform hard labor) before being sent to internment camps in the U.S.

68 babies were born in Crystal City Internment Camp, Texas between 1942 and 1947.

? persons died while in custody between 12/41 and 2/27/48 (when Crystal City Internment Camp officially closed).
Q: HOW MANY JAPANESE LATIN AMERICANS WERE EXCHANGED DURING WWII?
A: APPROXIMATELY 865 JAPANESE LATIN AMERICANS WERE EXCHANGED

There were two exchanges during WWII, involving Japanese nationals who were permanent residents of Latin American countries as well as Latin American citizens of Japanese ancestry. The first exchange ship left New York on 6/18/42 (with 128 Japanese Latin American internees) and picked up additional persons in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. The second exchange ship left New York in 9/43 (with 737 Japanese Latin American internees).

Q: WHAT HAPPENED TO THE JAPANESE LATIN AMERICANS WHO WERE STILL INTERNED AT THE END OF WWII?
A: 112 Japanese Bolivians, Costa Ricans and Ecuadorans are assumed to have been deported to Japan at the end of WWII

945+ Japanese Pervians were deported to Japan at the end of WWII

365 Japanese Peruvians remained in the US to fight for the suspension of deportation, with hopes of returning to their homes in Peru. Of these, about 300 Japanese Peruvians were able to resolve their "illegal alien" status in the 1950s and eventually become US permanent residents or naturalized citizens.

Eventually, about 100 Japanese Peruvians were able to return to Peru.

* * * * *

Daniels, etc. (edit) JA - From Relocation to Redress. University of Utah Press. Salt Lake City, Utah.
Gardiner, C. Harvey, "The Latin American Japanese & WWII"
Weglyn, Michi. Years of Infamy. WM Morrow & Co., NY. 1976
WHO WAS DEPORTED?

4058 Germans, 2264 Japanese, and 288 Italians were deported from Latin America to the United States from December 1941 through December 1945.

These totals include a wide range of individuals. Several hundred in the German category, and an unknown number in the Japanese and Italian category, were returning diplomats and their families, so-called “officials” who traveled quite willingly when their diplomatic missions were terminated by the war. Some of the non-officials were “volunteers,” but that term must be treated with caution. It includes an unknowable number who were eager to rejoin their homelands to help in the war effort, as well as those whose “voluntary” departure was encouraged by threats of arrest or other consequences by local authorities. The majority, however, were involuntary deportees, expelled from their countries of residence by local authorities acting at the behest of the US government.

WHY WERE THEY DEPORTED?

From 1938 onward, US officials were concerned that the communities of Axis nationals living in Latin America would engage in subversive activities (espionage, sabotage, and pro-Axis propaganda). US diplomats and intelligence agents prepared lists of “dangerous enemy aliens” residing in Latin America. When the United States entered the war after Pearl Harbor, the State Department urged its missions to pressure Latin American governments to restrict their resident Axis citizens. Because US officials believed that Latin American governments were vulnerable to overthrow or to corruption, they began to appeal to have the individuals on the “dangerous” lists sent to the United States for internment. Various forms of diplomatic pressure, ranging from enticements to economic coercion, were used to obtain Latin American cooperation.

WERE THESE PEOPLE A THREAT TO U.S. NATIONAL SECURITY?

The short answer is no. There were German and Japanese spies at work in various Latin American countries, but when US and Latin American officials could identify individuals actually involved in espionage, they were arrested, tried, and jailed. Among the 4058 Germans deported to the United States, the FBI believed that no more than ten were connected to espionage activities. Latin America was virtually free of sabotage during the war, and only one deportee was accused of sabotage.

Propaganda activities were more common. Although US intelligence officials included casual private utterances supporting Germany or Japan—hardly a national security issue—under the category of spreading propaganda, some of the deportees had gone well beyond voicing their opinions to publishing and distributing pro-Axis materials. This problem was partly addressed within Latin American countries whose governments prohibited the spreading of political publications tied to foreign powers and shut down Axis diplomatic missions that were the centers of propaganda activities.
Among the Germans, between 10 and 15 percent of the deportees were overseas members of the Nazi Party. Whether or not their membership indicates a willingness to take action in support of the German war effort is open to question, and the evidence suggests this was rare. However, the number of Nazis among the deportees, and the nationalism of much of the rest of the group, does suggest that we need a nuanced understanding of who they were, rather than thinking strictly in terms of “innocent victims.” This phrase would certainly seem to apply to the 81 Jewish refugees among the internees from Latin America, whose presence in the camps designed for dangerous Nazis (where they were sometimes threatened and beaten by their fellow inmates) confirms the heterogeneity of these supposedly “dangerous enemy aliens.”

The lack of evidence or even of accusations against the majority of deportees led Justice Department officials to conclude that many had been wrongly seized and interned. One of the most knowledgeable US officials, who investigated the program’s operation in 18 countries, concluded that it had made no contribution to US security and that it was “understandable, but not justifiable.”

**HOW WERE THE DEPORTEES SELECTED?**

US diplomats in Latin America worked with FBI, MID, and ONI agents and sometimes collaborated with Latin American security officials to produce lists of “dangerous enemy aliens.” Sometimes these aliens were selected because of their public leadership roles, i.e. teachers in the Nazified German schools, officials in the overseas Nazi Party, etc. But throughout the region, intelligence agents who often spoke neither Spanish nor German (and never Japanese) relied on anonymous denunciations or the statements of paid informants, which they usually accepted at face value. This resulted in many cases of mistaken identity or slander, uncovered only at the end of the war when the Justice Department held a thorough review of the internees.

**WHICH GOVERNMENT AGENCIES WERE INVOLVED?**

The deportation-internment program was coordinated by the Special Division of the Department of State (later renamed the Special War Problems Division). Cooperating agencies included the Department of Justice (FBI, Border Patrol, Immigration and Naturalization Service, Alien Enemy Control Unit), War Department (Military Intelligence Division [Army G-2], Office of Naval Intelligence, Caribbean Defense Command), and other units at the State Department including the Division of American Republic Affairs and the Visa Division.

**WERE ECONOMIC INTERESTS BEHIND THE DEPORTATIONS?**

Internal correspondence by US officials in charge of the deportation-internment program clearly shows that the primary motive behind the seizure of Axis nationals in Latin America was a desire to protect US national security. However, some of the deportees were expelled by corrupt Latin American governments (especially the dictatorships ruling most of Central America and the Caribbean) so that their property could more easily be seized. From 1943 until the end of the war, when the threat to the Western Hemisphere had clearly receded, US policy shifted from an urgent need to ensure against subversion to a methodical series of measures designed to destroy the long-term commercial presence of Germans in Latin America. In several cases, individual deportees were clearly targeted because of their important economic role in their countries of residence, even where there was no evidence that they had assisted the Axis. In the 1930s, Germany had been the second most important competitor with the United States in the region after Great Britain, but its market share in Latin America was ruined by the war.
WHICH LATIN AMERICAN COUNTRIES PARTICIPATED?

Except for Argentina, Brazil, and Chile, nearly every Latin American country sent Axis nationals for internment in the United States. The totals by country are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Germans</th>
<th>Japanese</th>
<th>Italians</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bolivia</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British Honduras</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chile</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colombia</td>
<td>646</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Costa Rica</td>
<td>379</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cuba</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dominican Rep.</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecuador</td>
<td>463</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El Salvador</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guatemala</td>
<td>479</td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Haiti</td>
<td>77</td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honduras</td>
<td>144</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mexico</td>
<td>266</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nicaragua</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Panama</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>247</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraguay</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Peru</td>
<td>702</td>
<td>1799</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Venezuela</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTALS</strong></td>
<td><strong>4058</strong></td>
<td><strong>2264</strong></td>
<td><strong>287</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: White to Lafoon, 30 Jan 15:46, in folder “Statistics,” Subject Files 1939-54, Box 70, Special War Problems Division, RG 59, National Archives.

WHAT WAS THE LEGAL BASIS FOR THIS ACTION?

The expulsion and internment of Axis nationals violated customary international law and United States national law. These violations included the detention of individuals for reasons not related to their own actions; the deportation without charge of civilian noncombatants from a nonbelligerent to a belligerent country; the indefinite internment of civilians without serious inquiry or hearings; and the use of civilians for forced labor. (The last applies to those Japanese and German civilians who were forced to clear tropical jungle and construct their own internment camp in the Canal Zone, where they were held en route to the United States.)

The Alien Enemy Act of 1798 does permit “summary apprehension” of nationals of an enemy power in wartime, and many nations engaged in this practice. It was under this law that Germans, Italians, and some Japanese residents of the United States were interned. But the law does not extend to the seizure of aliens outside the boundaries of the United States. Instead, to create a spurious legal basis for the program, the State Department instructed its consuls and embassies not to issue entry visas for the deportees from Latin America. Upon arrival in the United States, they were asked for their entry visas. Since they had none, they were informed that their presence on American soil was illegal and they were subject to internment or deportation. This scheme did not even persuade its authors, and US courts and Justice Department officials acknowledged the dubious legal basis of the program by war’s end.
US World War II Treatment of German Americans

During World War II, the US violated the civil liberties of American citizens and resident aliens of "enemy" ethnic groups, primarily those of German, Italian and Japanese ancestry. Violations included internment and relocation. Members of these ethnic groups, including millions of European Americans, served in the US armed forces. Some were immediate family members of internees. The Wartime Treatment Study Act would require study of these issues, among others, with respect to European Americans. The Act is summarized below, as are specific discriminatory government policies.

US Government Wartime Policies. All numbers are estimates and are likely higher.

- Alien registration branding 300,000 Germans as "enemy aliens," restricting travel and property ownership rights.
- Exclusion from large military areas under military orders causing family disruption, loss of homes and jobs. Relocated families subject to hostility and suspicion in new homes. Men had difficulties finding employment. No government support for relocation. At least 39,000 subject to curfews, travel limitations and other restrictions in military zones.
- Hostile FBI raids and ransacking of homes and arrests with no warrants, unlimited imprisonment while awaiting parole and internment hearings. Hearings with minimal, if any, due process at which no witnesses or counsel were allowed. Internees did not know why they were interned. Families did not know where their loved ones were taken for days or weeks.
- Internment of at least 11,000 German aliens and their families, including US-born children. Families separated, homes and belongings lost. Little or no government support for families left behind. Limited admittance to family camps based upon application to government. Some children placed in orphanages when parents arrested and interned. At least 2,000 German Americans, including families with US-born children, exchanged for Americans held in Germany. Exchanged families survived cruel wartime conditions, such as hunger and Allied bombing.
- Kidnap and US internment of at least 4,050 German Latin Americans, many later exchanged.
- Persons of German ancestry were last ethnic group released from camps, some held till late 1948.
- Deportation, expatriation and repatriation of German Americans—resident German aliens and US citizens.
- Internees and excludees returned to communities facing unemployment, financial straits, loss of homes and belongings and stigmatization. No government support. Many families disrupted permanently. Many internees forbidden to speak of internment. Most internees have not spoken out of fear of the government, shame or other personal reasons.

Wartime Treatment Study Act. The Act would establish two commissions, one to review the US government's WWII policies regarding European Americans (resident aliens and US citizens) and Latin Americans and related civil liberties violations, and the other to review the government's refusal to allow Jewish refugees fleeing persecution entry to the US during WWII. Significant features follow:

- Duties include reviewing governmental wartime policies regarding US resident and Latin American "enemy" Europeans and Jewish refugees fleeing persecution, assessing of the underlying rationale for the U.S. government's actions and recommend how civil liberties and refugees fleeing persecution can be better protected in the future. Written report of findings and recommendations must be submitted to Congress 18 months after first meeting. (Sec. 102 & 202)
- Seven members per commission appointed by President, Senate and Congress, respectively. Two representatives each from the German and Italian American communities on one and two representatives of Jewish refugees on the other. (Sec. 101 & 201)
- Commissions authorized to hold hearings and obtain information from government entities to perform their duties. (Sec. 103 & 203)
- Congress could act on Commissions' recommendations, which might include, among other things, formal acknowledgement and establishment of education fund, as it deems appropriate.

Questions? Contact Karen Ebel at kebel@yahoo.com.
See also http://www.foitimes.com/internment.
April 23, 2003
Recommended Reading – US Government Violations of German American Civil Liberties


Contag, Kimberly & Grabowska, James, *Where Clouds Meet the Water*, Inkwater Press, 2004


Irvine, Patricia Irvine, *Sing to Me, Papa*, Xlibris Corporation, 2000 (historical fiction)


Web sites on German American WWII Wartime Treatment:

www.foitimes.com
www.traces.org
www.johnchristgau.com/enemies/enemies.html

German American Internee Coalition
Contacts: Karen Ebel at kebel@yahoo.com
Heidi Donald at gaic@elgatito.com 4/05
Fact Sheet: The Wartime Violation of Italian American Civil Liberties

- On December 7, 1941, hours after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor, FBI agents begin to take into custody hundreds of Italian resident aliens previously classified as "dangerous." Without counsel or trial, some 260 of them are eventually shipped to internment camps like the ones in Missoula, Montana, or Fort George Meade, MD, where most are interned until after Italy surrenders in 1943. An unknown number are kept longer, and only released or repatriated at war's end. Their crime: suspicion that their origin in Italy might make them dangerous in time of war.

- On December 8, 1941, President Roosevelt signs Proclamation 2527, declaring that "an invasion or predatory incursion is threatened upon the territory of the United States by Italy." This turns 600,000 permanent resident aliens of Italian descent into "enemy aliens." Rules announced by the Justice Department forbid them to travel outside their towns without permission, and order them to surrender "contraband"—shortwave radios, cameras, flashlights, and hunting rifles. Those suspected of harboring these items have their homes raided and searched.

- Under pressure from the War Department to increase raids on enemy aliens to seize contraband, the Justice Department capitulates in January 1941 by agreeing that the requirement for "probable cause" necessary for a search warrant can be met merely by the fact that an alien resides in a premises, even if it is owned by a citizen. The Fourth Amendment rights of both aliens and the citizen children with whom many lived are thereby routinely violated.

- In February 1942, all "enemy" aliens are required to re-register (all had registered as resident aliens in 1940 under the Smith Act) at post offices nationwide. All are then required to carry photo-bearing ID booklets at all times, forbidden to travel beyond a 5-mile radius of home, or enter military bases where many have sons in service.

- In California, the Western Defense Command establishes a vast prohibited zone along the coast and around "sensitive" installations such as power plants and railroads. A late January 1942 announcement by the Justice Department orders all enemy aliens to evacuate this zone, some by February 15, and the rest by February 24, 1942. Some 10,000 Italian immigrants, mostly elderly women, are forced to leave their homes in towns like Pittsburg and Monterey and search for new places to live. These forced moves, solely on the basis of national origin, proceed before and aside from Executive Order 9066.

- At about the same time in California, 52,000 Italian enemy aliens are subjected to a curfew that confines them to their homes from 8:00 PM to 6:00 AM. Many lose their jobs as a result.
At least four Italian immigrants in California, despondent over their shameful status as "enemies" of their adopted country, commit suicide.

Following the mass relocation of Japanese aliens and native-born citizens in Spring of 1942, the Western Defense Command continues with its plans to clear the Pacific Slope of the other two enemy alien groups and remove them to a zone of the interior. Gen. Hugh Drum, commander of the Eastern Defense Command, announces similar plans on April 27, raising fears in the Justice Department and in Congress that such plans would affect millions on both coasts and seriously compromise the war effort. President Roosevelt in May 1942 finally orders the War Department to abandon such plans unless he specifically orders otherwise.

Several thousand Italian resident aliens are arrested during subsequent months, many for curfew violations or for harboring "contraband." Most are detained for months at INS facilities such as those at Ellis Island in New York or Sharp Park near San Francisco. Internments of Italian resident aliens continue throughout 1942 and beyond.

In Monterey, San Francisco, Boston and other seaports, Italian immigrant fishermen are grounded, among them the father of Joe DiMaggio. Hundreds of fishermen who are naturalized citizens have their boats requisitioned by the Navy for use as minesweepers or patrol boats during the war. When the boats are returned, many are unusable.

Scores of naturalized citizens of Italian descent, including San Francisco Mayor Angelo Rossi, are investigated by the Tenney Committee (Assembly Fact-Finding Committee on UnAmerican Activities) as suspected leaders of a fascist movement in California. About two dozen such citizens are excluded from California in October, 1942 and remain in exile until Italy surrenders.

On October 12, 1942, Attorney General Francis Biddle announces at Carnegie Hall that Italian Americans are removed from "enemy alien" status. Except for those interned or excluded, all restrictions are off. Not a single case of sabotage or espionage has been reported. Records reveal that Italian Americans, the largest foreign-born group in the nation (1.6 million in 1940), also comprised the largest ethnic group in the U.S. Armed Forces during World War II (500,000).

History texts and newspaper articles routinely deny that Italian Americans were affected. For one example, see The NY Times, Aug. 14, 1995, p. A6, "A Migration Created by a Burden of Suspicion," by Dirk Johnson:

The nation was at war with Germany and Italy, of course, but there were no moves to lock up any European Americans.

prepared by Lawrence DiStasi
My name is Mariko Nakanishi, and I am one of the organizers for the public testimonial event, "Here, In America?: The Assembly on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians (AWRIC)", to be held on April 8 and 9, 2005 at Hastings College of the Law in San Francisco, California.

On behalf of the Campaign for Justice, we would like to invite you and members of your office to this historic event.

The AWRIC will focus on new personal testimonies of U.S. citizens and immigrants of Japanese, German, and Italian ancestry in the U.S. and from Latin America, who have suffered civil and human rights violations by the U.S. during World War II. In addition, a distinguished panel of scholars and community leaders will review these testimonies, which will be submitted to the U.S. Congress and the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights.

I have enclosed some informational material for your review, including the following:

- AWRIC Publicity Flyer
- AWRIC Press Release (March 4, 2005)
- Summary of H.R. 893, Wartime Parity and Justice Act of 2005
- Lawsuit Filed with OAS Press Release, June 4, 2004
- Other background and historical information

Thank you for your kind consideration and continuing support for those in our communities who have so unjustly been denied redress.

Please feel free to contact me at (415) 550-1777, or mjnakanishi@yahoo.com for more information.
FOR IMMEDIATE RELEASE

March 4, 2005

CONTACT: Julie Hatta
415-370-1477
jyhatta@aol.com

You may be next!
Here, in America? In testimony April 8-9, 2005, witnesses tell of U.S. abuses during World War II

By now, most Californians and many Americans know that 120,000 U.S. citizens and residents of Japanese descent were removed from the West Coast during World War II and locked in internment camps. And for most, it’s ancient history.

“But, increasingly, people are thinking that history may be repeated,” says Grace Shimizu of the Japanese Peruvian Oral History Project in San Francisco, CA. “The laws that created the camps remain on the books and can be used against citizens and immigrants today, especially in this post-9/11 environment.”

So today’s citizens and immigrants won’t forget the lessons of the past, a public forum will be held and testimony about WWII’s forgotten stories will be brought to light. On April 8-9, 2005, at Hastings College of Law in San Francisco. “HERE, IN AMERICA?: THE ASSEMBLY ON WARTIME RELOCATION AND INTERNMENT OF CIVILIANS (AWRIC) will offer testimony about the lesser-known history of the internment and its relevance for all people in the United States.

A distinguished panel of scholars and community leaders will review the testimony, which will be submitted to the U.S. Congress and the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights. Among the witnesses are:

• Art Shibayama, a Japanese Peruvian who with his family was forcibly deported from his home in Lima, Peru and interned in Texas as part of a US prisoner exchange program. He is one of more than 2,200 Japanese Latin Americans from 13 countries incarcerated under the program.

• Lothar Eiserloh, a U.S. citizen interned with his siblings and German immigrant parents. The family was forced to participate in the U.S. prisoner exchange and struggled to survive in the hostile German war zone.

• Jane Yano, born a U.S. citizen in an internment camp that continued to keep its internees prisoners for approximately a year after the internment orders had been lifted.

• Josephine Guttadauro, a U.S. citizen of Italian ancestry, whose immigrant father was considered a “potentially dangerous enemy alien” and issued an exclusion order prohibiting him from living in over half of the United States.

The two-day forum is free and open to the public. For more information and to schedule interviews with these and other witnesses, please contact Julie Hatta. 415-370-1477. jyhatta@aol.com

The AWRI is made possible in part by contributions from generous individuals, community organizations, the California Civil Liberties Public Education Program (CCLPEP) and the California Council for the Humanities (CCH).

# # #
ABOUT CAMPAIGN FOR JUSTICE

Campaign for Justice was founded in 1996 as a collaborative effort by individuals and organizations including the American Civil Liberties Union, the National Coalition for Redress & Reparations, and the Japanese Peruvian Oral History Project.

Campaign for Justice has two primary goals. First, it continues to help former Japanese Latin American internees secure proper redress. Second, it works to educate the public about the experiences of the Japanese Latin Americans.

WHAT YOU CAN DO TO HELP

♦ Make a donation to Campaign for Justice!

♦ Get your Action Packet to support Campaign activities!

♦ Write to your government representatives and urge them to support redress legislation for Japanese Latin American Internees!

♦ Become a Volunteer!

♦ Endorse the Campaign and urge your community groups to do the same!

♦ Invite a Campaign representative to speak at your school, church, civic group, or community event!

For more information, or to make a donation payable to “Campaign for Justice”, please contact:

Northern California
P.O. Box 1384
El Cerrito, CA 94530
(510) 528-7288
jpohp@prodigy.net

Redress Now For Japanese Latin American Internees!
HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

From December 1941 to February 1948, the U.S. government orchestrated and financed the mass abduction and forcible deportation of 2,264 men, women, and children of Japanese ancestry from 13 Latin American countries to be used as hostages in exchange for Americans held by Japan. Over 800 Japanese Latin Americans were included in two prisoner of war exchanges between the U.S. and Japan. The remaining Japanese Latin Americans were imprisoned without due process of law in U.S. Department of Justice internment camps until after the end of the war.

Stripped of their passports en route to the U.S. and declared “illegal aliens”, most of the incarcerated Japanese Latin Americans were forced to leave the U.S. after their release from camp. However, since many were barred from returning to their home countries, more than 900 Japanese Latin Americans were deported to war devastated Japan. Over 350 Japanese Latin Americans remained in the U.S. and fought deportation in the courts. Eventually, about 100 were able to return to Latin America. It was not until 1952 that those who stayed were allowed to begin the process of becoming U.S. permanent residents. Many later became U.S. citizens.

Japanese Latin Americans were subjected to gross violations of civil and human rights by the U.S. government during WWII. These violations were not justified by a security threat to Allied interests. Rather, it was the outcome of historical racism, anti-foreign prejudice, economic competition, and political opportunism. The U.S. government has yet to properly acknowledge this wrongdoing against the Japanese Latin Americans.

CIVIL LIBERTIES ACT OF 1988

Like Japanese Americans, Japanese Latin Americans have played an integral part in the struggle for acknowledgement and redress by the U.S. government for its unjust treatment of people of Japanese ancestry in the U.S. As a result, Congress enacted the Civil Liberties Act of 1988 to make the U.S. credible in the eyes of the world on human rights issues. To accomplish this, the Act provided for an official apology and token reparations of $20,000 to eligible individuals of Japanese ancestry. It also created a fund to educate the public about the internment to prevent the recurrence of similar events.

However, under this Act, individuals were eligible for reparations only if they were U.S. citizens or permanent resident aliens at the time of internment. Since the U.S. maintains the fabrication that Japanese Latin Americans were "illegal aliens", they were excluded from the Act. Only 189 Japanese Latin Americans were given redress under the Act because they were either born in camp or granted retroactive permanent residency.

Lawsuit

In 1996, a class action lawsuit, Mochizuki v. U.S.A., was filed against the U.S. government on behalf of all Japanese Latin American internees who were denied redress under the Act. A settlement agreement was reached in 1998 that provided for an official apology and the possibility of $5,000 in compensation payments to eligible Japanese Latin Americans.

This settlement was controversial because it did not fully acknowledge the severity of their human rights violations. It did, however, allow for the pursuit of further redress by those who chose to opt-out of the settlement.

Under the Mochizuki settlement, the token reparations, which were only one quarter of what Japanese Americans received, was not guaranteed. Despite assurances that all Japanese Latin Americans would receive redress payments, only 145 were paid before the funds were depleted. It was only after community effort and pressure for additional funding that supplemental appropriations were given by Congress to allow the remaining Mochizuki claimants to be paid. In addition, less than two months notification was allowed for Japanese Latin Americans to apply and the government refused to release applicant information to internee attorneys to ensure proper processing.

THE STRUGGLE CONTINUES

The fight for justice continues today for Japanese Latin Americans in litigation and in legislation. Campaign for Justice is currently seeking comprehensive legislation that would serve to fulfill the education and compensation mandate of the Civil Liberties Act and to resolve the unfinished redress business.

We urge our communities to support these efforts to acknowledge and redress the fundamental injustices suffered by Japanese Latin American during WWII. We cannot allow this chapter of American history to close until our government makes proper amends for its actions.

Redress Now for Japanese Latin American Internees!
Date:

My Representative in the U.S. Congress:
Honorable _______________________
U.S. House of Representatives
Washington, D.C. 20515

Dear Honorable _______________________

I am writing to ask that you, as my representative in Congress, be a co-sponsor and actively seek the passage of H.R. 893, the Wartime Parity and Justice Act of 2005, introduced this session by Rep. Xavier Becerra (CA-30). This bill will 1) provide full funding for the public education mandate of the Civil Liberties Act; 2) provide redress for those Japanese Americans who suffered deprivation of liberty due to the U.S. internment, but were denied redress under the Civil Liberties Act of 1988; and 3) ensure redress equity for the former Japanese Latin American internees.

**Public Education Funding:** Public education is an essential component of redress. It is only with continuing education that the recurrence of such civil and human rights violations can be prevented. The Civil Liberties Act was passed with the expectation that $50 million would go to public education about this tragic episode in U.S. history. However, the government failed to invest the redress funds as required by the Civil Liberties Act, and an estimated $200 million was lost in interest. As a result, only $5 million was spent for public education and research grants, which lasted only one year. Without an ongoing fund, the educational curricula will soon become technologically obsolete, and the truth will be forgotten. The U.S. must fulfill its original commitment to the $50 million, so that future generations will know the complete history of this shameful era and not allow such fundamental injustice to be repeated to any others.

**Redress Equity for Japanese Americans:** The World War II story of the U.S. government's massive violation of civil liberties of more than 120,000 Americans of Japanese ancestry is well known. While the majority of affected Japanese Americans have received redress, hundreds of Japanese Americans who were deprived of liberty have wrongly been denied justice and have not received redress. Denied individuals include: U.S. residents denied redress due to legal technicalities and narrow interpretations of the law; dependent children of railroad and mine workers who were fired from their jobs and made destitute by U.S. government actions; and those U.S. citizens of Japanese ancestry who were born within the barbed wire fences of the U.S. internment camps after June 30, 1946. (The Civil Liberties Act's time limitation was based on erroneous internment camp closing dates.)

**Redress Equity for Japanese Latin Americans:** During World War II, the U.S. government forcibly uprooted over 2,200 Latin American citizens and residents of Japanese ancestry from their homes in Peru and 12 other countries in Latin America, and incarcerated them in prison camps in the U.S. More than 800 Japanese Latin Americans served the government's purpose for the scheme: they were exchanged for U.S. civilian prisoners held by Japan. When the war finally ended, most of the JLAs were not allowed to return to their native countries, but were deported to war devastated Japan, where they endured starvation conditions, tremendous hardship, and trauma.

A class action lawsuit filed in federal court in 1996 resulted in a settlement in which the U.S. government acknowledged its wrongdoing in a letter of apology, but provided only $5,000 in redress payments. Part of that settlement agreement explicitly allowed for further action by Congress to fund JLA redress, in light of the fact that Japanese Americans were awarded $20,000 under the Civil Liberties Act. JLAs deserve to have their records corrected to remove the false label of "illegal entry" stamped in their U.S. immigration records by the very same government which had kidnapped them, and to receive redress at least equal to that received by other persons of Japanese ancestry who were wrongfully imprisoned by the U.S. government.

Please let me know that you will act to support the righting of this terrible wrong.

Sincerely,

Additional Comments:

Signature: _______________________

Print Name: _______________________

Address: _______________________


Summary of H.R. 893
Wartime Parity and Justice Act of 2005

Original Sponsor: Representative Xavier Becerra (D-CA)

Overview: The Wartime Parity and Justice Act of 2005 will provide equitable redress to Japanese Latin Americans (JLA) forcibly removed, at the urging of our government, from various Latin American countries and interned in the United States during World War II. In addition, the legislation will seek to provide redress to Japanese Americans who suffered grievances resulting from government actions during the evacuation, relocation, and internment period, who did not garner rectification from the Civil Liberties Act of 1988 on various technical grounds. Finally, the bill will authorize $45 million to create an education fund to ensure that this chapter in our nation’s history is appropriately remembered.

Summary of Provisions:

1. Provides redress in the amount of $20,000 to JLA forcibly removed from certain Latin American countries and interned in the United States during WWII.

2. Provides an official U.S. apology to JLA that admits culpability, the facts surrounding the removal of these individuals from their residences, and their internment in the United States.

3. Provides expanded notification to individuals eligible for redress and extends the right of claimants who are denied to appeal the decision.

4. Expunges the designation of “illegal alien” from the record of JLA individuals while they were interned in the United States. Does not confer citizenship or residency status.

5. Directs the U.S. government to disclose all information relevant to the forcible removal of individuals who were displaced from their homes and brought to the U.S. This includes disclosure of the fate of individuals for whom there is still no account. In addition, the U.S. government would be directed to work with other nations involved to facilitate the sharing of information.

6. Directs all involved agencies to release the names, addresses, telephone numbers, and all other relevant information for all persons who have claimed or will claim redress to the attorneys representing the claimant.

7. Allows an additional 6 years for Japanese Americans interned or relocated who failed to meet the application deadline of the original Civil Liberties Act to apply for redress.


10. Makes eligible for redress at $20,000 Japanese American workers, and their dependent children, employed by private railroad and mining companies and were terminated because of government action.

11. Makes eligible for redress at $20,000 persons of Japanese ancestry detained in the United States who would have been eligible for citizenship or permanent resident status had discriminatory immigration laws not been in effect.

12. Provides that other claimants may be made eligible for redress depending on the outcome of cases in litigation.

13. Reauthorizes $45 million to create an education fund to fulfill the mandate of the Civil Liberties Act of 1988. This amount would be invested in government obligations and earn interest at an annual rate of at least 5% to ensure that the education program continues in perpetuity.

14. Authorizes appropriations in the amount necessary to meet the obligations under this Act.
Japanese Latin Americans Move Closer to Justice with Nod from International Forum

On May 18, 2004, three Japanese Peruvians moved one step closer to their goal of redress for injustices suffered during World War II. The petition of Isamu (Art) Shibayama and his two brothers, Kenichi and Takeshi Shibayama, and the Japanese Peruvian Oral History Project, was sent by the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights, a body of the Organization of American States (OAS), to the United States government for rebuttal. The Shibayamas, along with nearly 2,300 other Japanese Latin Americans, were abducted from their home in Latin America by the U.S. government, brought to this country to be used as hostages in exchange for Americans held by Japan, interned, and in a cruel irony, classified as "illegal aliens" after the United States stripped them of their passports while forcibly bringing them to this country. They were then denied redress under the Civil Liberties Act of 1988 that provided an apology and compensation for victims of United States relocation programs.

"This is a major breakthrough in the redress and human rights struggle of the Japanese Latin Americans, and is important because it signifies that the OAS is willing to hear claims that the United States courts have refused to hear," said Karen Parker, attorney for the petitioners. "It acknowledges the importance of the application of international human rights law to claims of Latin Americans of Japanese ancestry, some of whom are now United States citizens, for injustices committed against them by the U.S. during World War II," Parker said. The petition was filed in June 2003.

The OAS has sent "pertinent parts" of the petition to the United States government for comments, meaning that the OAS considers the claim based on war crimes and crimes against humanity committed against them when they were children to be reasonably actionable. Remedies sought include proper apology reflecting the severity of the government violations, equitable redress compensation and full disclosure of the facts, including the fate of disappeared individuals in Latin America and Japan.

The OAS is a regional body, under the United Nations, for the Americas. The Inter-American Commission on Human Rights, based in Washington, D.C., and it's counterpart in Costa Rica apply the regional law of human rights to claims of violations made against the state by people in the Americas. The Inter-American Commission examined the Shibayama petition and accepted it for further review. The petition was sent to the U.S. State Department on May 18, 2004. The United States has been given two months to respond.

"We’re very excited that the OAS has decided to pursue our case," said Grace Shimizu, Director and Co-founder of the Japanese Peruvian Oral History Project. "It’s a vindication of our claims, since the U.S. courts would not hear them. In fact, it was a strategic decision on the part of the U.S. government to make internees, who were denied redress, appeal to the Court of Federal Claims, since it never had jurisdiction to hear civil rights or human rights claims and so it could never issue a judgment on the merits of our case," said Shimizu.

The Shibayama case is part of a redress effort for all Japanese Latin Americans who experienced similar human and civil rights violations during World War II, when 13 Latin American countries became involved in providing Japanese Latin Americans to the United States for hostage exchange and internment. The redress effort also includes legislation pending in the U.S. House of Representatives, the Wartime Parity and Justice Act of 2003. If passed, an estimated 1,200 Japanese Latin Americans and Japanese Americans would receive symbolic compensation of $20,000 and a proper apology. The bill also provides for the re-establishment of the Public Education Fund, which would make available $45 million in fulfillment of the educational mandate of the Civil Liberties Act of 1988.

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Q: WHAT COUNTRIES WERE INVOLVED IN THE HOSTAGE EXCHANGE PROGRAM?

A: THE UNITED STATES AND 13 LATIN AMERICAN COUNTRIES

The United States government initiated and orchestrated the exchange program, assuming all expenses and responsibility. The Department of State was responsible for the deportations from Latin American countries and the exchanges with Japan. The Department of Justice was responsible for interning Japanese Latin Americans in the United States.

13 Latin American countries cooperated with the exchange program by apprehending, detaining and deporting citizens and permanent residents of Japanese ancestry: Bolivia, Columbia, Costa Rica, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Mexico, Nicaragua, Panama and Peru.

Q: HOW MANY JAPANESE LATIN AMERICANS WERE APPREHENDED, DEPORTED TO & INTERNED IN THE UNITED STATES?

A: 2264 JAPANESE LATIN AMERICANS + 68 BABIES BORN DURING INTERNMENT

2264 men, women & children of Japanese ancestry, citizens & permanent residents of 13 Latin American countries) At least 331 men were also interned at the U.S. military base in Panama (some being forced to perform hard labor) before being sent to internment camps in the U.S. 68 babies were born in Crystal City Internment Camp, Texas between 1942 and 1947. 7 persons died while in custody between 12/41 and 2/27/48 (when Crystal City Internment Camp officially closed).
Q: HOW MANY JAPANESE LATIN AMERICANS WERE EXCHANGED DURING WWII?

A: APPROXIMATELY 865 JAPANESE LATIN AMERICANS WERE EXCHANGED

There were two exchanges during WWII, involving Japanese nationals who were permanent residents of Latin American countries as well as Latin American citizens of Japanese ancestry. The first exchange ship left New York on 6/18/42 (with 128 Japanese Latin American internees) and picked up additional persons in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. The second exchange ship left New York in 9/43 (with 737 Japanese Latin American internees).

Q: WHAT HAPPENED TO THE JAPANESE LATIN AMERICANS WHO WERE STILL INTERNED AT THE END OF WWII?

A: 112 Japanese Bolivians, Costa Ricans and Ecuadorans are assumed to have been deported to Japan at the end of WWII

945+ Japanese Pervians were deported to Japan at the end of WWII

365 Japanese Peruvians remained in the US to fight for the suspension of deportation, with hopes of returning to their homes in Peru. Of these, about 300 Japanese Peruvians were able to resolve their "illegal alien" status in the 1950s and eventually become US permanent residents or naturalized citizens.

Eventually, about 100 Japanese Peruvians were able to return to Peru.

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Personal Justice Denied

REPORT OF THE
COMMISSION ON WARTIME RELOCATION
AND INTERNMENT OF CIVILIANS

WASHINGTON, D.C.
DECEMBER 1982
Latin Americans

During World War II the United States expanded its internment program and national security investigations to Latin America on the basis of "military necessity." On the government's invitation, approximately 3,000 residents of Latin America were deported to the United States for internment to secure the Western Hemisphere from internal threats and to supply exchanges for American citizens held by the Axis. Most of these deportees were citizens, or their families, of Japan, Germany and Italy. Although this program was not conducted pursuant to Executive Order 9066, an examination of the extraordinary program of interning aliens from Latin America in the United States completes the account of federal actions to detain and intern civilians of enemy or foreign nationality, particularly those of Japanese ancestry.

What began as a controlled, closely monitored deportation program to detain potentially dangerous diplomatic and consular officials of Axis nations and Axis businessmen grew to include enemy aliens who were teachers, small businessmen, tailors and barbers—mostly people of Japanese ancestry. Over two-thirds, or 2,300, of the Latin American internees deported to the United States were Japanese nationals and their families; over eighty percent came from Peru. About half the Japanese internees were family members, including Nisei, who asked to join their husbands and fathers in camps pending deportation to Japan; family members were classified as "voluntary internees."

Underlying these deportations was fear of Japanese attack in Latin America, particularly at the Panama Canal, which produced suspicion of Latin American Japanese. But a curious wartime triangle trade in Japanese aliens for internment developed, too. Some Latin American countries, particularly Peru, deported Japanese out of cultural prejudice and antagonism based on economic competition; the United States, in turn, sought Latin American Japanese internees to exchange with Japanese for American citizens trapped in territories Japan controlled. The same dynamic often affected Germans and Italians.
Deportees from Peru for internment in the United States dominated the Latin American deportation program and thus this discussion centers on them. The history of the Japanese in Peru offers suggestive parallels to West Coast history.

In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, expanding agriculture in Latin America attracted surplus skilled farm labor from Japan; by 1923 almost 20,000 Japanese had settled in Peru alone. During the 1930's, economic depression in Japan and restricted immigration to the United States drew more Japanese to Latin America, where 23,000 entered Brazil in a single year. Worsening economic conditions in Latin America, however, brought discriminatory legislation and business practices aimed at these immigrants.

Japanese in Peru inherited years of prejudice earlier directed against Chinese immigrants. Many Japanese in Latin America had migrated to urban areas where they built close-knit communities, opened small businesses and gained economic independence. The Peruvian Japanese formed ethnic business associations and social organizations, and, although some Japanese married Peruvians and the typical family joined the Roman Catholic church, many kept a love of Japan, nursed feelings of cultural superiority and sent their children to Japan for formal education. In Peru, most Japanese immigrants steadfastly refused Peruvian citizenship. This history fueled Peruvian resentment against them; economic competition, including fears of Japanese farmers and merchants monopolizing fertile land and some service industries, aggravated prejudice. Peru severely restricted Japanese immigration in 1936 and followed up by restricting the right to citizenship of some Peruvian Japanese, including Kibei. In 1940, when about 26,000 Japanese lived in Peru, including 9,000 Nisei, riots broke out. Japanese businesses were destroyed and homes ransacked, and restrictive laws muzzled the Japanese press.

By 1940, the United States had become directly involved with security in Latin America. After the European war erupted in 1939, the government posted FBI agents in United States embassies in Latin America to compile information on Axis nationals and sympathizers. Following Pearl Harbor, the United States immediately moved to secure the Western Hemisphere against dangerous enemy aliens. For the first time, Japanese-owned businesses in Latin America appeared on the United States' Proclaimed List of Blocked Nationals and were thus blacklisted through economic warfare. After a meeting of Western Hemisphere nations early in 1942, the Emergency Advisory Committee for Political Defense was created, composed of representatives from
the United States, Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Mexico, Uruguay and Venezuela. The Committee forwarded to Latin American countries recommendations to control subversive activities and to secure the hemisphere, emphasizing internment of Axis nationals. Several Latin American countries, severing ties with the Axis, imposed restrictions against Axis nationals.

Acting on Emergency Advisory Committee recommendations or in response to United States security efforts, sixteen Latin American countries interned at least 8,500 Axis nationals during World War II. Economic and political pressure from the Proclaimed Lists and the Emergency Advisory Committee, coupled with Latin American nations’ inability to establish costly security programs, encouraged the United States to accept Latin American enemy aliens for internment. Twelve Latin American countries—Bolivia, Colombia, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama and Peru—deported some or all of their enemy alien internees to the United States. (Brazil and Venezuela did not.) Once in the United States, the State Department had custody and held internees in camps operated by the Justice Department’s Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS).

The model of the Latin American deportation and internment program was developed in Panama. Before the war, the United States had agreed orally and informally with Panamanian officials to intern Japanese nationals during wartime. After the Pearl Harbor attack, Panama declared war on the Axis and froze Japanese assets. Japanese aliens were arrested by Panamanian and American agents for security reasons because they were near the Canal Zone. The War Department instructed the Commanding General of the Caribbean Defense Command to construct an internment camp in Panama for enemy aliens. Panama later agreed to transfer internees to the United States to be traded for Western Hemisphere nationals held in Japan.

In Peru, the State Department aimed to eliminate potential military threats and to integrate Peru’s economy and government into the war effort. After war broke out, Peru notified the War Department that the United States could place military installations there; a small military force eventually encamped near the oil fields of northern Peru, and the United States promised $29 million in armaments through Lend-Lease agreements, the largest pledge to a Latin American state. Peru moved quickly against its Japanese residents, whose newspapers, organizations and schools were closed after December 7. Japanese assets were frozen, and the Proclaimed Lists brought hardship to Jap-
anese businesses; some Peruvian Japanese were asked to leave. Before any deportations occurred, almost 500 Japanese registered repatriation requests at the Spanish Embassy, which represented Japan’s interests in Peru. This group was among the first to be deported. The initial targets of the American-Peruvian deportation program were enemy alien diplomatic and consular officials and some business representatives of Japan. Peru wished to deport all Japanese and other Axis nationals as well, but the United States recognized its limited need of Latin American Japanese for exchange with Japan; the problems of limited shipping facilities; and the administrative burden of a full-scale enemy alien deportation program. The United States limited the program to deporting officials and “dangerous” enemy aliens.

John K. Emmerson, Third Secretary of the American Embassy in Peru, who had been a language student in Japan and could speak and read Japanese fluently, was assigned to help the Peruvians identify “dangerous” aliens and compile deportation lists. But deportations were in fact planned with little coordination between the United States and Peru, and Peru chose some deportees over others for no apparent reason, although bribery may have been involved. Moreover, the inaccurate portrayal by Peruvian officials of Peruvian Japanese as deceptive and dangerous encouraged the United States to deport and intern not only Japanese nationals, but some Peruvian citizens of Japanese descent.

During early 1942, approximately 1,000 Japanese, 300 Germans and 30 Italians were deported from Peru to the United States, along with about 850 German, Japanese and Italian aliens picked up in Ecuador, Colombia, and Bolivia and an additional 184 men from Panama and Costa Rica. Normal legal proceedings were ignored and none of the Peruvians were issued warrants, granted hearings, or indicted after arrest. On entering the United States, officials of Axis nations were placed in State Department custody and private citizens were sent to INS internment camps in Texas. In most cases passports had been confiscated before landing, and the State Department ordered American consuls in Peru and elsewhere to issue no visas prior to departure. Despite their involuntary arrival, deportees were treated by INS as having illegally entered this country. Thus the deportees became illegal aliens in U.S. custody who were subject to deportation proceedings, i.e., repatriation.

Most of the first group of deportees from Peru were men, primarily diplomatic and consular officials, representatives of Japanese business interests, and private citizens targeted as community leaders and thus
believed to be dangerous." Categorical classifications of some as "believed to be dangerous" enabled the deportation of many private citizens because the United States was unwilling to investigate the need to deport each individual. As John Emmerson later stated: "Lacking incriminating evidence, we established the criteria of leadership and influence in the community to determine those Japanese to be expelled." 

By June 1942, many Latin American countries had severed diplomatic relations with the Axis nations. Lend-Lease and trade consignments between the United States and Latin America had strengthened hemispheric unity. But the United States was not confident that Latin America could control subversive activity and thus increased its interest in the deportation and internment program. By this time traffic in the exchange of Japanese and other Axis nationals for American citizens was growing. By early 1942, aided by Swiss and Spanish intermediaries, the United States and Japan had begun negotiating for the exchange of nationals, both officials and private citizens. By July, the United States had deported approximately 1,100 Latin American Japanese and 500 Germans to their home countries. Enemy alien citizens who threatened nothing were uprooted from their homes to be used in the exchange. By August 1942, the State Department estimated that, in addition to the Americans caught as Japan advanced across the southwest Pacific, at least 3,300 Americans were trapped in China and available for exchange with Japan. These considerable numbers increased American interest in receiving Japanese deportees from Latin America. But slow communications, problems in obtaining assurances that repatriates could pass safely through the war zone, shipping shortages, and Justice Department refusal to repatriate an individual against his will, delayed further repatriations for over a year. As a result, "dangerous" enemy aliens were deported to the U.S. at a comfortable pace for both Latin America and the United States, including INS administrators seeking to prevent overcrowding in the camps.

In January 1943, after 200 more Japanese aliens had been deported from Peru, the Justice Department refused a State Department request for the deportation of another 1,000 Latin American Japanese. Unsatisfied with the screening procedures of the American embassy in Peru as well as Peruvian practices in identifying dangerous individuals, the Justice Department sent Raymond Ickes of its Alien Enemy Control Unit to Peru to oversee the selection. Ickes, partially successful in overcoming low-level Peruvian officials' obstructionism and indiffer-
ence, entertained a novel idea shared by other American officials in Peru and President Prado—to establish internment camps in Peru financed by the United States. The Administration had already requested appropriations to establish an internment camp in Cuba. Moreover, the State Department was reluctant to encourage Peru to breach international law by sending all its Peruvian Japanese from a nonbelligerent state directly to a belligerent one. But the American embassy in Peru vetoed the Peruvian camp idea, distrusting Peruvian officials' ability to intern dangerous individuals—a view supported by Peru's record in the deportation. As Emmerson had reported earlier, "since local police and other officials are susceptible to Japanese bribes, their alertness cannot be depended upon." Indeed, Arthur Shinee Yakabi, a bakery worker deported from Peru, testified: "I was asleep in February 1943 when some Peruvian police came and arrested my employer. My employer pulled a fast one by bribing the police, and offered me as a substitute." In addition, the embassy's view of the danger posed by Peruvian Japanese was changing by the end of summer 1943; Emmerson, now Second Secretary, was confident that the Japanese community no longer constituted a threat to security. The Latin American deportation program continued nevertheless.

In May 1943, the Emergency Advisory Committee adopted a resolution that American republics intern and expel dangerous Axis nationals. Near the end of 1943, the Committee reviewed the Latin American security situation and concluded that direct United States involvement in securing the hemisphere was crucial. Except for Brazil, no Latin American country had initiated security measures compatible with United States standards. The Committee wanted agreements for deportation programs from Chile, Uruguay, Paraguay, Venezuela and Colombia.

The repatriation and exchange program proceeded slowly. In September 1943, over 1,300 Japanese left New York for Japan, over half from Peru, Panama, Costa Rica, Mexico, Nicaragua, Ecuador, Cuba, El Salvador and Guatemala; almost 40 percent of the entire contingent was from Peru.

In the spring of 1944, the State Department realized that no more Axis nationals would be repatriated until the war was over. Nevertheless, from January to October 1944, over 700 Japanese men, women, children and 70 German aliens were deported from Peru to the United States, along with over 130 enemy aliens from Bolivia, Costa Rica and Ecuador. Peru pushed for additional Japanese deportations, but the United States could not commit the shipping and did not want to
augment the hundreds of Japanese internees awaiting repatriation. The State Department also decided not to repatriate Axis nationals against their will, realizing that many internees might not want to return to a devastated country. Thus deportation proceedings lagged and the INS internment camps became overcrowded.

Internees at INS camps in Crystal City, Kennedy and Seagoville, Texas, and Missoula, Montana, had two main concerns: having their families join them in the United States and repatriation to Japan. Living conditions at the camps were not unlike those in the war relocation centers. Confinement's bad effects were evident: lack of privacy, family breakdown, listlessness and uncertainty about the future. To safeguard the internees from unhealthy conditions, the camps were inspected routinely by Spain, the International Red Cross, the War Prisoners Aid of the YMCA and the YWCA, the American Friends Service Committee, and the National Catholic Welfare Conference. At the end of the war, approximately 1,400 Latin American Japanese, mostly from Peru, were interned in the United States, awaiting a decision on their destiny. Some wished to return to Latin America, others to Japan. To most it was a choice of the lesser of two evils: they had lost everything in Latin America, but Japan, which they had left to pursue greater economic opportunity, was devastated by the war. A number wanted to remain in the United States and begin anew.

As the end of the war approached in Summer 1945, the United States and other Western Hemisphere nations began to consider the postwar fate of interned Axis nationals. President Truman issued Proclamation 2655 authorizing the United States to deport enemy aliens deemed "to be dangerous to the public peace and safety of the United States."33 The Latin American Conference on Problems of War and Peace passed a resolution recommending that persons deported for security reasons should be prevented from "further residing in the hemisphere, if such residence would be prejudicial to the future security or welfare of the Americas."34

The State and Justice Departments disagreed about security measures to take against interned enemy aliens. The Justice Department wanted to remove internees from its jurisdiction and divorce itself from the deportation and internment program; the State Department wanted to conclude the program by removing all dangerous Axis influences from the hemisphere.35 As part of its long-term security strategy, in September 1945 the State Department secured a proclamation from President Truman directing the Secretary of State to remove any enemy aliens in the United States from the Western Hemisphere, in-
cluding those from Latin America, who were illegal aliens and dan-
gerous to hemispheric security.

In December 1945, approximately 800 Peruvian Japanese were
voluntarily deported to Japan, but in general the internment ended
very slowly and tortuously. The United States sought to return inter-
nees who were not classified as dangerous and who refused deportation
to Axis countries, to their points of origin in Latin America. But the
common hemispheric interests that bred the deportation had dissolved,
and the government now had to negotiate about returning internees
to Latin America using weak, hastily-written wartime agreements, for
the United States had not exacted initial guarantees defining the de-
portees’ postwar fate. For the most part, the Central American and
Caribbean countries that had deported enemy aliens to the United
States had placed few restrictions on their disposition. Mexico, Co-
lombia and Ecuador had required specific guarantees before releasing
enemy aliens to the United States. Peru, Ecuador and El Salvador
wanted jurisdiction over internees in order to obtain the return of some
German deportees, for many Germans in Latin America, unlike the
Japanese, had acquired economic and political influence as well as
greater social acceptance. Peru had sought no firm agreement from
the United States concerning final destination and wanted to restrict
the return of Japanese (but not German) internees. The United States
wanted a consistent policy for the Latin American internees and gave
Peru the choice of accepting all non-dangerous internees or leaving
depортation control to the United States. So negotiations dragged on
for the return to Peru of Peruvian Japanese.

Meanwhile, the internees used litigation to block deportation to
Axis states. Some German internees filed habeas corpus petitions chal-
 lenging their detention by the United States, claiming that they were
not alien enemies as defined by the Alien Enemy Act of 1798, because
they were not natives or citizens of an enemy country. In January 1946,
this effort failed when a federal district court ruled that the Latin
American internees were “alien enemies” who could legally be de-
tained. After this decision, 513 Japanese (over ninety percent from
Peru), 897 Germans and 37 Italians from Latin America in United
States internment camps were granted hearings pending deportation
to Axis countries. The hearings were a formality leading inevitably
to deportation to Axis countries, although most of the remaining Latin
American Japanese wished to return to Peru. Voluntary repatriation
continued into 1946, with at least 130 Peruvian Japanese returning to
Japan by June.
The final destiny of the Latin American Japanese was placed in the hands of the Justice Department after the State Department concluded that insufficient evidence existed to call the remaining Japanese internees dangerous to the Western Hemisphere. The State Department, although willing to proceed with deportations to Japan, hoped the Justice Department would stop deportation proceedings against Peruvian Japanese with families in Peru. The process moved very slowly for those who wanted to remain in the United States or return to Peru. Two Peruvian Japanese, Eigo and Elsa Kudo, remembered their anxious waiting period:

There were several hearings to persuade these poor internees to leave for Japan. We were one of those who asked, “Why are we illegal aliens when we were brought under armed MPs and processed by the immigration officers upon arrival in New Orleans?” . . . Again and again they repeated, “You are illegal aliens because you have no passports nor visa.”

In August 1946, Wayne Collins, an attorney who had often helped Issei and Nisei over the years, arranged for some Peruvian Japanese to be transferred from INS internment camps to a fresh produce processing plant in Seabrook, New Jersey, where Japanese Americans had worked during the exclusion from the West Coast. The internees welcomed Seabrook as an opportunity to escape camp life, restore traditional family life, and earn relatively decent wages while awaiting word of their ultimate fate; at the same time, it must be recognized that conditions at Seabrook were far less attractive than those of ordinary liberated life. Other internees were paroled from the INS camps under sponsorship of American citizens.

To some extent, returning internees to Peru was further complicated during 1946 by a nationalistic pro-Japan underground movement, the Aikoku Doshi-Kai, which sprang up in Peru and South America. Both Peruvian and American officials overestimated the movement’s influence, but the United States accepted Peru’s reluctance to bring Japanese deportees back into a country inflamed by anti-Japanese sentiment. Peru announced that it would allow only Peruvian citizens of Japanese descent and Japanese related to Peruvian citizens to return, and from May to October 1946, only about 100 Japanese internees went back to Peru. At the same time, almost 600 German nationals were returned to Latin America in the year 1945-46.

At the beginning of 1947, 300 Peruvian Japanese remained in the United States, the majority at Seabrook. Those with family ties in Peru entertained hopes of returning home. Talks between the United States
and Peru were stalemated during 1947; negotiations were renewed with the Peruvian government which had come to power in a coup in the winter of 1948–49, but it refused to accept any non-citizens.

In the spring of 1949, exasperated State Department officials concluded that the only solution to the Peruvian Japanese internee problem was to give internees the status of “permanent legally admitted immigrants” who could remain in the United States. Finally, in July 1952, the remaining Japanese Peruvian internees, having resided in the United States for seven years or more, petitioned the Board of Immigration Appeals to reopen hearings to suspend deportation orders, and Congress approved the deportation suspensions in 1953. The wartime deportation and internment program was finally at an end. But, for some, the emotional trauma of the program was endless. Peruvian deportee Ginzo Murono stated: “Some of the people from Peru who were interned with me were separated from their families for many years. In a few cases, the broken families were never reunited.”

Historical documents concerning the ethnic Japanese in Latin America are, of course, housed in distant archives, and the Commission has not researched that body of material. Although the need for this extensive, disruptive program has not been definitively reviewed by the Commission, John Emmerson, a well-informed American diplomat in Peru during the program, wrote more than thirty years later: “During my period of service in the embassy, we found no reliable evidence of planned or contemplated acts of sabotage, subversion, or espionage.” Whatever justification is offered for this treatment of enemy aliens, many Latin American Japanese never saw their homes again after remaining for many years in a kind of legal no-man’s-land. Their history is one of the strange, unhappy, largely forgotten stories of World War II.
Appendix

Latin Americans

11. Idem.
12. Telegram, U.S. Department of State to U.S. Ambassador to Panama, Dec. 12, 1941. NARS. RG 59 (CWRIC 6944).
15. Ibid., p. 25.
17. Attorney General Francis Biddle and Under Secretary of State Sumner Welles had previously agreed that interning citizens of Latin American states among the internees brought from Panama and Costa Rica posed no legal problem. (Gardiner, *Pawns*, pp. 21-24.)
18. Ibid., pp. 25-46.
19. Ibid., p. 58.
20. Ibid., p. 29.
24. Ibid., p. 56.
25. Ibid., p. 67.

26. A September 8, 1942, State Department memorandum shows that State was concerned "whether any effort should be made to influence Peru to breach the international law provisions," and that after a decision was made on this issue, "then a decision can be reached as to whether the United States will undertake the wholesale removal of all Japanese from Peru over a period of time." Memorandum, Hanley, September 8, 1942. NARS. RG 59 (CWRIC 6943).

27. Letter, Emmerson to U.S. Ambassador to Peru, April 18, 1942. NARS. RG 59 (CWRIC 5648–49).


31. Ibid., p. 84.

32. Ibid., pp. 88–107.


34. Gardiner, Japanese Thread, p. 149.


36. Ibid., p. 124.


38. Gardiner, Pawns, p. 133; one German internee, von Heymann, won a reversal in the Second Circuit Court of Appeals, United States v. Watkins, 159 F.2d 650 (2d Cir. 1947).


40. Ibid., p. 130.


42. Gardiner, Pawns, pp. 142–43.


47. Gardiner, Pawns, p. 168.


WHO WILL BE NEXT?

HERE, IN AMERICA?
THE ASSEMBLY ON WARTIME RELOCATION & INTERNMENT OF CIVILIANS

Hear new personal stories from World War II and today

Friday, April 8th & Saturday April 9th, 2005
Hastings College of the Law - 200 McAllister St. San Francisco, CA
For more information, call 415-921-5007 or visit www.campaignforjusticejla.org
April 2005

Dear Friends,

Welcome to San Francisco! I am pleased to serve as honorary co-chair of The Assembly on the Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians with my colleagues Congressmen Xavier Becerra and Mike Honda - two champions for the rights and concerns of all Americans.

Thank you for your work to focus attention on the stories of U.S. citizens and immigrants of Japanese, German, and Italian ancestry who were incarcerated by the U.S. government during World War II without due process. I appreciate your efforts to bring these stories and the stories of those whose civil rights have been violated after the tragic events of September 11, 2001 to the attention of Congress.

Let us continue in the tradition of Fred Korematsu and stand together to protect the civil rights of all Americans. As we protect and defend the American people, we must also protect and defend our Constitution and the civil liberties contained therein.

Thank you again for your critical efforts, and please accept my best wishes for a successful event.

Sincerely,

Nancy Pelosi
NANCY PELOSI
Democratic Leader
April 8-9, 2005

Greetings from Congressman Honda on
"Here, In America?"

The Assembly on the Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians

Welcome to everyone who has gathered here to raise public awareness and to acknowledge the diverse experiences of former relocatees and internees. The Assembly on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians (AWRIC) focuses on personal testimonies of US citizens and immigrants of Japanese, German and Italian ancestry in the US and from Latin America who were interned in the Department of Justice camps and Army facilities as part of the enemy alien program during World War II.

It is important to understand how race and ethnic prejudice, war hysteria, and a failure of political leadership can impact both citizens and immigrants who are targeted as the "enemy" during wartime and national crises. Civil liberties are threatened in times like this and so we must be vigilant in protecting these rights.

The AWRIC provides an opportunity for individuals and community organizations to speak to a wider audience about this little known part of our history. I commend the AWRIC for teaching us about the issues and lessons from the past which are still very relevant to our present-day concerns for the preservation of civil and human rights.

I extend the warmest wishes for a successful forum.

Sincerely,

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Member of Congress (CA-15)
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The Assembly on the Wartime Relocation & Internment of Civilians

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Convener: Judy Nihei

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Overview of War Relocation Authority and Enemy Alien Internment Programs  
Lawrence DiStasi

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Peter Keane, Professor of Law and Dean Emeritus, Golden Gate University
Karen Musalo, Director, The Center for Gender and Refugee Studies, and Resident Scholar, UC Hastings College of the Law
Steve Phillips, former President, Board of Education, San Francisco Unified School District
Margaret Russell, Professor of Law, Santa Clara University, and Vice President, National American Civil Liberties Union
Reverend LaVerne Sasaki, Buddhist Church of San Francisco
Herb Holman, President, HOLMAN Financial Services
Lena Ayoub, National Center for Lesbian Rights
The Honorable Lillian Sing, Superior Court of California, County of San Francisco
Eric Mar, President, SF Unified School District Board
Jere Takahashi, Professor of Asian American Studies, University of California at Berkeley
David Brown, Member, Contra Costa County School Board
Sharen Hewitt, Director of SFSU CLEAR Project, and founding member of PowerPac
Michael Yaki, Commissioner, U.S. Commission on Civil Rights

Summary Report of the AWRIC will be written by Helen Zia, award-winning journalist & author

Presented by:

The AWRIC is made possible in part by funding from the Civil Liberties Public Education Program; the California Council for the Humanities - California Stories Initiative; * and generous contributions from individuals and community sponsors.

*The Council is an independent non-profit organization and a state affiliate of the National Endowment for the Humanities. For more information on the Council and the California Stories Initiative, visit www.californiastories.org.
Why the Assembly on Wartime Relocation & Internment of Civilians?

As we saw at the Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians (CWRIC) hearings back in 1981 -- which paved the way for a long overdue governmental apology, redress for the World War II Japanese American mass incarceration -- there is nothing quite as powerful as bearing witness to personal testimony in the presence of one's community and representatives of the "powers that be". Beyond the impact of the hearings themselves, the official record of the injustices and the CWRIC's findings submitted to Congress have had a truly transformative effect on the Japanese American community and American public.

Since the events of 9/11, and the on-going "war on terror" - the findings of the CWRIC report have been quoted often: that the causes and conditions that gave rise to the mass incarceration, exclusions and restrictions of Japanese Americans during WWII were due to "race prejudice, war hysteria and a failure of political leadership..." Unfortunately, to many, those words are again ringing true today, victimizing other groups of people as "the enemy."

"Here, In America? - The Assembly on Wartime Relocation and Internment" is not mandated by the government, as the CWRIC was, but promises to be just as vital for our times, and critical for those surviving internees who never received proper acknowledgement of their stories and may not be with us much longer. These consist mainly of the Japanese Latin American, German American and Italian American former internees; as well as some Japanese Americans who did not receive redress due to various technicalities. Their testimony, alongside those of Arabs, Muslims and others who are targeted today, seeks to raise public consciousness and hopefully prevent the situation from getting worse for all of us.
AWRIC Coordinating Committee

Postcard graphics by Lina Hoshino
Videography by Casey Peek
Production direction by Judy Nihei
Summary Report of AWRIC to be written by Helen Zia.

Community Sponsors:
Council on American-Islamic Relations, Tule Lake Committee and the German American Internees Coalition – In honor of those who tell our stories.

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The AWRIC Coordinating Committee and presenting organizations extend warm thanks to the many volunteers and donors who made “Here, In America?” possible today.

Special thanks to UC Hastings College of the Law; Tom Simms; Brian Wang; Kimochi Transportation; Rich Tokeshi; Miyako Radisson Hotel; and Fin Estampa Restaurant.
Thank you to each of the Reviewers; the Witnesses, Presenters, our Honorary Co-Chairs, the Advisory Board, and you, the Audience/Community.

Thank you to all our volunteers: Gloria Lo, Sean Tamura-Sato, Joanne Gonzales, Salman Alam, Johnson Lee, Neela Chakravartula, Shining Hsu, Keo Chea, Tri Huynh, Shining Hsu, Mustafa El-Farra, Kei Kuramoto, Annie Lin, Diana Chen, Bill Sato, Fumie and Sam Shimada, Denise Teraoka, Darren Wong, Ann Yoshinaga, Nick Siegal, Lois Ohwa, Harumi, Makiko, Ken Kaji and many others.


For information on future educational activities: E-mail: jpohp@prodigy.net Ph: (415) 921-5007 www.campaignforjusticejla.org

Special Dedication
This historic gathering honors the legacy of Wally Nunotani and Fred Korematsu.
May we honor their lives and carry on their legacy in all our work.
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> Peter Keane, Professor of Law and Dean Emeritus, Golden Gate University
> Karen Musalo, Director, The Center for Gender and Refugee Studies, and Resident Scholar, UC Hastings College of the Law
> Steve Phillips, former President, Board of Education, San Francisco Unified School District
> Margaret Russell, Professor of Law, Santa Clara University, and Vice President, National American Civil Liberties Union
> Reverend LaVerne Sasaki, Buddhist Church of San Francisco
> Herb Holman, President, HOLMAN Financial Services
> Lena Ayoub, National Center for Lesbian Rights
> The Honorable Lillian Sing, Superior Court of California, County of San Francisco
> Eric Mar, President, SF Unified School District Board
> Jere Takahashi, Professor of Asian American Studies, University of California at Berkeley
> David Brown, Member, Contra Costa County School Board
> Sharen Hewitt, Director of SFSU CLEAR Project, and founding member of PowerPac
> Michael Yaki, Commissioner, U.S. Commission on Civil Rights

Summary Report of the AWRIC will be written by Helen Zia, award-winning journalist & author

Presented by:

The AWRIC is made possible in part by funding from the Civil Liberties Public Education Program; the California Council for the Humanities - California Stories Initiative;* and generous contributions from individuals and community sponsors.

*The Council is an independent non-profit organization and a state affiliate of the National Endowment for the Humanities. For more information on the Council and the California Stories Initiative, visit www.californiastories.org.
Why the Assembly on Wartime Relocation & Internment of Civilians?

As we saw at the Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians (CWRIC) hearings back in 1981 -- which paved the way for a long overdue governmental apology, redress for the World War II Japanese American mass incarceration -- there is nothing quite as powerful as bearing witness to personal testimony in the presence of one's community and representatives of the "powers that be". Beyond the impact of the hearings themselves, the official record of the injustices and the CWRIC's findings submitted to Congress have had a truly transformative effect on the Japanese American community and American public.

Since the events of 9/11, and the on-going "war on terror" - the findings of the CWRIC report have been quoted often: that the causes and conditions that gave rise to the mass incarceration, exclusions and restrictions of Japanese Americans during WWII were due to "race prejudice, war hysteria and a failure of political leadership..." Unfortunately, to many, those words are again ringing true today, victimizing other groups of people as "the enemy."

"Here, In America? - The Assembly on Wartime Relocation and Internment" is not mandated by the government, as the CWRIC was, but promises to be just as vital for our times, and critical for those surviving internees who never received proper acknowledgement of their stories and may not be with us much longer. These consist mainly of the Japanese Latin American, German American and Italian American former internees; as well as some Japanese Americans who did not receive redress due to various technicalities. Their testimony, alongside those of Arabs, Muslims and others who are targeted today, seeks to raise public consciousness and hopefully prevent the situation from getting worse for all of us.
AWRIC Coordinating Committee

Postcard graphics by Lina Hoshino
Videography by Casey Peek
Production direction by Judy Nihei
Summary Report of AWRIC to be written by Helen Zia.

Community Sponsors:
Council on American-Islamic Relations, Tule Lake Committee and the German American Internees Coalition – In honor of those who tell our stories.

Major grant support from the California Civil Liberties Public Education Program and the California Council for Humanities – California Stories Initiative.
The Council is an independent non-profit organization and a state affiliate of the National Endowment for the Humanities. For more information on the Council and the California Stories Initiative, visit www.californiastories.org.

The AWRIC Coordinating Committee and presenting organizations extend warm thanks to the many volunteers and donors who made “Here, In America?” possible today.

Special thanks to UC Hastings College of the Law; Tom Simms; Brian Wang; Kimochi Transportation; Rich Tokeshi; Miyako Radisson Hotel; and Fin Estampa Restaurant.
Thank you to each of the Reviewers; the Witnesses, Presenters, our Honorary Co-Chairs, the Advisory Board, and you, the Audience/Community.

Thank you to all our volunteers: Gloria Lo, Sean Tamura-Sato, Joanne Gonzales, Salman Alam, Johnson Lee, Neela Chakravartula, Shining Hsu, Keo Chea, Tri Huynh, Shining Hsu, Mustafa El-Farra, Kei Kuramoto, Annie Lin, Diana Chen, Bill Sato, Fumie and Sam Shimada, Denise Teraoka, Darren Wong, Ann Yoshinaga, Nick Siegal, Lois Ohwa, Harumi, Makiko, Ken Kaji and many others.


For information on future educational activities:
E-mail: jpo hp@prodigy.net Ph: (415) 921-5007 www.campaignforjusticejla.org

Special Dedication
This historic gathering honors the legacy of Wally Nunotani and Fred Korematsu.
May we honor their lives and carry on their legacy in all our work.
Here, In America?
THE ASSEMBLY ON THE WARTIME RELOCATION AND INTERNMENT OF CIVILIANS
New Personal Testimonies from World War II and Today

APRIL 8-9, 2005 10 am – 4 pm
Hastings College of the Law (at Hyde & McAllister Streets) San Francisco, California

FREE – Advance reservations recommended. RSVP by April 1st: (415) 921-5007.

The Assembly on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians, a grassroots public education forum, will focus on the personal testimonies of US citizens and immigrants of Japanese, German and Italian ancestry in the US and from Latin America, who have not received proper acknowledgment nor an apology for the violation of their civil and human rights due to US government action during World War II. We will highlight stories of individuals and families who were interned in the Department of Justice camps and Army facilities as part of the enemy alien program. Included will be some of the family experiences of over 6,000 German and Japanese Latin Americans who were abducted from 15 Latin American countries and interned in the US for the purpose of prisoner exchange. We will also provide an opportunity for individuals and community organizations to speak to the importance of ongoing education about issues and lessons that are relevant to present-day concerns.

Join us! A panel of distinguished scholars and community leaders will help to:

• Raise public awareness and acknowledgement of the diverse experiences of former relocatees and internees

• Hear expert witnesses and commentary on issues including:
  ➢ How race and ethnic prejudice, war hysteria, and a failure of political leadership can impact both citizens and immigrants who are targeted as the “enemy” during wartime and national crises
  ➢ Past and present day concerns regarding the relationship of national security and preservation of civil liberties
  ➢ US and international standards of government accountability and redress for civil and human rights violations
  ➢ Consequences and implications of the failure to acknowledge and redress civil and human rights violations

An official record of the testimonies will be created for educational and archival purposes to be deposited at the National Japanese American Historical Society archives in San Francisco. Copies of the testimony and videotaped excerpts from the proceedings will be submitted to the US Congress and the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights (a body of the Organization of American States) as background educational information for consideration of pending and future legislation and litigation.

For information on event and how to submit testimony:
E-mail: jpohp@prodigy.net Ph: (415) 921-5007 www.campaignforjusticejla.org

Tax deductible contributions can be made payable to “NJAHS”. (Please note “Assembly” on the memo line.) Send checks to NJAHS, 1684 Post St., San Francisco, CA 94115-3604.

The AWRIC is made possible in part by the California Civil Liberties Public Education Program; the California Council for the Humanities - California Stories Fund; and generous contributions from individuals & community organizations.

“Here in America?:
The Assembly on the Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians”
April 8-9, 2005

UC Hastings College of the Law
Alumni Reception Center
200 McAllister Street
San Francisco, CA 94102

SCHEDULE:

Friday, April 8, 2005

9:00 – 10:00 a.m.  Registration

10:00 – 10:30 a.m.  Welcome
Opening Remarks – Honorable Xavier Becerra, U.S.
Congressmember (CA-31)

10:30 – 11:20 a.m.  Panel I: War Relocation Authority Internment and the Enemy
Alien Program

11:30 – 12:20 p.m.  Panel II: Restrictions, Evacuation, and Individual Exclusions

12:20 – 1:30 p.m.  Lunch

1:30 – 2:20 p.m.  Panel III: Arrest, Detention, and Forced Deportation from Latin
America to the United States

2:30 – 3:20 p.m.  Panel IV: Detention and Internment (WWII-1949, today)

3:20 – 4:00 p.m.  Closing

5:00 p.m.  Dinner at: Fina Estampa Restaurant (Peruvian food)
1100 Van Ness Avenue (at Geary), San Francisco, CA 94109
(limited van transportation from Hastings to restaurant available)

Saturday, April 9, 2005

9:00 – 10:00 a.m.  Registration

10:00 – 10:30 a.m.  Welcome
Opening Remarks
Overview of War Relocation Authority and Enemy Alien
Internment Programs
10:30 – 11:20 a.m.  **Panel V:** Release from Camp, Hostage Exchange, and Post-War Deportations

11:30 – 12:20 p.m.  **Panel VI:** Impact on Individuals, Families, and Communities

12:20 – 1:30 p.m.  Lunch

1:30 – 2:20 p.m.  **Panel VII:** Civil Liberties and Human Rights, Government Accountability, and Redress

2:30 – 3:20 p.m.  **Panel VIII:** The Legacy of the World War II Experiences in the Aftermath of 9-11

3:20 – 4:00 p.m.  Closing

4:00 – 5:30 p.m.  Reception at Hastings College of the Law
Luong, Van (Inouye)

**From:** Luong, Van (Inouye)  
**Sent:** Tuesday, April 05, 2005 6:49 PM  
**To:** Luong, Van (Inouye)

Thursday - 7 April 2005

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Weather | Maps / Driving Directions

ACCESS YOUR COMPLETE ITINERARY ONLINE
WWW.MYTRIPANDMORE.COM YOUR LOCATOR NUMBER CAN BE FOUND IN THE UPPER RIGHT CORNER AFTER PNR 1P-DELTA AIRLINES RECORD LOCATOR -5JUCVY-
GOV AIRFARE $397.80 PLUS $20.00 SERVICE FEE AT TICKETING

4/6/2005
Caltrans’ $300,000 Stabilization Project on Historic Buildings at Tule Lake Completed

The California Department of Transportation, Caltrans, completed a major stabilization project on its historic Tule Lake structures. Caltrans worked with the State Office of Historic Preservation to help assure that the stabilization is reversible and did not alter the historic structures. The stabilization included the construction of a canopy over the jail, boarding-up the windows and doors, enclosing the buildings behind a locked fence, removing flammable items from the buildings, and strengthening the support structures.

Five historic Tule Lake Internment Camp structures, including the jail (pictured above) were stabilized. The stabilization is designed to prevent further deterioration by protecting the buildings from the elements and from possible vandalism.

Caltrans currently leases the Tule Lake property from the U.S. Bureau of Reclamation. Caltrans is seeking to transfer the five historic buildings to another government agency such as California Parks and Recreation or the National Parks Service for use as an interpretive center.

Plans Unveiled for Tule Lake Museum of Conscience

Plans for a new Museum of Conscience interpretive center at the former WWII Tule Lake Internment Camp were unveiled at a meeting with Ruth Coleman, Director of California State Parks and members of her staff. The plan was developed by Jimi Yamauchi, former Tule Lake internee and President of the Tule Lake Committee, Gerald Takano, AIA of TBA West, Inc., and Michael Crowe. The $7 million proposed development will be located on a 40-acre site adjacent to Highway 139 in Modoc County, California. The site includes the Tule Lake jail and other historic structures.

Plans for the new Museum of Conscience include an interpretive center with retail space, exhibits to be housed in restored camp structures, informational kiosks, a community park, scenic overlook, rest stop, parking, restrooms, landscaping, lighting, signage, and staffing. (Continued on page 2)
A unique long-term partnership between California State Parks, National Parks Service, Tule Lake Committee, and Tulelake community groups is proposed to staff and interpret the new site.

Tule Lake is unique because it retains a strong sense of the original camp layout and has a significant number of historic buildings. The plans include rehabilitating and adaptively reusing the historic Internment Camp structures. The new Museum of Conscience will tell the story of Tule Lake Internment Camp. Multi-media exhibits, camp artifacts and original barracks and guard towers will provide visitors with insights into the physical structure and living conditions in the camp. Visitors will discover why the evacuation occurred, why Tule lake was converted into a high-security segregation camp, why a jail within a jail was built, and why so many of the inmates at Tule Lake renounced their US citizenship and applied to expatriate to Japan. Visitors will also learn how the inmates were riddled with fear, hardships, and political strife. To this day, many former Tule Lake prisoners have not told their family and friends about what occurred to them at Tule Lake.

Funding to build the new Museum of Conscience may come from the Japanese American National Heritage Coalition. The group is seeking $50 million to preserve the Internment Camp sites.

Gifts to the Tule Lake Preservation Fund and grants from the California Civil Liberties Public Education Program, National Trust for Historic Preservation, and California Office of Historic Preservation Federal Heritage Grant Fund were used to support development of plans for the new Tule Lake Museum of Conscience.
Japanese American National Heritage Coalition
Seeks Federal Funds for All Camp Preservation

A new Coalition was created to preserve the historic significance of Japanese American WWII Internment experience. The Coalition formed to create a national program to preserve the ten internment camp sites and related historically significant locations to which Americans of Japanese American ancestry were forcibly detained during WWII.

The stated goal of the Coalition is, "The internment camps serve as a permanent reminder that a fundamental principle of this nation's commitment to equal justice includes affording any group of persons fundamental liberties with the guarantee of due process and protection against prejudicial or unjust treatment. The legislative initiative proposed to preserve and fund projects at these sites and locations in ways to promote the theme equal justice under the law."


Gerald Yamada, attorney with O'Connor & Hannan LLP in Washington, DC coordinates the Coalition. For more information see: www.jaampac.org/pr_041204.pdf or call Gerald Yamada at (202) 887-1455.

National Historic Landmark Application Nears Completion

A partnership between The Tule Lake Committee and the National Parks Service is funding the development of a National Historic Landmark (NHL) application for Tule Lake. Jeff Burton at the Western Archaeological and Conservation Center of the National Parks Service, and author of Confinement and Ethnicity, and co-author Mary Farrell are nearing completion of the application. This Summer, Jeff completed extensive fieldwork at Tule Lake and documented over 500 historically significant internment camp remains in the Tule Lake area.

Once the NHL application is competed, it must be approved by the National Historic Landmark Board in DC.

If Tule Lake becomes a National Historic Landmark, it will be recognized as a national historical resource and becomes eligible for federal and private preservation funding. The Getty Trust and Save American's Treasures grants could be used to plan and begin to develop a new educational interpretive center at Tule Lake.
Second Kinenhi: Reflections on Tule Lake

Second Kinenhi is a book containing original photos of Tule Lake Internment Camp and recollections by former internees. Much of the text of Kinenhi is based on interviews of former internees of Tule Lake and other camps as well as discussions and speeches made at various programs and Tule Lake Pilgrimages over the years. A grant from the Civil Liberties Public Education Program covered some of the costs to prepare the book. Matching funding was provided by an anonymous donor who was a former internee at Tule Lake.

Contact The Tule Lake Committee to obtain your copy of Second Kinenhi.
A CALL TO ACTION

Please send your letter of support to assure that
Tule Lake Internment Camp becomes a National Historic Landmark

Dear Tule Lake Internment Camp Preservation Supporter:

Your help is needed to show community support for Tule Lake Internment Camp to become a National Historic Landmark. Landmark status will be a permanent reminder of the tragic events at Tule Lake and a major step towards building a permanent historic site. Landmark status will honor Tule Lake Internment Camp’s exceptional value and quality to interpret American’s heritage. Fewer than 2,500 sites bear this national distinction.

For the past five years, the Tule Lake Preservation Committee has worked closely with the National Parks Service, Caltrans, and the Bureau of Reclamations to protect and preserve the site. We have used the many donations to the Preservation Fund to hire Jeff Burton, author of Confinement and Ethnicity, to document the historic significance of Tule Lake.

Please send a letter of support stating why you believe Tule Lake Internment Camp should be recognized as a National Historic Landmark. We have enclosed a form letter and envelope that you may use to show your support. Please feel free to write a personalized letter AND make copies of the letter for your friends and family. And please don’t forget to sign the letter.

Please send your letter of support NOW. The Landmarks Commission will be making their decision on April 20, 2005. Contact me at (408) 269-9458; JimiYama@aol.com or Pat Shiono at (415) 648-4453; PShiono@pacbell.net if you have any questions.

Sincerely,

Jimi Yamaichi, President
for the Tule Lake Preservation Committee

For more information about National Historic Landmarks visit: http://www.cr.nps.gov/nhl/
Ms. Carol Shull, Chief  
National Historic Landmarks Survey  
National Park Service  
1849 C Street, N.W., (2280)  
Washington, D.C. 20240  
FAX (202) 371-2229

Re: Support to Designate Tule Lake Segregation Center as a National Historic Landmark.

Dear Ms. Schull:

I unconditionally support designating Tule Lake Segregation Center as a National Historic Landmark. Tule Lake Internment Camp is an important national historical site. Tule Lake was the largest of the WW II Japanese American Internment camps and served as a segregation center. One-quarter or 29,500 of the 120,000 men, women, and children of Japanese ancestry who were imprisoned during WW II spent time at Tule Lake Internment Camp. Today, Tule Lake retains a wealth of original historic structures and artifacts and has a compelling history that deserves to be preserved and told.

Tule Lake Segregation Center deserves to become a National Historic Landmark.

Sincerely,
Congressional Record — Senate

July 20, 1981

CONGRESSIONAL RECORD — SENATE

JULY 20, 1981

Page 8025

Aleut Islands (Unalaska), September 17, 1981.

Pribilof Islands (St. Paul), September 19, 1981.


HOW TO PARTICIPATE

The Commission is interested in hearing

from individuals who believe that the

Alaska Experience would be improved. The

Commission welcomes your views and sug-

gestions.

The Commission on Wartime Relocation

and Internment of Civilians, New Executive

Office Building, 726 Jackson Place, NW, Suite

2020, Washington, D.C. 20506, Telephone;

(202) 395-7920.

[From the Washington Post, July 15, 1981]

THE JAPANESE-AMERICANS

A Japanese-American named Fred Korematsu

was born in the state of Oregon in 1913. He

became a citizen of the United States after

entering the service of his country. On July 28,

1942, he was arrested by the military and

sentenced to one year in prison for refusing

to evacuate and enter a relocation camp.

A Japanese-American named Fred Korematsu, after being rejected by the Army be-

cause of an ulcer, volunteered after Pearl Harbor to serve his country as a welder in a war plant. Instead, his Japanese ancestry was used to justify his removal to a relocation camp.

Father Robert F. Drinan

Father Drinan is a member of the United States Senate from Massachusetts and United States Senator. He was a member of Congress from 1970 to 1981. He served as a member of the House of Representatives from 1963 to 1970. He is an ordained Jesuit priest.

Justice Arthur J. Goldberg

Justice Goldberg has been Secretary of Labor, Associate Justice in the United States Supreme Court, U.S. Representative to the United Nations, and Ambassador at-large for the United States. He is president of the American Jewish Committee.

Father I.V. Gromoff

Father Gromoff is an ordained Russian Orthodox priest from Unalaska in the Aleutian Islands. He has been active in the Aleutian/Pribilof Island Association and was relocated to Unalaska during World War II.

Judge William M. Marutani

Judge Marutani presently serves on the bench for the Court of Common Pleas of Philadelphia County, Pennsylvania.

Judge Marutani presently serves on the bench for the Court of Common Pleas of Philadelphia County, Pennsylvania.
Commission
Member Bios
"THE ENEMY ALIEN FILES:
Hidden Stories of World War II" presents for
the first time the little known wartime experiences
of Italian, German and Japanese immigrants in the
US and from Latin America. With photographs,
documents, and oral history excerpts, the exhibit
brings to light these stories and explores how
international events, political and military actions,
national security threat, and changes in public
attitudes led to similarities and differences in the
treatment, exclusion, internment and deportation
of several thousand "enemy aliens."

The display also shares how such individuals
responded to wartime traumas and the legacies
these experiences have left on our nation as a
whole. While the focus is on the experience of
particular communities during WWII, the exhibit's
related programming provides opportunities for
public dialogue about parallels to current national
and world events in the aftermath of the September
11th tragedies and the U.S. "war on terrorism."
The US government responses to the Pearl Harbor
and September 11th attacks provide important
points for comparison and contrast and bring
the lessons of history into the public's
immediate consciousness.

This exhibit offers audiences the opportunity to
explore how our nation, now and during WWII,
reconciles potentially competing national ideals—
the promotion of reliance on ethnic diversity, the
sanctity of the Bill of Rights and the necessity
of national security.

A unique comparative and multicultural
presentation, THE ENEMY ALIEN FILES makes
accessible to the public an important aspect of
World War II that has direct relevance to today's
domestic and world events.

"The Enemy Alien Files" Exhibit is a
collaboration among the National
Japanese American Historical Society
(NJAHSI), Japanese Peruvian Oral
History Project (JPOHP), American
Italian Historical Association—
Western Regional Chapter
(AIHA/WRC), and the German
American Education Fund (GAEF).
Funding to produce and tour this
exhibit was made possible in part
by grants from the California Arts
Council, the California Council
for the Humanities and the
California Civil Liberties Public
Education Program.

We are grateful to US Congressional
Representative Mike Honda of
California for his valuable support
of this exhibit.

Creative Direction, Design and Production: NDD Creative
During WWII, the US government operated an "enemy alien" program which affected nearly one million immigrants from the Italian, German and Japanese communities in the US and from Latin America. This program was separate from the internment of the 120,000 US citizens and resident immigrants of Japanese ancestry.

In the late 1930s, as turmoil in Europe and Asia escalated, the US government began to prepare for the possibility of US involvement in war. Preparations included surveillance of Japanese, German and Italian resident aliens, compiling lists of "potentially dangerous persons" and plans for internment and deportation. This was massive racial and ethnic profiling, not based on action or evidence but rather on who could potentially be dangerous.

Following the Japanese military attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7, 1941, nearly one million law-abiding immigrants were labeled "enemy aliens." No distinction was made between resident immigrants and aliens in the US on a temporary basis. The US government also went outside its borders and violated the rights of civilians in 15 Latin American countries. Over 60000 men, women and children of German, Italian and Japanese ancestry - both immigrant residents as well as citizens of those countries - were taken from their homes, forcibly deported and interned in US concentration camps for the purpose of prisoner exchange.

A total of over 31,000 enemy aliens of German, Italian, and Japanese ancestry in the US and from Latin America were apprehended, and thousands were interned for "national security." Detainees received a brief hearing during which they were not allowed counsel, were not told of charges against them, and could not confront witnesses. Internees were held indefinitely without charges or a trial. Over 48000 persons, including US citizens who were the minor children of permanent resident aliens, were forcibly deported to war zones of the Far East and Europe in civilian prisoner exchanges. Most internees were released from camp by the end of the war in 1946, but some were interned for seven years. Others remained at Ellis Island until 1949.

Later review of records of these "dangerous" enemy aliens show there was often no specific evidence of subversive activities. Rather they lost years of their lives on the basis of "potential" danger. The impact of these violations has been long lasting in their communities and has current day significance for our democratic institutions and freedoms.
I would like more information about "The Enemy Alien Files" Exhibit
(Materials may also be available for downloading from the NJAHS website at www.njahs.org)
- packet for prospective host venues
- general information packet
- specific information: ________________________________________________________________________

Yes, I would like to support the Exhibit with a gift.
Enclosed is my check of: $500  $250  $100  $50  Other $________
(Please make your check payable to "NJAHS" and notate "EAF exhibit".
Your gift is tax deductible to the extent allowed by law.)

Name

Title

Organization

Address

City/State/Zip

Day-time Phone   Evening Phone

Fax   Email
About Campaign for Justice

Campaign for Justice was founded in 1996 as a collaborative effort by individuals and organizations including the American Civil Liberties Union, the National Coalition for Redress & Reparations, and the Japanese Peruvian Oral History Project.

Campaign for Justice has two primary goals. First, it continues to help former Japanese Latin American internees secure proper redress. Second, it works to educate the public about the experiences of the Japanese Latin Americans.

What You Can Do To Help

♦ Make a donation to Campaign for Justice!

♦ Get your Action Packet to support Campaign activities!

♦ Write to your government representatives and urge them to support redress legislation for Japanese Latin American internees!

♦ Become a Volunteer!

♦ Endorse the Campaign and urge your community groups to do the same!

♦ Invite a Campaign representative to speak at your school, church, civic group, or community event!

For more information, or to make a donation payable to "Campaign for Justice", please contact:

Northern California
P.O. Box 1384
El Cerrito, CA 94530
(510) 528-7288
jpohp@prodigy.net

Historical information provided by the Japanese Peruvian Oral History Project.


Redress Now For Japanese Latin American Internees!
HISTORICAL BACKGROUND

From December 1941 to February 1948, the U.S. government orchestrated and financed the mass abduction and forcible deportation of 2,264 men, women, and children of Japanese ancestry from 13 Latin American countries to be used as hostages in exchange for Americans held by Japan. Over 800 Japanese Latin Americans were included in two prisoner of war exchanges between the U.S. and Japan. The remaining Japanese Latin Americans were imprisoned without due process of law in U.S. Department of Justice internment camps until after the end of the war.

Stripped of their passports en route to the U.S. and declared “illegal aliens”, most of the incarcerated Japanese Latin Americans were forced to leave the U.S. after their release from camp. However, since many were barred from returning to their home countries, more than 900 Japanese Latin Americans were deported to war devastated Japan. Over 350 Japanese Latin Americans remained in the U.S. and fought deportation in the courts. Eventually, about 100 were able to return to Latin America. It was not until 1952 that those who stayed were allowed to begin the process of becoming U.S. permanent residents. Many later became U.S. citizens.

Japanese Latin Americans were subjected to gross violations of civil and human rights by the U.S. government during WWII. These violations were not justified by a security threat to Allied interests. Rather, it was the outcome of historical racism, anti-Japanese prejudice, economic competition, and political opportunism. The U.S. government has yet to properly acknowledge this wrongdoing against the Japanese Latin Americans.

CIVIL LIBERTIES ACT OF 1988

Like Japanese Americans, Japanese Latin Americans have played an integral part in the struggle for acknowledgement and redress by the U.S. government for its unjust treatment of people of Japanese ancestry in the U.S. As a result, Congress enacted the Civil Liberties Act of 1988 to make the U.S. credible in the eyes of the world on human rights issues. To accomplish this, the Act provided for an official apology and token reparations of $20,000 to eligible individuals of Japanese ancestry. It also created a fund to educate the public about the internment to prevent the recurrence of similar events.

However, under this Act, individuals were eligible for reparations only if they were U.S. citizens or permanent resident aliens at the time of internment. Since the U.S. maintains the fabrication that Japanese Latin Americans were “illegal aliens”, they were excluded from the Act. Only 189 Japanese Latin Americans were given redress under the Act because they were either born in camp or granted retroactive permanent residency.

LAWSUIT

In 1996, a class action lawsuit, Mochizuki v. U.S.A., was filed against the U.S. government on behalf of all Japanese Latin American internees who were denied redress under the Act. A settlement agreement was reached in 1998 that provided for an official apology and the possibility of $5,000 in compensation payments to eligible Japanese Latin Americans. This settlement was controversial because it did not fully acknowledge the severity of their human rights violations. It did, however, allow for the pursuit of further redress by those who chose to opt-out of the settlement.

Under the Mochizuki settlement, the token reparations, which were only one quarter of what Japanese Americans received, was not guaranteed. Despite assurances that all Japanese Latin Americans would receive redress payments, only 145 were paid before the funds were depleted. It was only after community effort and pressure for additional funding that supplemental appropriations were given by Congress to allow the remaining Mochizuki claimants to be paid. In addition, less than two months notification was allowed for Japanese Latin Americans to apply and the government refused to release applicant information to internee attorneys to ensure proper processing.

THE STRUGGLE CONTINUES

The fight for justice continues today for Japanese Latin Americans in litigation and in legislation. Campaign for Justice is currently seeking comprehensive legislation that would serve to fulfill the education and compensation mandate of the Civil Liberties Act and to resolve the unfinished redress business.

We urge our communities to support these efforts to acknowledge and redress the fundamental injustices suffered by Japanese Latin American during WWII. We cannot allow this chapter of American history to close until our government makes proper amends for its actions.

Redress Now for Japanese Latin American Internees!
Shibayama Petition Filed with Organization of American States

In June 2003, Art, Kenichi and Takeshi Shibayama filed a petition in an international forum seeking acknowledgment and equitable redress from the U.S. government for “war crimes and crimes against humanity” perpetuated against them as children during WWII. Sixty years ago, the three brothers, all born in Peru, were taken as part of a U.S. government-orchestrated abduction of over 2,200 persons of Japanese ancestry who were citizens and residents of 13 Latin American countries. It brought men, women and children at gunpoint on U.S. military transports, confiscated their passports, and incarcerated them in U.S. camps for up to six years. The Shibayama brothers, along with co-petitioner, the Japanese Peruvian Oral History Project (JPOHP), were represented before the Organization of American States’ Inter-American Commission on Human Rights by attorney Karen Parker, lead counsel for the petitioners.

Ms. Parker explained that the Organization of American States’ (OAS) Inter-American Commission on Human Rights is like the regional United Nations for the Americas. The Shibayamas and JPOHP filed their petition with the OAS after they were unable to obtain justice in U.S. domestic courts. Ms. Parker said that because the U.S. has not ratified many international treaties, it is not accountable to any courts but its own domestic courts. She stressed that it is critical for voters to hold their elected officials accountable for the full implementation and application of international and human rights law standards to the petitions of U.S. claimants in international courts.

“Most people know the internment of U.S. citizens of Japanese ancestry for the sordid history that it is,” said Ms. Parker. “But in terms of . . . the applicable law at the time, it is considered a crime against humanity to do to Art what was done to him,” she said. Ms. Parker emphasized that the U.S. has “never acknowledged or apologized that they did it. Until there is a full acknowledgment and apology, the crime is ongoing. We are also . . . in a situation where the wartime Supreme Court decision which said that it was permissible to [intern Japanese Americans] has not been reversed.”

The Education Fund: A Legacy for All

The Campaign for Justice (CFJ) is proposing legislation (see below) that asks for the re-establishment of the Public Education Fund originally created by the Civil Liberties Act of 1988 (CLA). Fifty million dollars was to be earmarked for education under the CLA, but only $5 million was appropriated in the last year of the redress program. Thus, CFJ is seeking to fulfill the educational mandate of the CLA with the appropriation of the remaining $45 million. The potential for this fund is enormous. So much was accomplished with the $5 million from the CLA. These funds have spawned invaluable projects, curricula, events, artistic and cultural expressions as well as permanent physical installations. It is clear that the education funds are a critical part of our legacy.

The Public Education Fund is also a bridge from the past to the present, and a legacy for future generations. It is a way for us to create a legacy in honor of those internees who predeceased the passage of the CLA. It provides an opportunity to enhance the public’s understanding of these historical events and to encourage exploration of relevant current national and international issues. The public education fund will be an opportunity for anyone of any race, ethnicity or creed to propose an idea, to make a connection, or to bring insight to a personal or community experience that will shed light on not only the incarceration of people of Japanese ancestry, but on the ways in which our civil and human rights remain vulnerable to attack today.

The Wartime Parity & Justice Act of 2003 (H.R. 779)

► authorizes $45 million in public education funding to fulfill the educational mandate of the Civil Liberties Act of 1988 (CLA);
► provides redress to Japanese Latin Americans who suffered civil and human rights violations by the U.S. government during World War II;
► provides redress to Japanese Americans who have been unjustly denied for technical reasons or narrow interpretations of the CLA.
Assembly on the Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians

“Justice Delayed Is Justice Denied”

The Campaign for Justice: Redress Now for Japanese Latin Americans is planning a landmark community and media event for April 2005. “The Assembly on the Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians” (AWRIC) will be the first public forum in which Japanese Latin American and certain Japanese American former internees will give personal testimony of their World War II internment experiences. AWRC will bring a human face to the redress effort for Japanese Latin Americans and the Japanese American internees who did not receive symbolic compensation and an apology under the Civil Liberties Act of 1988.

The testimonies will include:

♦ Japanese Latin Americans former internees
♦ Japanese American former internees
♦ Present and past redress leaders from legal, academic & legislative arenas
♦ German Americans and German Latin Americans
♦ Italian Americans and Italian Latin Americans
♦ Arab, Muslim, South Asian and Middle Eastern community members
♦ Other communities working for civil and human rights
♦ Written testimonies from all concerned members of the general public; some of these written testimonies will be included at the public testimonial event and will be a part of the official record of the Assembly

The event will:

♦ Document these historical testimonies
♦ Create a record of the untold stories for educational and archival purposes
♦ Build on previous Japanese American redress achievements
♦ Provide educational and historical understanding for members of Congress
♦ Support passage of the Wartime Parity and Justice Act
♦ Span two days in the San Francisco Bay Area and possibly other cities

The Campaign for Justice was founded in 1996 by the American Civil Liberties Union of Southern California, the Japanese Peruvian Oral History Project and the National Coalition for Redress/Reparations. Its goals include education on human and civil rights issues and securing redress for Japanese Latin Americans.

Campaign For Justice: Redress Now For Japanese Latin Americans
P.O. Box 1384 • El Cerrito, CA 94530 • (510) 528-7288
ipohp@prodigy.net • www.campaignforjusticejla.org
Summary of H.R. 779
The Wartime Parity and Justice Act of 2003

Sponsor:
Congressman Xavier Becerra (D-CA)

Overview: The Wartime Parity and Justice Act of 2003, will provide equitable redress to Japanese Latin Americans (JLA) forcibly removed, at the urging or our government, from various Latin American countries and interned in the United States during World War II. In addition, the legislation will seek to provide redress to Japanese Americans who suffered grievances resulting from government actions during the evacuation, relocation, and internment period, who did not garner rectification from the Civil Liberties Act of 1988 on various technical grounds. Finally, the bill will authorize $45 million to create an education fund to ensure that this chapter in our nation’s history is appropriately remembered.

Summary of Provisions:
1. Provides redress in the amount of $20,000 to JLA forcibly removed from certain Latin American countries and interned in the United States during WWII.
2. Provides an official U.S. apology to JLA that admits culpability, the facts surrounding the removal of these individuals from their residences, and their internment in the United States.
3. Provides expanded notification to individuals eligible for redress and extends the right of claimants who are denied to appeal the decision.
4. Expunges the designation of “illegal alien” from the record of JLA individuals while they were interned in the United States. Does not confer citizenship or residency status.
5. Directs the U.S. government to disclose all information relevant to the forcible removal of individuals who were displaced from their homes and brought to the U.S. This includes disclosure of the fate of individual for whom there is still no account. In addition, the U.S. government would be directed to work with other nations involved to facilitate the sharing of information.
6. Directs all involved agencies to release the names, addresses, telephone numbers, and all other relevant information for all persons who have claimed or will claim redress to the attorneys representing the claimant.
7. Allows an addition 6 years for Japanese Americans interned or relocated who failed to meet the application deadline of the original Civil Liberties Act to apply for redress.
10. Makes eligible for redress at $20,000 Japanese American workers, and their dependent children, employed by private railroad and mining companies and were terminated because of government action.
11. Makes eligible for redress at $20,000 persons of Japanese ancestry detained in the United States who would have been eligible for citizenship or permanent resident status had discriminatory immigration laws not been in effect.
12. Provides that other claimants may be made eligible for redress depending on the outcome of cases in litigation.
13. Reauthorize $45 million to create an education fund to fulfill the mandate of the Civil Liberties Act of 1988. This amount would be invested in government obligations and earn interest at an annual rate of at least %5 to ensure that the education program continues in perpetuity.
14. Authorizes appropriations in the amount necessary to meet the obligations under this Act.
Date:  

My Representative in the U.S. Congress:

Honorable ____________________  
U.S. House of Representatives  
Washington, D.C. 20515  

Dear Honorable ____________________:

I am writing to ask that you, as my representative in Congress, be a co-sponsor and actively seek the passage of the Wartime Parity and Justice Act of 2003 (H.R. 779, introduced this session by Rep. Xavier Becerra (CA-30) that will 1) provide full funding for the public education mandate of the Civil Liberties Act of 1988; 2) provide redress for those Japanese Americans who suffered deprivation of liberty due to the U.S. internment, but were denied redress under the Civil Liberties Act of 1988; and 3) ensure redress equity for the former Japanese Latin American internees.

Public Education Funding: Public education is an essential component of redress. It is only with continuing education that the recurrence of such civil and human rights violations can be prevented. The Civil Liberties Act was passed with the expectation that $50 million would go to public education about this tragic episode in U.S. history. However, the government failed to invest the redress funds as required by the Civil Liberties Act, and an estimated $200 million was lost in interest. As a result, only $5 million was spent for public education and research grants, which lasted only one year. Without an ongoing fund, the educational curricula will soon become technologically obsolete, and the truth will be forgotten. The U.S. must fulfill its original commitment to the $50 million, so that future generations will know the complete history of this shameful era and not allow such fundamental injustice to be repeated to any others.

Redress Equity for Japanese Americans: The World War II story of the U.S. government’s massive violation of civil liberties of more than 120,000 Americans of Japanese ancestry is well known. While the majority of affected Japanese Americans have received redress, hundreds of Japanese Americans who were deprived of liberty have wrongly been denied justice and have not received redress. Denied individuals include: U.S. residents denied redress due to legal technicalities and narrow interpretations of the law; dependent children of railroad and mine workers who were fired from their jobs and made destitute by U.S. government actions; and those U.S. citizens of Japanese ancestry who were born within the barbed wire fences of the U.S. internment camps after June 30, 1946. (The Civil Liberties Act’s time limitation was based on erroneous internment camp closing dates.)

Redress Equity for Japanese Latin Americans: During World War II, the U.S. government forcibly uprooted over 2,200 Latin American citizens and residents of Japanese ancestry from their homes in Peru and 12 other countries in Latin America, and incarcerated them in prison camps in the U.S. More than 800 Japanese Latin Americans served the government’s purpose for the scheme: they were exchanged for U.S. civilian prisoners held by Japan. When the war finally ended, most of the JLAs were not allowed to return to their native countries, but were deported to war devastated Japan, where they endured starvation conditions, tremendous hardship, and trauma.

A class action lawsuit filed in federal court in 1996 resulted in a settlement in which the U.S. government acknowledged its wrongdoing in a letter of apology, but provided only $5,000 in redress payments. Part of that settlement agreement explicitly allowed for further action by Congress to fund JLA redress, in light of the fact that Japanese Americans were awarded $20,000 under the Civil Liberties Act. JLAs deserve to have their records corrected to remove the false label of "illegal entry" stamped in their U.S. immigration records by the very same government which had kidnapped them, and to receive redress at least equal to that received by other persons of Japanese ancestry who were wrongfully imprisoned by the U.S. government.

Please let me know that you will act to support the righting of this terrible wrong.

Sincerely,

Additional Comments:

Signature: ___________________________  
Print Name: ___________________________  
Address: ___________________________
What is the JPOHP?

The Japanese Peruvian Oral History Project (JPOHP) was formed in 1991 by former Japanese Peruvian internees and their families to preserve the remembrances of those who were forcibly taken from Peru and interned in concentration camps in Panama and the United States during World War II. By documenting these family oral histories, we strive to deepen our understanding of the rich texture of our past—with the hope that such violations of civil and human rights are not repeated by any government during times of peace or war.

The Project goals are:

• to collect and conduct oral histories,

• to educate ourselves and others about the Japanese Peruvian experience during World War II,

• to promote dialogue and interaction among Japanese Peruvians and the broader society in the US, Peru and Japan, and

• to provide information and referral for former Japanese Latin American internees and their families seeking redress.

Please join us in preserving this part of our history.

If you would like to share any comments or suggestions or would like to know more about our Project, please contact us at the address below.

We would welcome financial contributions (which are tax deductible) very much! Please make your check payable to JPOHP/NJAHS and send it to:

Japanese Peruvian Oral History Project (JPOHP)
P.O. Box 1384
El Cerrito, CA 94530
Phone/FAX: (510) 528-7288
E-mail: jpohp@prodigy.net
JAPANESE PERUVIAN ORAL HISTORY PROJECT

Bibliography

Best researched resource available. Since Gardiner is trilingual, he was able to do research in archives in US and Peru. His work is the basis for all other books on JPs.

Good resource in the history of the exchange program, with a chapter on the JLA experience.

One of the most significant resources on JA internment. First JA publication to expose JLA wartime experience.


Moving and insightful autobiography of former JP internee. This second edition of the English version includes a foreward by C. Harvey Gardiner, a new preface by Elsa H. Kudo and epilogue by Julie Small. Japanese version is in 2nd edition (published in 1995) and is more detailed, with expanded section on redress.

Crystal City Internment Camp - 50th Anniversary Album, Monterey, California, 7/94.
Best compilation of resources concerning Crystal City Internment Camp, including JP family stories.

Very good collection of remembrances of JA and JP, who were children or youth at the time of internment. Highlights little known stories of JP, draft resisters, repatriates.

Examination of the wartime and redress experience of JLAs from the perspective of international law.

For more information, contact: Japanese Peruvian Oral History Project (JPOHP)
P.O. Box 1384
El Cerrito, CA 94530
Phone/FAX: (510) 528-7288
Email: jpohp@prodigy.net
Personal Justice Denied

REPORT OF THE
COMMISSION ON WARTIME RELOCATION
AND INTERNMENT OF CIVILIANS

WASHINGTON, D.C.
DECEMBER 1982
Latin Americans

During World War II the United States expanded its internment program and national security investigations to Latin America on the basis of "military necessity." On the government's invitation, approximately 3,000 residents of Latin America were deported to the United States for internment to secure the Western Hemisphere from internal threats and to supply exchanges for American citizens held by the Axis. Most of these deportees were citizens, or their families, of Japan, Germany and Italy. Although this program was not conducted pursuant to Executive Order 9066, an examination of the extraordinary program of internment aliens from Latin America in the United States completes the account of federal actions to detain and intern civilians of enemy or foreign nationality, particularly those of Japanese ancestry.

What began as a controlled, closely monitored deportation program to detain potentially dangerous diplomatic and consular officials of Axis nations and Axis businessmen grew to include enemy aliens who were teachers, small businessmen, tailors and barbers—mostly people of Japanese ancestry. Over two-thirds, or 2,300, of the Latin American internees deported to the United States were Japanese nationals and their families; over eighty percent came from Peru. About half the Japanese internees were family members, including Nisei, who asked to join their husbands and fathers in camps pending deportation to Japan; family members were classified as "voluntary internees."

Underlying these deportations was fear of Japanese attack in Latin America, particularly at the Panama Canal, which produced suspicion of Latin American Japanese. But a curious wartime triangle trade in Japanese aliens for internment developed, too. Some Latin American countries, particularly Peru, deported Japanese out of cultural prejudice and antagonism based on economic competition; the United States, in turn, sought Latin American Japanese internees to exchange with Japan for American citizens trapped in territories Japan controlled. The same dynamic often affected Germans and Italians.
Deportees from Peru for internment in the United States dominated the Latin American deportation program and thus this discussion centers on them. The history of the Japanese in Peru offers suggestive parallels to West Coast history.

In the late 19th and early 20th centuries, expanding agriculture in Latin America attracted surplus skilled farm labor from Japan; by 1923 almost 20,000 Japanese had settled in Peru alone. During the 1930's, economic depression in Japan and restricted immigration to the United States drew more Japanese to Latin America, where 23,000 entered Brazil in a single year. Worsening economic conditions in Latin America, however, brought discriminatory legislation and business practices aimed at these immigrants.

Japanese in Peru inherited years of prejudice earlier directed against Chinese immigrants. Many Japanese in Latin America had migrated to urban areas where they built close-knit communities, opened small businesses and gained economic independence. The Peruvian Japanese formed ethnic business associations and social organizations, and, although some Japanese married Peruvians and the typical family joined the Roman Catholic church, many kept a love of Japan, nursed feelings of cultural superiority and sent their children to Japan for formal education. In Peru, most Japanese immigrants steadfastly refused Peruvian citizenship. This history fueled Peruvian resentment against them; economic competition, including fears of Japanese farmers and merchants monopolizing fertile land and some service industries, aggravated prejudice. Peru severely restricted Japanese immigration in 1936 and followed up by restricting the right to citizenship of some Peruvian Japanese, including Kibei. In 1940, when about 26,000 Japanese lived in Peru, including 9,000 Nisei, riots broke out. Japanese businesses were destroyed and homes ransacked, and restrictive laws muzzled the Japanese press.

By 1940, the United States had become directly involved with security in Latin America. After the European war erupted in 1939, the government posted FBI agents in United States embassies in Latin America to compile information on Axis nationals and sympathizers. Following Pearl Harbor, the United States immediately moved to secure the Western Hemisphere against dangerous enemy aliens. For the first time, Japanese-owned businesses in Latin America appeared on the United States' Proclaimed List of Blocked Nationals and were thus blacklisted through economic warfare. After a meeting of Western Hemisphere nations early in 1942, the Emergency Advisory Committee for Political Defense was created, composed of representatives from
the United States, Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Mexico, Uruguay and Venezuela. The Committee forwarded to Latin American countries recommendations to control subversive activities and to secure the hemisphere, emphasizing internment of Axis nationals. Several Latin American countries, severing ties with the Axis, imposed restrictions against Axis nationals.

Acting on Emergency Advisory Committee recommendations or in response to United States security efforts, sixteen Latin American countries interned at least 8,500 Axis nationals during World War II. Economic and political pressure from the Proclaimed Lists and the Emergency Advisory Committee, coupled with Latin American nations' inability to establish costly security programs, encouraged the United States to accept Latin American enemy aliens for internment. Twelve Latin American countries—Bolivia, Colombia, Costa Rica, the Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Haiti, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama and Peru—deported some or all of their enemy alien internees to the United States. (Brazil and Venezuela did not.) Once in the United States, the State Department had custody and held internees in camps operated by the Justice Department's Immigration and Naturalization Service (INS).

The model of the Latin American deportation and internment program was developed in Panama. Before the war, the United States had agreed orally and informally with Panamanian officials to intern Japanese nationals during wartime. After the Pearl Harbor attack, Panama declared war on the Axis and froze Japanese assets. Japanese aliens were arrested by Panamanian and American agents for security reasons because they were near the Canal Zone. The War Department instructed the Commanding General of the Caribbean Defense Command to construct an internment camp in Panama for enemy aliens. Panama later agreed to transfer internees to the United States to be traded for Western Hemisphere nationals held in Japan.

In Peru, the State Department aimed to eliminate potential military threats and to integrate Peru's economy and government into the war effort. After war broke out, Peru notified the War Department that the United States could place military installations there; a small military force eventually encamped near the oil fields of northern Peru, and the United States promised $29 million in armaments through Lend-Lease agreements, the largest pledge to a Latin American state. Peru moved quickly against its Japanese residents, whose newspapers, organizations and schools were closed after December 7. Japanese assets were frozen, and the Proclaimed Lists brought hardship to Jap-
Japanese businesses; some Peruvian Japanese were asked to leave. Before any deportations occurred, almost 500 Japanese registered repatriation requests at the Spanish Embassy, which represented Japan's interests in Peru. This group was among the first to be deported. The initial targets of the American-Peruvian deportation program were enemy alien diplomatic and consular officials and some business representatives of Japan. Peru wished to deport all Japanese and other Axis nationals as well, but the United States recognized its limited need of Latin American Japanese for exchange with Japan; the problems of limited shipping facilities; and the administrative burden of a full-scale enemy alien deportation program. The United States limited the program to deporting officials and "dangerous" enemy aliens.

John K. Emmerson, Third Secretary of the American Embassy in Peru, who had been a language student in Japan and could speak and read Japanese fluently, was assigned to help the Peruvians identify "dangerous" aliens and compile deportation lists. But deportations were in fact planned with little coordination between the United States and Peru, and Peru chose some deportees over others for no apparent reason, although bribery may have been involved. Moreover, the inaccurate portrayal by Peruvian officials of Peruvian Japanese as deceptive and dangerous encouraged the United States to deport and intern not only Japanese nationals, but some Peruvian citizens of Japanese descent.

During early 1942, approximately 1,000 Japanese, 300 Germans and 30 Italians were deported from Peru to the United States, along with about 850 German, Japanese and Italian aliens picked up in Ecuador, Colombia, and Bolivia and an additional 184 men from Panama and Costa Rica. Normal legal proceedings were ignored and none of the Peruvians were issued warrants, granted hearings, or indicted after arrest. On entering the United States, officials of Axis nations were placed in State Department custody and private citizens were sent to INS internment camps in Texas. In most cases passports had been confiscated before landing, and the State Department ordered American consuls in Peru and elsewhere to issue no visas prior to departure. Despite their involuntary arrival, deportees were treated by INS as having illegally entered this country. Thus the deportees became illegal aliens in U.S. custody who were subject to deportation proceedings, i.e., repatriation.

Most of the first group of deportees from Peru were men, primarily diplomatic and consular officials, representatives of Japanese business interests, and private citizens targeted as community leaders and thus
“believed to be dangerous.” Categorical classifications of some as “believed to be dangerous” enabled the deportation of many private citizens because the United States was unwilling to investigate the need to deport each individual. As John Emmerson later stated: “Lacking incriminating evidence, we established the criteria of leadership and influence in the community to determine those Japanese to be expelled.”

By June 1942, many Latin American countries had severed diplomatic relations with the Axis nations. Lend-Lease and trade consignments between the United States and Latin America had strengthened hemispheric unity. But the United States was not confident that Latin America could control subversive activity and thus increased its interest in the deportation and internment program. By this time traffic in the exchange of Japanese and other Axis nationals for American citizens was growing. By early 1942, aided by Swiss and Spanish intermediaries, the United States and Japan had begun negotiating for the exchange of nationals, both officials and private citizens. By July, the United States had deported approximately 1,100 Latin American Japanese and 500 Germans to their home countries. Enemy alien citizens who threatened nothing were uprooted from their homes to be used in the exchange. By August 1942, the State Department estimated that, in addition to the Americans caught as Japan advanced across the southwest Pacific, at least 3,300 Americans were trapped in China and available for exchange with Japan. These considerable numbers increased American interest in receiving Japanese deportees from Latin America. But slow communications, problems in obtaining assurances that repatriates could pass safely through the war zone, shipping shortages, and Justice Department refusal to repatriate an individual against his will, delayed further repatriations for over a year. As a result, “dangerous” enemy aliens were deported to the U.S. at a comfortable pace for both Latin America and the United States, including INS administrators seeking to prevent overcrowding in the camps.

In January 1943, after 200 more Japanese aliens had been deported from Peru, the Justice Department refused a State Department request for the deportation of another 1,000 Latin American Japanese. Unsatisfied with the screening procedures of the American embassy in Peru as well as Peruvian practices in identifying dangerous individuals, the Justice Department sent Raymond Ickes of its Alien Enemy Control Unit to Peru to oversee the selection. Ickes, partially successful in overcoming low-level Peruvian officials’ obstructionism and indiffer-
ence, entertained a novel idea shared by other American officials to Peru and President Prado—to establish internment camps in Peru financed by the United States. The Administration had already requested appropriations to establish an internment camp in Cuba. Moreover, the State Department was reluctant to encourage Peru to breach international law by sending all its Peruvian Japanese from a nonbelligerent state directly to a belligerent one. But the American embassy in Peru vetoed the Peruvian camp idea, distrust ing Peruvian officials' ability to intern dangerous individuals—a view supported by Peru's record in the deportation. As Emmerson had reported earlier, "since local police and other officials are susceptible to Japanese bribes, their alertness cannot be depended upon." Indeed, Arthur Shimei Yakabi, a bakery worker deported from Peru, testified: "I was asleep in February 1943 when some Peruvian police came and arrested my employer. My employer pulled a fast one by bribing the police, and offered me as a substitute." In addition, the embassy's view of the danger posed by Peruvian Japanese was changing by the end of summer 1943; Emmerson, now Second Secretary, was confident that the Japanese community no longer constituted a threat to security. The Latin American deportation program continued nevertheless.

In May 1943, the Emergency Advisory Committee adopted a resolution that American republics intern and expel dangerous Axis nationals. Near the end of 1943, the Committee reviewed the Latin American security situation and concluded that direct United States involvement in securing the hemisphere was crucial. Except for Brazil, no Latin American country had initiated security measures compatible with United States standards. The Committee wanted agreements for deportation programs from Chile, Uruguay, Paraguay, Venezuela and Colombia.

The repatriation and exchange program proceeded slowly. In September 1943, over 1,300 Japanese left New York for Japan, over half from Peru, Panama, Costa Rica, Mexico, Nicaragua, Ecuador, Cuba, El Salvador and Guatemala; almost 40 percent of the entire contingent was from Peru.

In the spring of 1944, the State Department realized that no more Axis nationals would be repatriated until the war was over. Nevertheless, from January to October 1944, over 700 Japanese men, women, children and 70 German aliens were deported from Peru to the United States, along with over 130 enemy aliens from Bolivia, Costa Rica and Ecuador. Peru pushed for additional Japanese deportations, but the United States could not commit the shipping and did not want to
During the war, approximately 1,400 Latin American Japanese, mostly from Peru, were interned in the United States, awaiting a decision on their destiny. Some wished to return to Latin America, others to Japan. To most it was a choice of the lesser of two evils: they had lost everything in Latin America, but Japan, which they had left to pursue greater economic opportunity, was devastated by the war. A number wanted to remain in the United States and begin anew.

As the end of the war approached in Summer 1945, the United States and other Western Hemisphere nations began to consider the postwar fate of interned Axis nationals. President Truman issued Proclamation 2655 authorizing the United States to deport enemy aliens deemed "to be dangerous to the public peace and safety of the United States." The Latin American Conference on Problems of War and Peace passed a resolution recommending that persons deported for security reasons should be prevented from "further residing in the hemisphere, if such residence would be prejudicial to the future security or welfare of the Americas."

The State and Justice Departments disagreed about security measures to take against interned enemy aliens. The Justice Department wanted to remove internees from its jurisdiction and divorce itself from the deportation and internment program; the State Department wanted to conclude the program by removing all dangerous Axis influences from the hemisphere. As part of its long-term security strategy, in September 1945 the State Department secured a proclamation from President Truman directing the Secretary of State to remove any enemy aliens in the United States from the Western Hemisphere, in-
cluding those from Latin America, who were illegal aliens and dan-
gerous to hemispheric security.

In December 1945, approximately 800 Peruvian Japanese were volun-
tarily deported to Japan, but in general the internment ended
very slowly and tortuously. The United States sought to return inter-
eeves who were not classified as dangerous and who refused deportation
to Axis countries, to their points of origin in Latin America. But the
common hemispheric interests that bred the deportation had dissolved,
and the government now had to negotiate about returning internees
to Latin America using weak, hastily-written wartime agreements, for
the United States had not exacted initial guarantees defining the de-
porrees’ postwar fate. For the most part, the Central American and
Caribbean countries that had deported enemy aliens to the United
States had placed few restrictions on their disposition. Mexico, Co-
lombia and Ecuador had required specific guarantees before releasing
enemy aliens to the United States. Peru, Ecuador and El Salvador
wanted jurisdiction over internees in order to obtain the return of some
German deportees, for many Germans in Latin America, unlike the
Japanese, had acquired economic and political influence as well as
greater social acceptance. Peru had sought no firm agreement from
the United States concerning final destination and wanted to restrict
the return of Japanese (but not German) internees. The United States
wanted a consistent policy for the Latin American internees and gave
Peru the choice of accepting all non-dangerous internees or leaving
deportation control to the United States. So negotiations dragged on
for the return to Peru of Peruvian Japanese.

Meanwhile, the internees used litigation to block deportation to
Axis states. Some German internees filed habeas corpus petitions chal-
 lenging their detention by the United States, claiming that they were
not alien enemies as defined by the Alien Enemy Act of 1796, because
they were not natives or citizens of an enemy country. In January 1946,
this effort failed when a federal district court ruled that the Latin
American internees were “alien enemies” who could legally be de-
tained. After this decision, 513 Japanese (over ninety percent from
Peru), 897 Germans and 37 Italians from Latin America in United
States internment camps were granted hearings pending deportation
to Axis countries. The hearings were a formality leading inevitably
to deportation to Axis countries, although most of the remaining Latin
American Japanese wished to return to Peru. Voluntary repatriation
continued into 1946, with at least 130 Peruvian Japanese returning to
Japan by June.
The final destiny of the Latin American Japanese was placed in the hands of the Justice Department after the State Department concluded that insufficient evidence existed to call the remaining Japanese internees dangerous to the Western Hemisphere. The State Department, although willing to proceed with deportations to Japan, hoped the Justice Department would stop deportation proceedings against Peruvian Japanese with families in Peru. The process moved very slowly for those who wanted to remain in the United States or return to Peru. Two Peruvian Japanese, Eigo and Elsa Kudo, remembered their anxious waiting period:

There were several hearings to persuade these poor internees to leave for Japan. We were one of those who asked, "Why are we illegal aliens when we were brought under armed MPs and processed by the immigration officers upon arrival in New Orleans?" . . . Again and again they repeated, "You are illegal aliens because you have no passports nor visa."

In August 1946, Wayne Collins, an attorney who had often helped Issei and Nisei over the years, arranged for some Peruvian Japanese to be transferred from INS internment camps to a fresh produce processing plant in Seabrook, New Jersey, where Japanese Americans had worked during the exclusion from the West Coast. The internees welcomed Seabrook as an opportunity to escape camp life, restore traditional family life, and earn relatively decent wages while awaiting word of their ultimate fate; at the same time, it must be recognized that conditions at Seabrook were far less attractive than those of ordinary liberated life. Other internees were paroled from the INS camps under sponsorship of American citizens.

To some extent, returning internees to Peru was further complicated during 1946 by a nationalistic pro-Japan underground movement, the Aikoku Doshi-Kai, which sprang up in Peru and South America. Both Peruvian and American officials overestimated the movement's influence, but the United States accepted Peru's reluctance to bring Japanese deportees back into a country inflamed by anti-Japanese sentiment. Peru announced that it would allow only Peruvian citizens of Japanese descent and Japanese related to Peruvian citizens to return, and from May to October 1946, only about 100 Japanese internees went back to Peru. At the same time, almost 600 German nationals were returned to Latin America in the year 1945-46.

At the beginning of 1947, 300 Peruvian Japanese remained in the United States, the majority at Seabrook. Those with family ties in Peru entertained hopes of returning home. Talks between the United States
and Peru were stalemated during 1947; negotiations were renewed with the Peruvian government which had come to power in a coup in the winter of 1948–49, but it refused to accept any non-citizens.

In the spring of 1949, exasperated State Department officials concluded that the only solution to the Peruvian Japanese internee problem was to give internees the status of "permanent legally admitted immigrants" who could remain in the United States. 47 Finally, in July 1952, the remaining Japanese Peruvian internees, having resided in the United States for seven years or more, petitioned the Board of Immigration Appeals to reopen hearings to suspend deportation orders, and Congress approved the deportation suspensions in 1953. The wartime deportation and internment program was finally at an end. But, for some, the emotional trauma of the program was endless. Peruvian deportee Ginzo Murono stated: "Some of the people from Peru who were interned with me were separated from their families for many years. In a few cases, the broken families were never reunited." 48

Historical documents concerning the ethnic Japanese in Latin America are, of course, housed in distant archives, and the Commission has not researched that body of material. Although the need for this extensive, disruptive program has not been definitively reviewed by the Commission, John Emmerson, a well-informed American diplomat in Peru during the program, wrote more than thirty years later: "During my period of service in the embassy, we found no reliable evidence of planned or contemplated acts of sabotage, subversion, or espionage." 49 Whatever justification is offered for this treatment of enemy aliens, many Latin American Japanese never saw their homes again after remaining for many years in a kind of legal no-man's-land. Their history is one of the strange, unhappy, largely forgotten stories of World War II.
STATEMENT BY THE PRESIDENT
ON ADDRESSING THE WRONGFUL INTERNMENT OF
LATIN AMERICANS OF JAPANESE DESCENT

I am pleased that the Department of Justice has reached a settlement that will compensate Latin Americans of Japanese ancestry for their wrongful internment during World War II. The United States Government forcibly brought these individuals to the United States from their homes in Latin America during the war, and interned them with U.S. citizens and permanent residents of Japanese ancestry.

Through the Civil Liberties Act of 1988, our nation offered redress to U.S. citizens and permanent residents who suffered serious injustice. This settlement addresses the injustice endured by Japanese Latin Americans who were interned.

Payments for this settlement will come from the fund established by the Civil Liberties Act. If the fund proves insufficient, I will work with the Congress to enact legislation appropriating the necessary resources to ensure that all eligible claimants can obtain the compensation provided by this settlement.

# # #
Fact Sheet: The Wartime Violation of Italian American Civil Liberties

- On December 7, 1941, hours after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbor, FBI agents begin to take into custody hundreds of Italian resident aliens previously classified as "dangerous." Without counsel or trial, some 260 of them are eventually shipped to internment camps like the ones in Missoula, Montana, or Fort George Meade, MD, where most are interned until after Italy surrenders in 1943. An unknown number are kept longer, and only released or repatriated at war's end. Their crime: suspicion that their origin in Italy might make them dangerous in time of war.

- On December 8, 1941, President Roosevelt signs Proclamation 2527, declaring that "an invasion or predatory incursion is threatened upon the territory of the United States by Italy." This turns 600,000 permanent resident aliens of Italian descent into "enemy aliens." Rules announced by the Justice Department forbid them to travel outside their towns without permission, and order them to surrender "contraband"—shortwave radios, cameras, flashlights, and hunting rifles. Those suspected of harboring these items have their homes raided and searched.

- Under pressure from the War Department to increase raids on enemy aliens to seize contraband, the Justice Department capitulates in January 1941 by agreeing that the requirement for "probable cause" necessary for a search warrant can be met merely by the fact that an alien resides in a premises, even if it is owned by a citizen. The Fourth Amendment rights of both aliens and the citizen children with whom many lived are thereby routinely violated.

- In February 1942, all "enemy" aliens are required to re-register (all had registered as resident aliens in 1940 under the Smith Act) at post offices nationwide. All are then required to carry photo-bearing ID booklets at all times, forbidden to travel beyond a 5-mile radius of home, or enter military bases where many have sons in service.

- In California, the Western Defense Command establishes a vast prohibited zone along the coast and around "sensitive" installations such as power plants and railroads. A late January 1942 announcement by the Justice Department orders all enemy aliens to evacuate this zone, some by February 15, and the rest by February 24, 1942. Some 10,000 Italian immigrants, mostly elderly women, are forced to leave their homes in towns like Pittsburg and Monterey and search for new places to live. These forced moves, solely on the basis of national origin, proceed before and aside from Executive Order 9066.

- At about the same time in California, 52,000 Italian enemy aliens are subjected to a curfew that confines them to their homes from 8:00 PM to 6:00 AM. Many lose their jobs as a result.
At least four Italian immigrants in California, despondent over their shameful status as "enemies" of their adopted country, commit suicide.

Following the mass relocation of Japanese aliens and native-born citizens in Spring of 1942, the Western Defense Command continues with its plans to clear the Pacific Slope of the other two enemy alien groups and remove them to a zone of the interior. Gen. Hugh Drum, commander of the Eastern Defense Command, announces similar plans on April 27, raising fears in the Justice Department and in Congress that such plans would affect millions on both coasts and seriously compromise the war effort. President Roosevelt in May 1942 finally orders the War Department to abandon such plans unless he specifically orders otherwise.

Several thousand Italian resident aliens are arrested during subsequent months, many for curfew violations or for harboring "contraband." Most are detained for months at INS facilities such as those at Ellis Island in New York or Sharp Park near San Francisco. Internments of Italian resident aliens continue throughout 1942 and beyond.

In Monterey, San Francisco, Boston and other seaports, Italian immigrant fishermen are grounded, among them the father of Joe DiMaggio. Hundreds of fishermen who are naturalized citizens have their boats requisitioned by the Navy for use as minesweepers or patrol boats during the war. When the boats are returned, many are unusable.

Scores of naturalized citizens of Italian descent, including San Francisco Mayor Angelo Rossi, are investigated by the Tenney Committee (Assembly Fact-Finding Committee on UnAmerican Activities) as suspected leaders of a fascist movement in California. About two dozen such citizens are excluded from California in October, 1942 and remain in exile until Italy surrenders.

On October 12, 1942, Attorney General Francis Biddle announces at Carnegie Hall that Italian Americans are removed from "enemy alien" status. Except for those interned or excluded, all restrictions are off. Not a single case of sabotage or espionage has been reported. Records reveal that Italian Americans, the largest foreign-born group in the nation (1.6 million in 1940), also comprised the largest ethnic group in the U.S. Armed Forces during World War II (500,000).

History texts and newspaper articles routinely deny that Italian Americans were affected. For one example, see The NY Times, Aug. 14, 1995, p. A6, "A Migration Created by a Burden of Suspicion," by Dirk Johnson:

The nation was at war with Germany and Italy, of course, but there were no moves to lock up any European Americans.

prepared by Lawrence DiStasi
May 16, 2006

Congressman Robert Wexler (D-FL) issued the following statement in support of the Wartime Treatment Study Act of 2005 (H.R. 3198):

"In 1980, Congress requested a thorough investigation to understand and acknowledge the treatment of Japanese Americans during World War II. Because of our commitment to learn from our past, our nation is now better able to protect all Americans. While many Americans are aware of the internment of more than 110,000 Japanese Americans during World War II, much less is known about the U.S. government’s detention of more than 600,000 Italian-born and 300,000 German-born United States resident aliens and their families as ‘enemy aliens.’ Pursuant to a policy coordinated with Latin American countries; the U.S. government also unfairly displaced many Latin Americans of European descent. In some cases, German and Austrian Jews were deported to hostile Axis nations. Meanwhile, at our borders, Jewish refugees who were fleeing for their lives were denied entry into the United States.

“It is critical that Congress move forward with this important legislation, which would establish two commissions: one to study and report on the treatment of European Americans and European Latin Americans by our government during World War II, and one to study and report on our treatment of Jewish refugees fleeing Nazi persecution during World War II. It is incumbent that Congress conducts a full fact-finding inquiry of the treatment of all U.S. residents and other civilians and Jewish refugees to complete the task undertaken by Congress in 1980. As our nation continues to grapple with the war on terror, it is especially timely to look at how individual freedoms have been historically curtailed in the past during wartime,” Wexler said."
Statement of U.S. Senator Russ Feingold

For the Assembly on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians Reception

May 16, 2006

I commend the Assembly on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians (AWRIC) for its work in focusing attention on the experiences of German Americans, Italian Americans, Japanese Americans and others during World War II. Sadly, as so many brave Americans fought against enemies in Europe and the Pacific, the U.S. government was curtailing the freedom of some of its own people at home.

Many Americans are aware of the U.S. government’s internment of Japanese Americans during World War II. Through the work of a commission created by Congress in 1980, the Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians, this tragic episode in American history finally received the official acknowledgment and condemnation it deserved. While I am pleased that we have finally recognized and apologized for the mistreatment of Japanese Americans during World War II, our work is not done.

Congress has not yet authorized an independent review of the treatment during World War II of German Americans and other European Americans, and of Jewish refugees fleeing persecution and genocide. Few Americans know that the U.S. government designated as “enemy aliens” hundreds of thousands of Italian-born and German-born United States resident aliens. As the personal stories documented by AWRIC vividly demonstrate, many Italian Americans, German Americans and Eastern European Americans were unfairly arrested, detained, interned, or relocated. Unknown numbers of German Americans, Italian Americans, and other Europeans Americans had their property confiscated or their travel restricted, or lived under curfews. U.S. government policies also restricted entry to the United States for Jewish refugees who sought safety from Nazi persecution.

While we rightly celebrate our great victory in World War II, it is time to also acknowledge these U.S. government policies and learn from our history. I have introduced legislation, the Wartime Treatment Study Act (S.1354), to create a commission to review the facts and circumstances of the U.S. government’s treatment of German Americans, Italian Americans and other European Americans during World War II. A second commission created by this bill would review the treatment by the U.S. government of Jewish refugees who were fleeing Nazi persecution and genocide. This bill has been approved by the Senate Judiciary Committee and I hope it will be signed into law this Congress.
Editorial: Atoning for an ugly chapter

From the Journal Sentinel

Posted: April 9, 2006

Many Americans realize that thousands of Japanese-Americans were rounded up and interned as potential subversives during World War II. What is not so widely understood - or acknowledged by our government - is that hundreds of thousands of German-Americans and others of European descent also were victimized.

This historic but obscure injustice was recently documented in Milwaukee in an exhibit assembled by TRACES, a non-profit education organization based in St. Paul, Minn. The organization collects the stories of what happened to people from the Midwest, Germany and Austria during World War II. Since 2001, Sen. Russ Feingold (D-Wis.) has sought U.S. government recognition of the injustice meted out to these people. After more than a half-century, such recognition is long overdue.

Guenther Greis of Mequon is one of the dwindling number of Americans who remembers. Now 82, Greis can recall the night in December 1941 when FBI agents burst into his family's home at 27th and Ruby streets in Milwaukee and took his father away to an internment camp. It was not until 1947, two years after World War II ended, that his father was released.

The Greis family was not alone. At Camp McCoy, near Sparta, as many as 300 German-Americans and others were interned during the war, reports Karen Ebel, a founder of the German-American Internee Coalition. Nationally, some 11,000 ethnic Germans, plus other Americans of European descent, were interned. Thousands of others lost their jobs, their homes, their freedom to travel and other rights.

A bill introduced by Feingold would establish two commissions, one to "assess fully and acknowledge" the injustices perpetrated against these European-Americans, the other to document discrimination against Jewish refugees in this country.

The bill was approved by the Senate Judiciary Committee in November, but passage in the full Senate has been put on hold by an anonymous senator. A similar bill awaits action in the House Judiciary Committee, chaired by Rep. Jim Sensenbrenner (R-Wis.).

We urge Congress to quickly enact this legislation, lest the passage of time deprive more Americans of the justice they deserve. Greis supplies another reason to act. "All Americans must know the dreadful
consequences of liberty lost," he says, "so they can ensure that it does not happen again."

From the April 10, 2006 editions of the Milwaukee Journal Sentinel
Have an opinion on this story? Write a letter to the editor or start an online forum.

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WAR TIME TREATMENT STUDY ACT, S. 1354 and H.R. 3198

The bill establishes two fact-finding commissions to review U.S. conduct during World War II: (1) the Commission on Wartime Treatment of European Americans; and (2) the Commission on Wartime Treatment of Jewish Refugees.

Findings

• While fighting the spread of Nazism and fascism by Germany, Italy, and Japan during World War II, the United States treated as suspect the Japanese American, German American, and Italian American communities.

• During World War II, the U.S. government designated more than 600,000 Italian-born and 300,000 German-born United States resident aliens and their families as “enemy aliens,” restricting their travel, personal property rights and requiring them to carry certificates of identification. Thousands of persons of German, Italian and Eastern European ancestry were unfairly arrested, interned, detained, relocated, or deported.

• Pursuant to a policy coordinated with Latin American countries, many European Latin Americans, including German and Austrian Jews, were transferred to the U.S. and interned. Many were later deported to hostile Axis nations in exchange for Americans and Latin Americans held in those nations.

• Nazi Germany persecuted and engaged in genocide against Jews and certain other groups. By the end of World War II, six million Jews had perished at the hands of Nazi Germany. U.S. government policies, however, restricted entry to the United States to Jewish refugees who sought safety from Nazi persecution.

• Congress has previously reviewed the U.S. government’s treatment of Japanese Americans during World War II through the Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians. It has not yet undertaken an independent review of the treatment of German Americans and Italian Americans and of Jewish refugees.

Commission on Wartime Treatment of European Americans

• Membership: The 7-member Commission will be composed of 3 members appointed by the President, 2 by the Speaker of the House in consultation with the minority leader, and 2 by the majority leader of the Senate in consultation with the minority leader.

• Duties: The Commission will review the U.S. government’s treatment of European Americans and European Latin Americans during World War II. This review will include an assessment of the underlying rationale for the U.S. government’s actions and recommendations for how civil liberties can be better protected during war in the future.

• Report: The Commission shall submit a written report of its findings and recommendations to Congress no later than 18 months after the date of the Commission’s first meeting.

Commission on Wartime Treatment of Jewish Refugees

• Membership: The 7-member Commission will be composed of 3 members appointed by the President, 2 by the Speaker of the House in consultation with the minority leader, and 2 by the majority leader of the Senate in consultation with the minority leader.

• Duties: The Commission will review the U.S. government’s treatment of Jewish and other refugees fleeing Nazi persecution and genocide during World War II, and will include an assessment of the underlying rationale for the U.S. government’s actions and recommendations for how people fleeing persecution or genocide in the future can better obtain refuge in the United States.

• Report: The Commission shall submit a written report of its findings and recommendations to Congress no later than 18 months after the date of the Commission’s first meeting.
US World War II Treatment of German Americans and Latin Americans

During World War II, the US violated the civil liberties of American citizens and resident aliens of "enemy" ethnic groups, primarily those of German, Italian and Japanese ancestry. Violations included internment and relocation. Members of these ethnic groups, including millions of European Americans, served in the US armed forces. Some were immediate family members of internees. The Wartime Treatment Study Act, S. 1354/H.R. 3198, would require study of these issues, among others, with respect to European Americans. The Act is summarized on the back. Specific discriminatory government policies are listed below.

US Government Wartime Policies. All numbers are estimates and are likely higher.

- Alien registration branding 300,000 Germans as "enemy aliens," restricting travel and property ownership rights.
- Exclusion from large military areas under military orders causing family disruption, loss of homes and jobs. Relocated families subject to hostility and suspicion in new homes. Men had difficulties finding employment. No government support for relocation. At least 71,700 Germans subject to removal from California prohibited areas.
- Hostile FBI raids and ransacking of homes and arrests with no warrants, unlimited imprisonment while awaiting parole and internment hearings. Hearings with minimal, if any, due process at which no witnesses or counsel were allowed. Internees did not know why they were interned. Families did not know where their loved ones were taken for days or weeks.
- Internment of at least 11,000 German aliens and their families, including US-born children. Families separated, homes and belongings lost. Limited admittance to family camps based upon application to government. Some children placed in orphanages when parents arrested and interned. At least 2,650 German Americans, including families with US-born children, exchanged for Americans held in Germany. Exchanged families survived cruel wartime conditions, such as hunger and Allied bombing.
- Persons of German ancestry were last ethnic group released from camps, some held till late 1948.
- Deportation, expatriation and repatriation of German Americans—resident German aliens and US citizens.
- Internees and excludees returned to communities facing unemployment, financial straits, loss of homes and belongings and stigmatization. No government support. Many families disrupted permanently. Many internees forbidden to speak of internment. Most internees have not spoken out of fear of the government, shame or other personal reasons.

The US government pressured Latin American countries to do the same, with similar results. Originally the State Department, through the Special War Problems Division, targeted individuals and businesses considered a threat to national security, using informants of dubious quality. Two other reasons for this secretive program are clearly stated in US documents: 1) the US wanted to supplant German businesses in Latin America with their own 2) some of those arrested were to be used in exchange for American prisoners behind enemy lines in Europe. Corrupt governments in Latin America also used the program to acquire significant properties by expelling their owners.

- US government financed prison building and operation, as well as deportation proceedings in Latin America.
- Approximately 8500 civilians of German ethnicity arrested and held without charges in prisons throughout Latin America. An unknown number sent directly to Germany.
- 4058 Germans, many of them with their native born wives and children, deported from Latin America to the US between 1941 and 1945 and interned.
- Consulates and embassies ordered not to issue visas to the deportees. On arrival, prisoners charged with illegal entry into the country, allowing indefinite detention.
- At war's end, the US worked vigorously to repatriate all remaining prisoners rather than allow them to return to their chosen country. Many never saw their homes again.
- No legal basis existed for this secret State Department program.

Additional Information: See German American internment website at www.traces.org or www.gaic.info (coming soon)

Questions? Contact Karen Ebel at kebel@yahoo.com or by phone at 603 454 8550

May 2006
Wartime Treatment Study Act. S. 1354/H.R. 3198. The Act would establish two commissions, one to review the US government's WWII policies regarding European Americans (resident aliens and US citizens) and Latin Americans and related civil liberties violations, and the other to review the government's refusal to allow Jewish refugees fleeing persecution entry to the US during WWII. Significant features follow:

- Duties include reviewing governmental wartime policies regarding US resident and Latin American "enemy" Europeans and Jewish refugees fleeing persecution, assessing of the underlying rationale for the U.S. government's actions and recommend how civil liberties and refugees fleeing persecution can be better protected in the future. Written report of findings and recommendations must be submitted to Congress 18 months after first meeting. (Sec. 102 & 202)
- Seven members per commission appointed by President, Senate and Congress, respectively. Two representatives each from the German and Italian American communities on one and two representatives of Jewish refugees on the other. (Sec. 101 & 201)
- Commissions authorized to hold hearings and obtain information from government entities to perform their duties. (Sec. 103 & 203)
- Congress could act on Commissions' recommendations, which might include, among other things, formal acknowledgement and establishment of education fund, as it deems appropriate.

Selected Bibliography


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Links of Interest

www.traces.org
www.gaic.info (coming soon)
www.foitimes.com
www.johnchristgau.com/enemies/enemies.html
http://members.cox.net/steve.fox/opening.htm
www.fear-itself.com
www.allout.co.uk/ram/crystalcity.ram
The Little-known Story of the
Japanese Peruvians During WWII

As people become more aware of the WWII internment of Japanese Americans, it is still a surprise for many to learn that persons of Japanese ancestry were forcibly deported from their homes in Latin America and incarcerated in internment camps in the United States for the purpose of hostage exchange. Not only did the US government violate the civil rights of its own citizens, but it also went outside its borders and violated the human rights of civilians in Latin America.

From December 1941 to 1945, the US government orchestrated the forcible deportation of 2264 men, women and children of Japanese ancestry from 13 Latin American countries to be used as hostages in exchange for Americans held by Japan. Of these, about 1800 (80%) were Japanese Peruvians.

The US government financed their transportation over international borders and their incarceration in US Department of Justice internment camps. It justified its control over the Japanese Latin Americans by confiscating their passports upon entry to the country and labeling them as "illegal aliens". Most of the JLAs were interned in a former migrant labor camp at Crystal City, Texas. This facility also held persons of Italian and German ancestry from the United States and Latin America as well as Japanese Americans.

Over 500 Japanese Peruvians were included in the two prisoner of war exchanges that took place in 1942 and 1943. This left about 1400 Japanese Latin Americans who continued to be interned in the US. Their ordeal did not end with the close of WWII in 1945. The remaining Japanese Latin Americans were told that they were "illegal aliens" and would be deported from the US. At first, the Peruvian government refused to readmit any Japanese Peruvians, even those who were Peruvian citizens or married to Peruvian citizens. As a result, between November 1945 and June 1946, over 900 Japanese Peruvians were deported to war-devastated Japan. 300 Japanese Peruvians remained in the US and fought deportation through the courts. Eventually about 100 Japanese Peruvians were able to return to Peru. It was not until June 1952 that the Japanese Peruvians who stayed in the US were allowed to begin the process of becoming US permanent residents. Many later became American citizens.

This violation of civil and human rights was not justified by a security threat. Rather it was the outcome of historic racism, anti-foreign prejudice, economic competition and political opportunism during time of war. The US government has yet to provide justice for this wrongdoing against the Japanese Latin Americans.

For more Information: Please contact the Japanese Peruvian Oral History Project (JPOHP). If you would like to make a financial contribution (which is tax deductible), we would welcome it very much! Please make your check payable to JPOHP/NJAHS and send it to:

Japanese Peruvian Oral History Project (JPOHP)
P.O. Box 1384
El Cerrito, CA 94530
Phone/FAX: (510) 528-7288
Email: jpohp@prodigy.net

Best researched resource available. Since Gardiner is trilingual, he was able to do research in archives in US and Peru. His work is the basis for all other books on JPs.

Good resource in the history of the exchange program, with a chapter on the JLA experience.

One of the most significant resources on JA internment. First JA publication to expose JLA wartime experience.


Moving and insightful autobiography of former JP internee. This second edition of the English version includes a forward by C. Harvey Gardiner, a new preface by Elsa H. Kudo and epilogue by Julie Small. Japanese version is in 2nd edition (published in 1995) and is more detailed, with expanded section on redress.

*Crystal City Internment Camp - 50th Anniversary Album*. Monterey, California, 7/94.
Best compilation of resources concerning Crystal City Internment Camp, including JP family stories.

Very good collection of remembrances of JA and JP, who were children or youth at the time of internment. Highlights little known stories of JP, draft resisters, repatriates.

First comprehensive study of the patterns of Japanese migration on the continent as a whole. Focuses on Brazil, Mexico and Peru, with a chapter on WWII internment, redress and postwar dekasegi.

Examination of the wartime and redress experience of JLA from the perspective of international law.

For more information, contact: Japanese Peruvian Oral History Project (JPOHP)- Email: jpohp@prodigy.net
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Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Latin Americans of Japanese Descent Act (S. 2296 & H.R. 4901)

To create a Commission to investigate facts and circumstances about the relocation, internment, and deportation of Latin Americans of Japanese descent

Sponsors: Senator Daniel Inouye (HI), Senator Ted Stevens, Senator Carl Levin (MI), Senator Patrick J. Leahy (VT)


CONTEXT
The U.S. interned over 110,000 people of Japanese descent during World War II. Between December 1941 and February 1948, the U.S. government orchestrated and financed the abduction of approximately 2,300 men, women, and children of Japanese ancestry from 13 Latin American countries to the U.S. More than 800 of Japanese Latin Americans were included in two prisoner exchanges between the United States and Japan. The remaining Japanese Latin Americans were imprisoned in internment camps without the benefit of due process until after the end of the war. The U.S. government issued an apology and financial reparations for its wartime violation against U.S. citizens and permanent residents of Japanese ancestry through the Civil Liberties Act of 1988. This Act, however, did not bring relief for Japanese Latin Americans who were abducted and unlawfully interned in the U.S. Since the war, while many Japanese Latin Americans have passed away, almost 800 are known to have sought redress. Many Japanese Latin Americans who remained in the United States were eventually able to secure permanent residency status and have become citizens of the United States.

DESCRIPTION OF THE BILL
H.R. 4901 would create a commission to investigate and determine facts and circumstances surrounding the relocation, internment, and deportation of Japanese Latin Americans during World War II by the U.S. government. The commission would be composed of nine members, three each appointed by the President, the Speaker of the House of Representatives, and the President pro tempore of the Senate. The commission would be charged with holding public hearings and submitting a report of its findings and recommending appropriate remedies to Congress, within 12 months of the bill’s enactment.

SUPPORTERS OF THE BILL
Japanese American Citizens League
Campaign For Justice: Redress Now For Japanese Latin Americans!
Japanese Peruvian Oral History Project
National Coalition for Redress/Reparations—San Francisco
Nikkei for Civil Rights and Redress
Congressional Asian Pacific American Caucus
Summary of “Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Latin Americans of Japanese Descent Act”

FINDINGS
In 1982, the Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians found that approximately 2,300 men, women, and children of Japanese descent were uprooted from their homes in Latin America and detained in internment camps in the United States, and in some cases, deported to Japan to enable the United States to conduct prisoner exchanges. They were not covered by the Civil Liberties Act of 1988, which formally apologized and provided compensation payments to former Japanese Americans interned pursuant to Executive Order 9066.

ESTABLISHMENT OF THE COMMISSION
The commission would be composed of 9 members: 3 each appointed by the President, the Speaker of the House of Representatives, and the President pro tempore of the Senate. The President shall call the first meeting of the commission within 60 days that this act is enacted or within 30 days after legislation making appropriations to carry out this act is enacted.

DUTIES OF THE COMMISSION
• Investigate and determine facts and circumstances surrounding the United States’ relocation, internment, and deportation of Latin Americans of Japanese descent, and the impacts of those actions by the United States
• Recommend appropriate remedies, if any, based on preliminary findings by the original commission and new discoveries

Not later than one year after the date of the first meeting, the commission shall submit a written report on its findings and recommendations to Congress.

POWERS OF THE COMMISSION
The commission shall hold public hearings, give testimony, receive evidence, and administer oaths; may also issue and enforce subpoenas requiring the attendance and testimony of witnesses, as well as producing other physical evidence and materials.

PERSONNEL AND ADMINISTRATIVE PROVISIONS
A commission member who is not an officer or employee of the federal government shall be compensated for each day, including travel time, during which the member is engaged in commission duties. A commission member who is an officer or employee of the United States shall serve without compensation.

TERMINATION
The commission shall terminate its duties and performances 90 days after the date on which the commission submits its report to Congress.

AUTHORIZATION OF APPROPRIATIONS
Funding shall be appropriated for the fiscal year 2007, and shall remain available, without fiscal year limitation, until expended.