Executive Order 9066 and the Japanese-American Internment: Changing Views Over Time

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PREFACE

VOICES OF THE INTERNMENT CAMPS: LIVES INTERUPTED

Below are excerpts from interviews with former internment camp internees conducted by the author from February 14 – 19, 2015:

> ***Mr. Yukio Kawaratani***: I was born in 1931 in San Juan Capistrano of Japanese parents. On December 7, 1941 the family was home listening to the radio about the Pearl Harbor attack. I was only 10 but I knew it was bad news for us Japanese-Americans. We took a huge financial loss because of the internment, as we had to sell our house, farm, crops and all machinery for a fraction of their value. In the Tule Lake camp I hated the frequent thick mush, powdered milk, mutton stew, curry and shortage of meat and sugar. Also, there was the long walk to the middle of the block to the toilets and showers which had no privacy partitions. There were not many enjoyable times in the camps. After the war, the most difficult things were seeing my mother working in the fish canneries, my oldest sister working as a domestic, and my brothers who served in the army, having to work as gardeners as they were the only jobs open to Japanese-Americans after the war. But I still felt proud to be Japanese. As for the internment, everyone must learn that it was an unconstitutional injustice that must never happen again in America.

> ***Mr. Bill Watanabe***: I was born in 1944 in Manzanar. Before the war, my parents leased the farm from a Jewish man in Pacoima. My father had built a house, a packing shed, and a guest house on the property just before Pearl Harbor. He also bought a new truck for the farm. The Jewish man (his name was Mr. Meichtry) advised my parents to go to the camps and he would take care of the farm houses. He paid my father for the houses and shed and truck, and promised my father after the war was over that we could come back and buy back everything. My third oldest brother passed away in September 1942 after only six months or so at Manzanar. My mother blamed it on the harsh weather, poor food, and winds and

dust; he also may have had some heart problems. My mother said the winds were incredibly powerful and kicked up dust everywhere and made life miserable. Losing their son at the camp hospital was probably one of the most difficult times for my parents. After the war, my parents were very fortunate because Mr. Meichtry was an honorable man who lived up to his promise to return the farm and equipment to my parents. At school after the war, I hated the times when the class talked about Pearl Harbor, which they did every December 7th. Often being the only Japanese-American kid in class, I felt extremely self-conscious and wished I could crawl into a hole. Now as an adult, I know that I was an innocent victim of racism and evil scapegoating, and have nothing to be ashamed of or embarrassed about, but at the time I felt shame.

Mr. Bill Shishima: I was born in 1930 in Los Angeles of Japanese parents. On December 7th, I wasn't too concerned by Pearl Harbor because I didn't know what or where it was. My parents were shocked, however. They couldn't believe that Japan would go to war against America! My first impression of Heart Mountain Camp (in Wyoming) was hundreds of black barracks in the middle of nowhere, full of sage brush and tumble weeds. Guard towers and barbed wire fences were all around us. How long would we be penned up in this prison? After the war, I believe most of the students accepted me, but sometimes an adult would refer to me as a Jap-boy. I have learned that our Constitution is very fragile. We were incarcerated not because of military necessity, but because of war hysteria, prejudice, and failure of political leadership. With no charges against us, no due process of law, we were incarcerated due to our Japanese ancestry. No one should be incarcerated because of their ancestry.

INTRODUCTION

The past is malleable and flexible, changing as our recollection interprets and re-explains what has happened.[1] -Peter Berger

The way in which we view historical events depends on where we stand in relation to those events. The perspective during the time of a particular event may have immediacy but

[1] Will Carpenter, *The Life and Times of…Researching and Writing American Local History* (Cookeville, Tennessee: History Works Publishing, 2009), 157.

lacks deep insight. As time passes the perspective may change as connections to other contemporaneous events emerge. We see a clear example of this shifting perspective and interpretation in the internment of Japanese-Americans during World War II. News coverage at the time of the implementation of Executive Order 9066 and during the Japanese-American internment during World War II focused primarily on the danger that Japanese-Americans allegedly posed to the U.S. mainland. In the decades following the war, historians concluded that a prominent reason for the enactment of E.O. 9066 and the internment was racial discrimination in the government and the public, coupled with a disregard for, and suppression of, evidence that showed no credible threat by Japanese-Americans.

HOW THE INTERNMET WAS REPORTED AT THE TIME

On December 7, 1941, Japanese bombers attacked the U.S. Naval base at Pearl Harbor in Hawaii. By December 8th, President Roosevelt had asked the Congress for war against Japan; he received approval almost immediately. In that instant, the war became a grim reality for all Americans, including those of Japanese ancestry. Indeed, the Japanese-Americans were acutely aware of what war with Japan could mean for them. Immediately after the attack on Pearl Harbor, newspapers began reporting that government officials feared genuine "threats of espionage and sabotage" from Japanese-American fifth columnists (i.e., spies and saboteurs).[2] It is interesting to note that German-Americans and Italian-Americans, as covered in the press, were treated differently; they "had become Americanized and were loyal to 'the American war effort'" and therefore were not looked upon as a threat.[3] It was not only the press that conveyed

[2] "Congress Committee Urges Resettlement of Coast Japs in Interior," *The Greeley Daily Tribune*, March 20, 1942, http://access.newspaperarchive.com.

[3] Ibid.

this Japanese-American threat, however. The commander for the Western Defense Command, Lieutenant General John L. DeWitt, was concerned about fifth column activity on the West Coast and expressed his anxiety when he testified before Congress in January 1942:

> I do not want any of them [i.e., persons of Japanese ancestry] here. They are a dangerous element. There is no way to determine their loyalty….it makes no difference whether he is an American citizen, he is still a Japanese. American citizenship does not necessarily determine loyalty….But we must worry about the Japanese all the time until he is wiped off the map.[4]

With these sentiments in mind, Japanese-Americans were quick to make public loyalty pledges which were covered by newspapers. A *Los Angeles Times* article contained a loyalty statement made by the Japanese-American Citizens League, which read in part, "We shall do all in our power to help wipe out vicious totalitarian enemies….The enemy will try to sabotage our usefulness by inciting race hysteria."[5] These expressions of loyalty were to have little effect on Japanese-Americans' ultimate fate.

Parallel to the "military threat" theme, opinion columns openly espousing anti-Japanese-American sentiment and racist viewpoints emerged in press coverage across the U.S. The tone of these articles ranged from calm and controlled to hysterical. Walter Lippmann, one of America's most respected journalists, wrote an opinion piece in early 1942 entitled, "Today and Tomorrow: The Fifth Column on the Coast," in which he advocated for the internment of Japanese-Americans on the West Coast. While his tone was reasoned, he nevertheless supported a one-size-fits-all solution: the mass removal of all Japanese-Americans on the West Coast. Lippmann—who had a large nationwide readership—stated that Japanese-Americans

[4] C. Peter Chen, "Internment of Japanese-Americans and Japanese-Canadians," *World War II Database*, http://ww2db.com/battle_spec.php?battle_id=225.

[5] "Citizens Offer Loyalty Pledge to Flag," *Los Angeles Times*, December 9, 1941, www.proquest.com.

were likely to be "enemy agents on [the U.S. main]land" and commit acts of espionage and sabotage.[6] Echoing many of Lippmann's arguments in his piece, "This is War! Stop Worrying About Hurting Jap Feelings," but in more incendiary tones, Henry McLemore expressed racist views through comments such as:

> Herd 'em up, pack 'em off and give 'em the inside room in the badlands. Let 'em be pinched, hurt, hungry and dead up against it….let us have no patience with the enemy or with anyone whose veins carry his blood….Personally, I hate the Japanese. And that goes for all of them.[7]

Other writers also joined the effort in advocating for internment by essentially claiming that there was no distinction between the Japanese aggressors at Pearl Harbor and Japanese-Americans living in the U.S., two-thirds of whom were American citizens. *Los Angeles Times* writer W. H. Anderson made this comparison in his opinion piece against Japanese-Americans: "A viper is nonetheless a viper wherever the egg is hatched….So a Japanese-American...grows up to be a Japanese, not an American….[he] is a potential and menacing…danger to our country unless properly supervised, controlled and, as it were, hamstrung."[8] The newspaper coverage of the Japanese-American issue on the West Coast culminated in President Franklin Delano Roosevelt issuing E.O. 9066 on February 19, 1942 ostensibly to address the military threat posed by Japanese-Americans.

Newspaper articles in early 1942 covered the mass evacuation of more than 120,000 Japanese-Americans as a generally positive experience for the internees. One article indicated

[6] Walter Lippmann, "Today and Tomorrow: The Fifth Column on the Coast," *Los Angeles Times*, February 13, 1942, www.proquest.com.

[7] Henry McLemore, "This is War! Stop Worrying About Hurting Jap Feelings," *Seattle Times*, January 30, 1942, http://www.densho.org/causes/primarysource/C2-d-04.htm.

[8] W.H. Anderson, "The Question of Japanese-Americans," *Los Angeles Times*, February 2, 1942, www.proquest.com.

that some of the internees "laughed and joked as they boarded the…train."[9] Another article, bearing the enthusiastic title " 'This is the Life' Say Japs at Manzanar," painted a picture of Japanese-American internees pleased by the amenities found at the camp, including "comfortable wooden buildings…, bath houses and showers, and plenty of wholesome food…."[10] This article went on to describe camp life as being essentially normal, with all the typical happenings one would expect in the outside world—baseball teams, dates and dances, baby births, no fences surrounding the camp, firemen idly waiting for an alarm, local camp newspapers, etc. At the same time that outside newspapers were publishing these positive reports, the newspapers within the camps themselves, which were established to keep the incarcerated evacuees informed of the daily goings-on in the camps, were also accentuating the positives of camp living. Articles, letters, and editorials had titles ranging from "Trip…Enjoyable as Well as Informative" to "We Pledge Allegiance to FDR" to "Wedding Bells."[11] Overall, coverage both outside and inside the camps focused on the positive aspects of the internees' experiences.

In contrast with these relatively cheery articles, a small number of newspapers published anti-internment views. Bainbridge Island, Washington was the first location in the entire country where the Japanese-Americans were removed from their homes and sent to

[9] "Mass Jap Evacuation At Los Angeles Starts," *San Antonio Express*, April 2, 1942, http://access.newspaperarchive.com.

[10] Harry Ferguson, " 'This is the Life' Say Japs at Manzanar," *Oakland Tribune*, April 21, 1942, http://access.newspaperarchive.com.

[11] "Trip…Enjoyable as Well as Informative," *Manzanar Free Press*, June 25, 1942; "We Pledge Allegiance to FDR" and "Wedding Bells," *Poston Chronicle*, January 31, 1943, all articles found at http://archive.densho.org/main.aspx.

internment camps. The local paper, *The Bainbridge Review*, took a stand against internment in a February 1942 editorial piece:

> Up and down the Pacific Coast, in the newspapers, and in the halls of Congress are words of hatred now for all Japanese, whether they be citizens of America. These words reached a shrieking crescendo when Henry McLemore, with all the intelligence of a blind pig, wrote…'Personally, I hate the Japanese. And that goes for all of them.'...it isn't the kind of patriotism that will win the war….But what of another factor—the wreckage [the internment] would bring to thousands and thousands of loyal American citizens who can't avoid ancestry in Japan!...Their record bespeaks nothing but loyalty. Their sons are in our Army; they are heavy contributors to the Red Cross and to the defense bond drive….[12]

The editors also discussed the extent of the Japanese-Americans' integration into U.S. society as well as the danger in removing constitutional rights from loyal citizens. However, by March of 1942 the editors knew that the internment was a *fait accompli*. They published another editorial which amounted to an apology to the Japanese Americans for not being able to keep the internment from becoming a reality: "The *Review* has done what little it could to keep them here, for *The Review* trusts them and believes they are good residents of this nation. Others, in the majority, have ruled otherwise. *The Review*—and those who think as it does—have lost."[13]

HOW HISTORIANS HAVE ANALYZED THE INTERNMENT OVER TIME

World War II finally ended with Japan signing formal surrender papers on September 2, 1945. Historians almost immediately began to investigate multiple aspects of World War II—the most momentous historical event in modern history—including the Japanese-American internment. As historians explored this topic, many began to focus on the racism that had

[12] "More Plain Talk," *The Bainbridge Review*, February 5, 1942, http://depts.washington.edu/civilr/news_colasurdo.htm.

[13] "Many Who Mourn," *The Bainbridge Review*, March 5, 1942, http://depts.washington.edu/civilr/news_colasurdo.htm.

played a prominent role in the entire process. Underpinning this was long-standing anti-Asian sentiment, especially in California, to where most Asians had immigrated.[14] This was first seen in the passage of the Chinese Exclusion Act of 1882, a law that established a pattern of anti-Asian legislation.[15] Historian Roger Daniels and others pointed out that once Chinese immigration was barred and as Japanese immigration increased, rising anti-Japanese sentiment precipitated anti-Japanese laws beginning with the 1913 and 1920 Alien Land Laws.[16] These laws prevented Issei (i.e., first generation Japanese immigrants) from becoming land owners. Shortly thereafter, a 1922 Supreme Court ruling prohibited Asian immigrants from becoming citizens.[17] Notably, this ruling did not apply to other racial groups (i.e., black or white immigrants). Ultimately, these anti-Asian laws reinforced a xenophobic view of Japanese-Americans as outsiders in the minds of the public and in the government. It was, therefore, only a small step from these racist laws to the enactment of E.O. 9066 when the war started. As historian Jeffrey Rogers Hummel noted in his article on U.S. repression during World War II, entrenched racism in America was a chief cause of the Japanese-American internment.[18]

Another area that historians addressed was the supposed Japanese-American "military threat"—a threat found lacking in credibility due to the wartime suppression of key governmental reports, which were not rediscovered until after World War II. The first of these

[14] Roger Daniels, "Milestones in California History—Executive Order #9066," *California History* 70, no. 4 (Winter 1991/1992), www.jstor.org.

[15] Roger Daniels, *Prisoners without a Trial* (New York: Hill and Wang, 2004), 7.

[16] Roger Daniels, *The Politics of Prejudice: The Anti-Japanese Movement in California and the Struggle for Japanese Exclusion* (Gloucester, Massachusetts: The Regents of the University of California, 1962), 45, 92.

[17] Michi Weglyn, *Years of Infamy: The Untold Story of America's Concentration Camps* (New York: Morrow Quill Paperbacks, 1976), 41.

[18] Jeffrey Rogers Hummel, "Not Just Japanese-Americans: The Untold Story of U.S. Repression During 'The Good War,'" *The Journal of Historical Review* 7, no. 2 (Fall 1986): 285-317, www.jstor.org.

reports was made prior to Pearl Harbor in the fall of 1941 by the State Department's Curtis Munson. President Roosevelt tasked him with gauging the loyalty of West Coast Japanese-Americans. As historian Michi Weglyn wrote in her book, *Years of Infamy*, Munson found the Issei to be "loyal to the United States" and he described the Nissei (i.e., second generation Japanese-Americans): "They are universally estimated from 90 to 98 percent loyal to the United States….They are not Japanese in culture. They are foreigners to Japan….They are not oriental or mysterious, they are very American…."[19] Munson's report could have assuaged American fears about disloyal Japanese-Americans, but it was suppressed by the government until after the war was over.[20] The second report, prepared in 1942 by Chief of Naval Operations Kenneth D. Ringle proved that the supposed military risks that Japanese-Americans posed were unsubstantiated. He thought that "…the entire 'Japanese Problem' has been magnified out of its true proportion…[and] it should be handled on the basis of the individual…and not on a racial basis."[21] The Director of the Federal Bureau of Investigation, J. Edgar Hoover, agreed with both the Ringle and Munson reports: "The necessity for mass evacuation is based primarily upon public and political pressure rather than on factual data…."[22] Historian Peter Irons indicated that both the Ringle and the FBI report were suppressed by the federal government, and as such they did not reach the public eye.[23] As will be discussed later, these reports were also hidden from the U.S. Supreme Court, with far-reaching consequences.

[19] Weglyn, *Years of Infamy*, 43-44.

[20] Ibid., 52.

[21] "Ringle Report on the Japanese Internment," Navy Department Library, December 30, 1941, http://www.history.navy.mil/research/library/online-reading-room/title-list-alphabetically/r/ringle-report-on-japanese-internment.html.

[22] Brian Niiya, "J. Edgar Hoover," last modified March 19, 2013, http://www.densho.org/.

[23] Peter Irons, *Justice at War* (London: University of California Press, 1983), 204, 286.

In the years following World War II, historians discovered that, in addition to these reports, the government also suppressed other documents, including photographs of the internment camps and internees. One censored iconic image entitled, "I am an American," taken in March 1942 by photographer Dorothea Lange succinctly captures the essence of the plight of Japanese-Americans. The day after the bombing of Pearl Harbor, a store owner—a Japanese-American and a graduate of the University of California—put a sign on his Oakland storefront that read in capital letters: "I AM AN AMERICAN."[24] He was later forced to close his business due to the internment. The U.S. government, which had hired Lange to take photos of the evacuation process and the internment camps, did not approve of Lange's photos and ultimately impounded them in the effort to keep Americans ignorant of the conditions under which over 120,000 Japanese-Americans were being detained. In her book, *Impounded: Dorothea Lange and the Censored Images of Japanese American Internment*, historian Linda Gordon noted that Lange's images were suppressed because they "unequivocally denounce[d] an unjustified, unnecessary, and racist policy."[25] Dr. Gordon also indicated that, as of the writing of her book in 2006, about 97 percent of Lange's internment photos still had never been published anywhere; most of them had been discreetly filed away in the National Archives after World War II where they remained for decades.[26] Through Dr. Gordon's work to rediscover and publicize these photos, we clearly see a new (and visual) perspective on the internment, one that was not available to scholars, newspaper reporters, or the general public during the war.

[24] Wendy Ng, *Japanese American Internment During World War II*, (Westport, Connecticut: Greenwood Press, 2002), 118.

[25] Linda Gordon and Gary Y. Okihiro, eds., *Impounded: Dorothea Lange and the Censored Images of Japanese American Internment* (New York: W.W. Norton & Company, 2006), 6.

[26] Ibid., 5-6.

This suppression of information had far-reaching influence, extending even to the U.S. Supreme Court. Indeed, historians' research into four landmark internment cases found that the Supreme Court made biased rulings on the internment due to the fact that vital evidence had been quashed. In these wartime rulings the Supreme Court found that the evacuation and internment orders as well as E.O. 9066 were a military necessity, and generally side-stepped the issue of constitutionality. In the first two cases, *Hirabayashi v. United States* and *Yasui v. United States* the Supreme Court ruled in 1943 that "differentiating citizens of Japanese ancestry from other groups in the United States" was acceptable and that Gordon Hirabayashi's and Minoru Yasui's curfew violation convictions should stand.[27] In *Korematsu v. United States*, the Court found that mass internment and evacuation orders were necessary, and upheld Korematsu's conviction of disobeying the military evacuation order.[28] The final case, *Ex Parte Endo*, was decided on the same day as *Korematsu*, December 18, 1944. In this case, a camp internee named Mitsuye Endo challenged her internment on the grounds that she could not be held "indefinitely without cause."[29] The Supreme Court ruled in her favor and held that the government did not have the authority to imprison loyal citizens. This ruling somewhat contradicted the *Korematsu* ruling. Indeed, "Justices Murphy, Roberts, and Jackson dissented [in *Korematsu*] against this 'legalization of racism.'"[30] Historians later found that the Justice and War Departments modified and even withheld certain evidence (i.e., the Munson, Ringle and FBI

[27] William Dudley, ed., *Japanese American Internment Camps* (San Diego: Green Haven Press, Inc., 2002), 19, and Irons, *Justice at War*, vii.

[28] George Maliha, "The Internment of Japanese-Americans: Public Fears and Federal Response," *The Dialectics* issue 4 (2010-2011): 10-11.

[29] Ibid., 11.

[30] Ellen Levine, *A Fence Away From Freedom: Japanese Americans and World War II* (New York: G.P. Putnam's Sons, 1995), 237.

reports) when presenting their arguments to the Supreme Court.[31] All of these suppressed documents had found that Japanese-Americans were not a military threat. If the Supreme Court had been given access to this critical information during deliberations, it likely would have found in favor of the Japanese-Americans. Indeed, constitutional law professor, Dr. Eugene V. Rostow said, "One hundred thousand persons were sent to concentration camps on a record which wouldn't support a conviction for stealing a dog."[32] Rostow went on to label these decisions "a disaster."[33] The Supreme Court was unable to make a fully-informed decision in these cases due to the concealment of vital intelligence reports—reports which were later unearthed by the diligent work of historians.

Changing opinions of the internment over the subsequent decades, coupled with Japanese-American activism, resulted in reparations payments to internment survivors as well as the overturning of court cases. Starting in the 1960s, Japanese-Americans, particularly Sansei (i.e., third generation Japanese-Americans), began fighting for reparations from the government. Historians have noted that these initial efforts helped prompt previously silent survivors of the internment to speak out about their wartime experiences and to join the reparations movement. Under pressure from this movement President Ronald Reagan signed the Civil Liberties Act of 1988, which provided financial redress of $20,000 for each internment survivor as well as an official apology from Congress.[34] At the same time that the legislative and

[31] Irons, *Justice at War*, 286-87.

[32] Weglyn, *Years of Infamy*, 53.

[33] Roger Daniels, Sandra C. Taylor, and, Harry H. L. Kitano, eds., *Japanese Americans: From Relocation to Redress* (Seattle and London: University of Washington Press, 1991), 149.

[34] Dudley, *Japanese American Internment Camps*, 113, and "$20,000, Apology Voted for WWII Japanese Internees: Bill Ready for Reagan Signature," *Los Angeles Times*, August 4, 1988, http://articles.latimes.com/1988-08-04/news/mn-10462_1_japanese-american-internees.

executive branches were changing their stance on the internment, the judicial branch also altered its perspective on the internment cases from four decades prior. Federal Judge Marilyn Hall Patel overturned Fred Korematsu's conviction in 1984. Two years later, Federal Judge Donald S. Voorhees' vacated Gordon Hirabayashi's conviction because the government had concealed evidence during the 1944 hearing. Minoru Yasui's conviction was also vacated. Voorhees declared, "It is now conceded by almost everyone that the internment of Japanese Americans during World War II was simply a tragic mistake for which American society as a whole must accept responsibility."[35] These cases were overturned due to the work of historian and attorney Peter Irons, who filed Freedom of Information Act requests in the early 1980s and found classified documents which had previously been suppressed.[36] His scholarship and investigation turned into long-awaited justice for people who had been wronged by the system meant to protect them.

After the war, historians also focused on the actual experiences of Japanese-Americans during and after the internment. For example, historian Ellen Levine's book, *A Fence Away from Freedom*, poignantly chronicles the Japanese-American experience through first-hand accounts of the internees. Mary Sakaguchi relates that her family was given only two weeks to sell their farm equipment and never had the chance to harvest their crop.[37] They lost essentially everything. Some of the most heartbreaking memories are those of the youngest internees, like those of Betty Morita who was eight when she was evacuated: "I remember the last day of school….My teacher had all the kids in my class go out and pick wildflowers and give me a

[35] Ibid., 118.
[36] Ng, *Japanese American Internment During World War II*, 91.
[37] Levine, *A Fence Away from Freedom*, 38.

bouquet. I'll never forget that."[38] During and after the war, the Japanese-American community persevered, partly due to their cultural heritage. According to internment camp survivor Yukio Kawaratani, two Japanese phrases in particular—*shikata ga nai* ("it cannot be helped") and *gaman* ("perseverance")—had special resonance for the internees, which helped them face their suffering with dignity and fortitude.[39] Another part of the Japanese-American experience was their inclination to remain silent about the internment after the war. Part of this stemmed from the internees' natural reluctance to talk about unpleasant subjects—another Japanese cultural trait—but part of it stemmed from the shame they felt at being treated in this way. As one writer described it: "We were like the victim of rape—we could not bear to speak of the assault, of the unspeakable crime….We dared not fully reveal the depth of our feelings about it."[40] This history of Japanese America was (and is) one full of adversity, hardship, and ruin, but also one of resilience, survival, and triumph.

CONCLUSION

During World War II, news coverage focused prominently on the danger that Japanese-Americans allegedly posed to the U.S. mainland. However, this was not a complete (or even accurate) picture. In the intervening decades, historians found that the enactment of E.O. 9066 and the internment were due to racial hostility on the part of both the government and the public; this racism was coupled with the suppression of evidence which had clearly shown no credible threat by Japanese-Americans. The last internment camp gates swung shut on

[38] Ibid., 39.

[39] Yukio Kawaratani, interview by author, February 14-19, 2015.

[40] Maisie and Richard Conrat, *Executive Order 9066: The Internment of 110,000 Japanese Americans* (Los Angeles: UCLA Asian American Studies Center Press, 1992), 14.

November 30, 1945.[41] However, this did not mean the search for truth stopped. Indeed, it was quite the opposite. The closing of the camp gates was the signal to open the investigation of this tragic chapter in our nation's history. Over 120,000 Japanese-Americans were taken from their homes, stripped of their property, and imprisoned for the duration of the war without being charged of any crime and without receiving any trial. While wartime news reports captured only a portion of the E.O. 9066 and internment story, historians later probed many aspects of this event, including governmental policies, long-standing prejudice against those of Japanese descent, judicial rulings, and personal impact. They also made connections to current-day events. For example, the treatment of Muslim/Arab-Americans after the September 11, 2001 attacks provoked many of the same racially-motivated responses seen six decades earlier after Pearl Harbor. There was racial profiling, hysterical anti-Muslim outcries in certain quarters of the press, and dubious laws were passed. This climate of fear produced the U.S.A. Patriot Act of 2001 which allowed profiling as well as government-approved registration and detention.[42] Additionally, the National Defense Authorization Act included a provision that allowed for—and still allows for—the indefinite military detention of U.S. citizens without *habeas corpus* or due process.[43] These current events are echoes of the Japanese-American internment reverberating down through the decades.

[41] Catherine A. Luther, "Reflections of Cultural Identities in Conflict: Japanese American Internment Camp Newspapers during World War II," *Journalism History* 29, no. 2 (Summer 2003): 80.

[42] Linda Gordon and Gary Y. Okihiro, *Impounded*, 79-80.

[43] Zahra Billoo, "Japanese Internment Lessons Forgotten Since 9/11," *San Jose Mercury News*, February 29, 2012, http://www.mercurynews.com/ci_20072806.