Farewell, Lima

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Many stories from World War II have been depicted in both fiction and non-fiction works. However, thousands of other stories remain unknown. This paper will highlight a relatively unknown story and present it not only as a significant piece of WWII history, but also as an issue with far-reaching socioeconomic and political implications still being felt today.

Between the years 1942 and 1946, thirteen Latin American countries deported 2,264 Japanese Latin Americans to the United States for detention in concentration camps. Eighteen-thousand of those deported were Peruvian, making up 80% of the detainees. Without warning or explanation, thousands of families were sent to the United States, where they would remain prisoners for nearly four years. They received no help from the governments that rejected them upon their release. The first-hand account of former businessman Ginzo Murono, who was interned for three and a half years, provides a raw perspective of the effects imprisonment had upon these people. Murono's account was given as a testimony to the Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Civilians Act in 1981.[1]

On Sunday, January 6, 1943, at 7:00pm, after dining at a local restaurant, Ginzo Murono returned to the house of a business partner with both of their families. In the driveway sat a car with two men standing beside it. Murono's business partner was informed that he was to go

[1] "Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Latin Americans of Japanese Descent Act," H.R. Rep. No. 111-666 (2010), quoted in Alexis Frances Murono, "Peruvian Japanese Internment-My Family Story," *Wake Forest University*, last modified 2002, http://www.wfu.edu/history/StudentWork/AsiaPacificWar/asia-pacific-alexis/index.html.

with them under order of the United States government. The partner obliged and left with them. Murono returned home with his family, where he encountered the same situation only an hour later. He was placed in a small, crowded basement of the local police station with sixty other Japanese men. Of the conditions, Murono stated, "No one could sleep that night because of the crowded conditions, cigarette smoke and heat. There were no chairs or beds; only a cement floor. We could not lay down because there wasn't enough room."[2]

The next morning the men were loaded onto trucks, without knowledge of where they were being taking or why. After a two-day trip in the blazing sun, without food, they arrived at Talara, the most northern port of Peru. They boarded a ship where all personal items were confiscated. The next three weeks were spent in the bottom of the ship, receiving only two meals per day.

They arrived in San Francisco and remained there for a few days before being separated into smaller groups. Murono was placed on a train for the Kennedy Internment Camp, a camp for single men in Texas, where he would remain for six months. He was then transferred to Crystal City Internment Camp when his wife applied for admission to the camp through the Spanish Embassy in Peru. After her application was approved in June 1943, the family left their home and business to board a Chilean ship and travel two weeks to reunite.

Crystal City Internment Camp was specifically for families. It held approximately 3,000 Japanese, half of whom were Peruvian and the other half American. Internees ran their own "efficient society," electing officials and managing schools, stores, a post office, general supply distribution and garbage collection, and receiving a mere 10¢/hour for their efforts.

[2] Ibid.

On August 15, 1945, a siren sounded in the camp signaling the end of the war; however, the Muronos and other internees in Crystal City would be held in the camp until late 1946, likely due to various governments' uncertainty regarding their future. Murono left the camp with his family in August 1946 for employment at Seabrook Farms in Seabrook, New Jersey, after three years and eight months of internment.

Life was difficult for Murono and his family in Seabrook. The Muronos and other internee families suffered discrimination after their release and faced a drastically different economic situation than they enjoyed in Peru. As a family with small children, it was challenging for the Muronos to spend time together while trying to work a sufficient amount of hours to pay for taxes and living expenses. During the harvest season, employees were required to work twelve-hour days, seven days a week. Additionally, as former Japanese Latin American internees, they were forced to pay a high income tax due to their "illegal alien" status. Murono was unable to support his family alone, so his wife went to work; the care of their two-year- old son, who was born in the camp, was left to a child care center.

The Muronos would endure a thirty-year struggle to provide for and educate their children. Their youngest son is a natural born citizen, and now being citizens themselves, the Muronos are proud to be Americans of Japanese ancestry. Despite this pride, Murono stated that "we cannot ignore the injustice that was done to us."[3] He wrote that during his journey on the trucks he began to feel the loss of and separation from his family and peaceful social life: "without committing any wrong, and without even a hearing, our individual rights had been

[3] "Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Latin Americans of Japanese Descent Act," quoted in Murono.

taken away from us."[4]

In his testimony at a congressional hearing, Murono asked for acknowledgement of the injustice with the hope that such an event will never again be repeated. He wrote not only of the effect internment has had upon himself and his family, but also of other families who were separated for years, some of whom were never reunited, and the many who are still suffering psychological wounds from their internment. Murono's detailed, personal account of internment illustrates the lasting effects of the hidden injustices against Japanese Americans during World War II.

After the attack on Pearl Harbor, the United States government began interning Japanese Americans and seriously discussing deportations of Japanese Latin American citizens. These discussions were not taken lightly by the United States nor by the thirteen Latin American countries it met with.[5]

A plan had been formed in the late 1930s to remove all Axis threats from the hemisphere in order to prevent an attack on the home front.[6] In 1941, the original plan was to intern all Japanese Panamians on Taboga Island in order to protect the Panama Canal, but this plan was not put into action.[7] The final meeting that took place in January 1942 was the Emergency Advisory Committee for Political Defense in Rio de Janeiro. This meeting laid the blueprint for

[4] Ibid.
[5] Nobuko Adachi, "Racial Journeys: Justice, Internment and Japanese-Peruvians in Peru, the United States, and Japan," *The Asia-Pacific Journal: Japan Focus*, accessed February 25, 2013, http://www.japanfocus.org/-nobuko-adachi/2517.
[6] Alexis Frances Murono, "Peruvian Japanese Internment-My Family Story," Wake Forest University, last modified 2002, http://www.wfu.edu/history/StudentWork/AsiaPacificWar/asia-pacific-alexis/index.html.
[7] Stephen Mak, "Japanese Latin Americans," in *Densho Encyclopedia*, accessed February 28, 2013, http://encyclopedia.densho.org/Japanese%20Latin%20Americans/.

the internment that would take place over the next several years.[8] The official order of the United States government was classified as Executive Order 9066.[9] The United States' motivation for interning Japanese Latin Americans, other than hemispheric control, was to carry out exchanges for American hostages and Prisoners of War (POWs) in Japanese controlled territories.[10]

The American government felt the need to detain Japanese Latin Americans, as use of Japanese Americans would not appear politically correct and might spark the concern of non-Japanese American citizens.[11] Most of the thirteen Latin American countries were willing to hand over Japanese citizens to the United States government, and those with the strongest ties to the United States appear to have deported the highest numbers of citizens. Some countries were hesitant to become involved, and their eventual compliance may have been in agreement or in response to pressure from the United States and other countries.[12]

Each of the countries involved carried out arrests and deportation through similar methods. There were not any hearings or indictments of Japanese citizens. They were picked up both during the day and late at night, detained in local police stations and put on boats to America. Several Latin American women married to Japanese men were also interned.[13] Laws in

[8] Alexis Frances Murono, "Peruvian Japanese Internment-My Family Story," Wake Forest University, last modified 2002, http://www.wfu.edu/history/StudentWork/AsiaPacificWar/asia-pacific-alexis/index.html.
[9] "Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Latin Americans of Japanese Descent Act," H.R. Rep. No. 111-666 (2010).
[10] Natsu Taylor Saito, "The Japanese Peruvian Internment," *Yale Human Rights and Developmental Law Journal* 1 (1998): 70, http://www.law.yale.edu/documents/pdf/LawJournals/Natsu_Taylor_Saito_YHRDLJ.pdf.
[11] Tyler Sipe, "Exposing Japanese-Peruvian WWII Internment Camps," *The World*, last modified February 19, 2010, http://pri.org/.
[12] Alexis Frances Murono, "Peruvian Japanese Internment-My Family Story," Wake Forest University, last modified 2002, http://www.wfu.edu/history/StudentWork/AsiaPacificWar/asia-pacific-alexis/index.html.
[13] Leah Brumer, "Stealing Home," *East Bay Monthly,* November 1998, 25-27, 29, 45, http://www.densho.org/learning/spice/lesson4/4activity4-7handouts.PDF.

the various Latin American countries allowed this to occur under national legislation, just as the Alien Enemy Act of 1798 permitted such action in the United States. This act allows for "apprehension and internment of nationals of states at war with the United States" and is still intact.[14] This act was applicable as Latin American countries and United States government agents confiscated passports during transportation of the selected citizens to the United States, making the individuals "illegal aliens" upon arrival. Internment was also made possible through the ignorance of the American public.[15]

After being arrested and boarded onto ships, the Japanese Latin Americans traveled under armed soldier and submarine escorts, receiving little food during the journey. Most were stripped naked and sprayed with DDT and other insecticides upon arrival to America and then sent to various camps throughout the country.[16] First-hand accounts depict that most internees believed they were going to be killed.[17] Most were interned at Crystal City Internment Camp in Texas while others lived in camps in Idaho, Montana and New Mexico.[18] The United States worked with other countries to offer hope of reunion for families of male internees in order to increase the number for hostage exchanges, but many families were separated forever, often without knowledge of their family members' fate.[19]

Exchanges for American POWs and citizens took place from 1942 to 1943. Two of the

[14] Alexis Frances Murono, "Peruvian Japanese Internment-My Family Story," Wake Forest University, last modified 2002, http://www.wfu.edu/history/StudentWork/AsiaPacificWar/asia-pacific-alexis/index.html.
[15] Alexis Frances Murono, "Peruvian Japanese Internment-My Family Story," Wake Forest University, last modified 2002, http://www.wfu.edu/history/StudentWork/AsiaPacificWar/asia-pacific-alexis/index.html.
[16] Leslie Josephs, "U.S. Went After Japanese in Peru in WWII," *SFGate*, (San Francisco, CA), August 10, 2008, http://www.sfgate.com/news/article/U-S-went-after-Japanese-in-Peru-in-WWII-3273971.php.
[17] Tyler Sipe, "Exposing Japanese-Peruvian WWII Internment Camps," *The World*, last modified February 19, 2010, http://pri.org/.
[18] Leah Brumer, "Stealing Home," *East Bay Monthly*, November 1998, 25-27, 29, 45, http://www.densho.org/learning/spice/lesson4/4activity4-7handouts.PDF.
[19] Josephs, "U.S. Went After Japanese in Peru in WWII."

largest exchanges resulted in approximately 880 Japanese Latin Americans being transported to Japan or Japanese territories, often to hometowns or provinces. Alicia Nishimoto and her family were given no option other than being sent to her father's hometown of Hiroshima, which had just suffered an atomic bomb.[20] A third exchange was attempted, but news of the treatment of Japanese Americans in Tule Lake Camp as well as the methods with which the United States was acquiring hostages caused the Japanese government to cancel the exchange.[21]

Internees attempted to live as normally as possible in the camps. Crystal City camp consisted of 41 three-room cottages, 118 one-room structures and various service buildings. Two-or three-room buildings contained indoor toilet and bath facilities while huts made of plywood held central latrines and baths. Buildings other than the huts also included cold running water, kitchen sinks and oil stoves. The camp spread across 290 acres and consisted of "warehouses, auditoriums, administration offices, schools, clothing and food stores and a hospital."[22] In 1942, the medical service consisted of only two nurses and a first aid kit, but with the influx of prisoners by 1943 the camp held a hospital with doctors and a twenty-four hour pharmacy.[23] Japanese prisoners received special menus and were allowed picnics by the nearby river, team sports, four schools and a chapel with various services. These aspects of daily living did not hide the constant reminders of the camp's status as a prison: the ten-foot fence enclosing the camp, guard towers, flood lights, daily head counts and censored letters.[24]

[20] Ibid.
[21] Natsu Taylor Saito, "The Japanese Peruvian Internment," *Yale Human Rights and Developmental Law Journal* 1 (1998) 70, http://www.law.yale.edu/documents/pdf/LawJournals/Natsu_Taylor_Saito_YHRDLJ.pdf
[22] Emily Brosveen, "World War II Internment Camps," *Handbook of Texas Online*, accessed Feb. 27, 2013, http://www.tshaonline.org/handbook/online/articles/quwby.
[23] "The Little-known Story of the Japanese Peruvians During WWII," *The Enemy Files Consortium*, accessed February 26, 2013, http://www.enemyalienfiles.org/resources/jpohp/littleknownstory.html.
[24] Brosveen, "World War II Internment Camps."

By the conclusion of World War II, approximately 1,300 Japanese Latin Americans were in custody of the United States. Although the war ended in September 1945, most prisoners were held for nearly another year in the camps, facing an uncertain future.[25]

After World War II, Japanese Latin American prisoners of the United States were denied both American citizenship and re-admittance to their former countries, especially those from Peru. This resulted in the deportation of 900 Japanese Peruvians to Japan, which had been devastated by the war and was still to see further destruction.[26] Three hundred fifty Japanese Peruvians fought deportation with the help of American attorney Wayne Collins. He was able to find work for the majority of former prisoners on farms in Seabrook, New Jersey. Other internees found employment elsewhere.[27] Approximately 100 prisoners were eventually allowed to return to Peru and a total of 200 of all interned Japanese Latin Americans were allowed to return to their original countries.[28, 29]

The lives of the Japanese Peruvians and Latin Americans who remained in the United States were difficult as they faced prejudice, economic struggles, and constant denial of citizenship and restitution. Many young Japanese Peruvians were drafted for the Korean War and denied citizenship even after serving in the military.[30] Many of the interned men state that this was one of the most upsetting insults they received. Eventually, in 1954, the government

[25] Ibid.
[26] Leah Brumer, "Stealing Home," *East Bay Monthly*, November 1998, 25-27, 29, 45, http://www.densho.org/learning/spice/lesson4/4activity4-7handouts.PDF.
[27] Alexis Frances Murono, "Peruvian Japanese Internment-My Family Story," Wake Forest University, last modified 2002, http://www.wfu.edu/history/StudentWork/AsiaPacificWar/asia-pacific-alexis/index.html.
[28] Ibid.
[29] Hector Tobar, "WWII's 'Other' Detainees Press Claims Against U.S," *Los Angeles Times*, Aug. 26, 1996, http://articles.latimes.com/1996-08-26/news/mn-37862_1_latin-american-japanese.
[30] Leah Brumer, "Stealing Home," *East Bay Monthly*, November 1998, 25-27, 29, 45, http://www.densho.org/learning/spice/lesson4/4activity4-7handouts.PDF.

offered citizenship to former internees, which many pursued and achieved.[31] Unfortunately, an even higher number were not informed of the legislation and missed that one year opportunity to gain American citizenship, leaving many without hope for the next forty years.[32]

In 1988, the United States government granted an apology and redress of $20,000 to permanent residents and citizens of the United States who had been interned during World War II. However, Japanese Latin Americans who had been interned were not granted any form of apology or redress because they were not residents at the time of internment.[33] Children born in the camps were natural born citizens and therefore eligible for redress, but other family members were not.

In 1990, a group of former internees, family members, and concerned citizens created the Japanese Peruvian Oral History Project. This, in addition to several individual lawsuits against the United States government, prompted the attention of the Supreme Court. These cases remained under deliberation for six years as doubt surrounding the internment of Japanese Latin Americans delayed proceedings. Those individuals filing the lawsuits also wished to include internees who were at the time living in Japan and Peru, but the government only accepted the lawsuit as representing those still living in the United States. In 1996, two Los Angeles lawyers took on the case, accelerating a ruling. The government withheld a decision and grant of redress until public pressure resulted in a formal apology and the promise of $5,000 to each internee. Many former internees turned down the offer, considering it another

[31] Ibid.
[32] Ibid.
[33] Tobar, "WWII's 'Other' Detainees Press Claims Against U.S."

humiliation.[34]

In 2000, new legislation was proposed by the Japanese Latin American internee community asking for $20,000, but was denied by the government citing lack of funds.[35] In June 2003, "a petition was filed by three Shibayama brothers and the Japanese Peruvian Oral History Project with the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights to hold the United States government accountable for ongoing failure to provide redress for war crimes and crimes against humanity."[36] This effectively took the case to international law, where the Inter-American Commission on Human Rights determined that it had authority in this area and accepted the case. It is under ongoing deliberation. In 2007, a committee was formed within the United States government to investigate the facts of this internment.[37] In November 2010, the Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Latin Americans of Japanese Descent Act was officially formed and charged with the responsibility of reviewing historical documents relating to the internment program of the United States government from December 1941 to February 1948.[38] This investigation also remains ongoing. The most recent news and act of retribution for the interned Japanese Latin Americans occurred in 2011 when Alan Garcia, the

[34] Leah Brumer, "Stealing Home," *East Bay Monthly*, November 1998, 25-27, 29, 45, http://www.densho.org/learning/spice/lesson4/4activity4-7handouts.PDF.
[35] K. Connie Kang, "Interned Japanese Latin Americans Seek Redress," *Los Angeles Times*, (Los Angeles, CA), May 16, 2000, http://articles.latimes.com/2000/may/16/local/me-30597.
[36] "History," Campaign for Justice: Redress Now for Japanese Latin American Internees, accessed Feb. 27, 2013. http://www.campaignforjusticejla.org/history/index.html.
[37] Adachi, "Racial Journeys."
[38] "Commission on Wartime Relocation and Internment of Latin Americans of Japanese Descent Act," H.R. Rep. No. 111-666 (2010).

Peruvian president, publicly apologized for the arrests and deportations that had taken place seventy years ago.[39]

Acknowledgement of the actions of the involved governments regarding this internment has been nearly nonexistent. The actions of the governments that arrested, deported and interned these individuals prompted the 1949 Geneva Convention to include prohibitions on deportations "as civilized nations no longer resorted to such practices."[40] While many of the individuals who endured internment are no longer alive, those who are still living and their children continue to speak out not only for themselves, but also for those of Muslim, Arab and South Asian descent who suffer prejudice in the United States.[41] Many ask for monetary retribution or formal apology, but most emphasize that their primary concern is that such mistreatment will not occur again in the future.

Of the interned Japanese Latin Americans, Peruvian Japanese were the overwhelming majority. This was the result of political, social, and economic factors that began approximately fifty years before internment took place. Japanese immigrants began arriving in Peru in the late 1800s in order to escape the poor economic state of Japan resulting from the Sino-Japanese war. This immigration was a way for the Japanese government to solve population and poverty concerns as well as construct a spread of Japanese citizens throughout Latin America.[42] Peru

39 Thea Bisenberger, "Peru Apologises [sic] for WWII persecution of Japanese," *Coconut Connections* (blog), June 16, 2011, http://coconutconnections.blogspot.com/2011/06/peru-apologises-for-wwii-persecution-of.html.
40 Natsu Taylor Saito, "The Japanese Peruvian Internment," *Yale Human Rights and Developmental Law Journal* 1 (1998): 73, http://www.law.yale.edu/documents/pdf/LawJournals/Natsu_Taylor_Saito_YHRDLJ.pdf.
41 Kevin Anthony Stoda, "Why Have German-, Italian- and Latin American Internment during WWII Been Kept out of the USA History Books?," *Eslkevin's Blog*, Sept. 25, 2010, http://eslkevin.wordpress.com/2010/09/25/why-have-german-italian-and-latin-american-internment-during-wwii-been-kept-out-of-the-usa-history-books/.
42 Keiko Yamanaka, review of *Exporting Japan: Politics of Emigration to Latin America*, by Toake Endoh, *Enterprise and Society*, 11.3 (September 2010): 664-665. doi: 10.1093/es/khq073.

was a country of choice due to its large farming society and open market for poor Japanese farmers. Initially, the Japanese were welcomed to the country as their work ethics promised cheap labor. As more and more immigrants found productive, sustainable lives in Peru, the Japanese population increased, and eventually most Japanese citizens in Peru owned small businesses.[43] This would cause significant problems at the beginning of the 20th century as the Japanese maintained progress in business, property, and society. In 1936, restrictions were placed on Japanese immigration, and the Peruvian government stopped granting naturalization papers. Japanese citizens or individuals living in Peru were held to restrictions similar to those on Jews in Germany at this time. The Japanese were prohibited from meeting, and those who congregated in groups larger than three were deemed spies and subject to arrest. They were also prohibited from opening businesses, and those with one were forced to auction it off. They were not allowed to lease land, were under restricted travel, and had all bank accounts frozen. These restrictions were the result of meetings by foreign ministers from Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Mexico, the United States, Uruguay, and Venezuela.[44]

By the 1940s, most of the 25,000 Japanese in Peru ran thriving businesses, angering wealthy Peruvians.[45] Another contributing factor to this anger was that from the beginning, the majority of Peruvian Japanese maintained a perspective as the superior race and remained isolated from the rest of Peruvian culture and society. A final influence upon the future of internment resulted from the relationship the United States and Peruvian governments

[43] Alexis Frances Murono, "Peruvian Japanese Internment-My Family Story," Wake Forest University, last modified 2002, http://www.wfu.edu/history/StudentWork/AsiaPacificWar/asia-pacific-alexis/index.html.
[44] Adachi, "Racial Journeys."
[45] Josephs, "U.S. Went After Japanese in Peru in WWII."

developed. Both suspiciously analyzed emigration patterns of large numbers of Japanese citizens to developing Latin American countries in pre- and postwar periods and engaged in multiple bartering exchanges such as financial investment and establishment of army bases.[46] These factors resulted in tension as upper class Peruvians perceived the Japanese as serious threats. Social and political discrimination would soon fall upon those of Japanese descent.

In May 1940, riots against native Japanese in the Peruvian cities Lima and Callao resulted in burning, looting, and harming the businesses and homes of Japanese. This prompted some men to send their families back to Japan; however, most families chose to remain in Peru. Soon after these riots, the Peruvian government revoked citizenship of all Japanese citizens.[47] When the United States offered to pay for the shipping and interning of Japanese Latin Americans labeled by their governments as "dangerous Axis nationals," the Peruvian government found a national solution to the hostilities and an opportunity to retake the abundant land and businesses of those citizens.[48] The racial, anti-immigrant sentiment directed towards Japanese farmers, community leaders, and businessmen led the Peruvian government to send the United States government as many "dangerous" Japanese citizens as possible. Very few of those interned were truly believed to be dangerous, and the Peruvian government created lies which persuaded United States government in order to promote internment.[49] Prominent political leader Victor Raul Haya de la Torre gave incorrect characteristics of the Peruvian Japanese in order to make them appear more dangerous. He claimed that the Japanese

[46] Stephen Mak, "Japanese Latin Americans," in *Densho Encyclopedia*, accessed February 28, 2013, http://encyclopedia.densho.org/Japanese%20Latin%20Americans/.
[47] Alexis Frances Murono, "Peruvian Japanese Internment-My Family Story," Wake Forest University, last modified 2002, http://www.wfu.edu/history/StudentWork/AsiaPacificWar/asia-pacific-alexis/index.html.
[48] Ibid.
[49] Natsu Taylor Saito, "The Japanese Peruvian Internment," *Yale Human Rights and Developmental Law Journal* 1 (1998): 68, http://www.law.yale.edu/documents/pdf/LawJournals/Natsu_Taylor_Saito_YHRDLJ.pdf

had "served in the Japanese army, many were ex-officers, there were few women in the community and the Japanese small businesses demonstrated a military type of organization."[50] In 1942, the U.S. Ambassador to Peru told the State Department:

> The second matter in which the [Peruvian] President is very much interested is the possibility of getting rid of the Japanese in Peru. He would like to settle this problem permanently, which means that he is thinking in terms of repatriating thousands of Japanese. He asked Colonel Lord to let him know about the prospects of additional shipping facilities from the United States. In any arrangement that might be made for internment of Japanese in the States, Peru would like to be sure that these Japanese would not be returned to Peru later on. The president's goal apparently is the substantial elimination of the Japanese colony in Peru.[51]

The actions by the Peruvian government were legal according to Peruvian law as the rights of "aliens" were reduced to none in the event of a security threat.[52] Such freedom and participation by the United States and other Latin American countries enabled Peru to send thousands of Japanese individuals to internment camps in the United States without public outcry or interference. After the Peruvian government sent Japanese internees to the United States, properties and businesses were seized and redistributed to either the government or to wealthy Peruvian citizens.[53] After the war, the Peruvian government refused re-admittance to those individuals in internment camps, including those of Peruvian citizenship, but eventually allowed approximately 100 of the 1,800 citizens to return.[54]

[50] Natsu Taylor Saito, "The Japanese Peruvian Internment," *Yale Human Rights and Developmental Law Journal* 1 (1998): 68, http://www.law.yale.edu/documents/pdf/LawJournals/Natsu_Taylor_Saito_YHRDLJ.pdf
[51] Alexis Frances Murono, "Peruvian Japanese Internment-My Family Story," Wake Forest University, last modified 2002, http://www.wfu.edu/history/StudentWork/AsiaPacificWar/asia-pacific-alexis/index.html.
52 Ibid.
53 Tyler Sipe, "Exposing Japanese-Peruvian WWII Internment Camps," *The World*, last modified February 19, 2010, http://pri.org/.
54 Leah Brumer, "Stealing Home," *East Bay Monthly*, November 1998, 25-27, 29, 45, http://www.densho.org/learning/spice/lesson4/4activity4-7handouts.PDF.

The impact of internment and racial discrimination upon the Japanese Peruvian community created long lasting effects that have and currently are influencing political and economic aspects of Peru, Japan, and the United States. Racial discrimination towards Japanese Peruvians continued after the war. Japanese Peruvians, both those who had been interned and those who had not, lived in fear of a revival of the sentiments that sparked the 1940 riots. Paradoxically, widespread racial opinions and actions existed towards Japanese Peruvians even though most citizens described them as "hardworking, honorable and trustworthy individuals."[55] In 1990, Alberto Fujimori was elected President, signifying the first time a Japanese politician was voted to lead a country other than Japan. His election, however, was not due to Japanese-Peruvian votes, as most feared backlash upon the community dependent on how his government fared and therefore voted for another candidate.[56] Despite support for the new president by most groups, random killings and assaults of Japanese Peruvians resulted from political unrest only months after President Fujimori's election.[57] The two groups often responsible for these acts were the guerilla bands the Shining Path and the Tupac Amaru Revolutionary Movement.[58] In 1996, the Tupac Amaru took 600 government and business officials hostage, 300 of whom were of Japanese descent. The protest was against the Japanese government's actions in Peruvian internal affairs and the recently elected President Fujimori. There was one hostage fatality which occurred during the military rescue ending the four-

[55] Nicholas Crowder, "Japanese-in Peru," *Latin American Links*, last modified 2004, accessed February 16, 2014, http://www.latinamericalinks.com/japanese_in_Peru.htm.
[56] Abraham Lama, "'Home' is where the heartbreak is for Japanese-Peruvians," *Asia Times*, October 16, 1999, accessed February 16, 2014, http://www.atimes.com/japan-econ/AJ16Dh01.html.
[57] Calvin Sims, "80,000 Uneasy People, All Prisoners of Peru Crisis," *New York Times*, Jan. 9, 1997, http://www.nytimes.com/1997/01/09/world/80000-uneasy-people-all-prisoners-of-peru-crisis.html.
[58] Ibid.

month crisis.[59] The political situation regarding Japanese Peruvians has remained stable in Peru, but the country contains traces of this prejudice.

Deportation of business leaders of the Japanese Peruvian community led to the demolition of a stable economy in a country plagued by recurrent recessions. The economic instability of the country still affects first and second generation internees. Narratives told by adults who as children experienced internment and Japan's immigration policies have proven that this impact has extended well beyond setbacks in wealth, but also into quality of life, and is likely to affect future descendants.

In 1987, a massive immigration of Japanese-Peruvians back to Japan began and continues to this day.[60] In 1990, Japan offered work visas to Latin American immigrants to fill its labor shortage. As a result, many chose to leave Peru due to poor economic situations but found even worse ones in Japan. Most immigrants, though of Japanese descent, are given the most dangerous and dirty jobs, receive a fraction of normal wages, experience strong discrimination as foreigners in Japanese society, are refused naturalization by the Japanese government, and have had their assets frozen to prevent the transmission of wages to families in Peru. These actions are similar to those placed on Japanese Peruvians in Peru prior to their mass deportation. Many are also under the control of the "yakuza," gangs that blackmail immigrants without work permits and steal their identification papers, making them dependent on the

[59] Diego Ortiz, "Japanese Embassy Hostage Crisis: 16 Years Later," *Peru This Week*, May 9, 2013, http://www.peruthisweek.com/blogs-japanese-embassy-hostage-crisis-16-years-later-60126.
[60] Japanese American National Museum, "Historical Timeline of Japanese Peruvians," accessed February 16, 2014, http://www.janm.org/projects/inrp/english/time_peru.htm.

yakuza's power to turn them in to the police.[61]

In the early 2000s, the Japanese economy began to experience a severe recession, and sentiments towards Latin American immigrants became strained. In 2009, the Japanese government began offering thousands of immigrant families monetary offers to fly home to Latin America in exchange for a promise "…never to seek to work in Japan again."[62] This policy came under serious criticism, and the government later changed the law to allow immigrants to return after three years.[63] Large numbers seized the opportunity to leave a hostile country and find better employment back in Latin America, but many who left poor economic situations know that a better one is unlikely.

The current economic struggle these immigrants face extends back to the pre-WWII era. In the 1930s, Peru experienced the Great Depression just as the United States did, potentially cultivating the idea of seizing wealthy Japanese Peruvian businesses and land. When the economy of Peru experienced a severe recession under President Fujimori, Japanese Peruvians were again under scrutiny, and many left the country due to high unemployment and offers of work from Japan. Five years ago, Japan experienced an economic dip, and Peruvian immigrants were pressured to leave in order to allow Japanese citizens to work and to solve high unemployment. When this policy was created, many labeled it as shortsighted, given that the Japanese population was rapidly aging, and the work force would again decline in a few years.

[61] Abraham Lama, "'Home' is where the heartbreak is for Japanese-Peruvians," *Asia Times*, October 16, 1999, http://www.atimes.com/japan-econ/AJ16Dh01.html. Web. (accessed February 16, 2014).
[62] Hiroko Tabuchi, "Japan Pays Foreign Workers To Go Home," *New York Times*, Apr. 22, 2009, http://www.nytimes.com/2009/04/23/business/global/23immigrant.html.
[63] Lara Vergnaud, "Israel mirrors Europe, Japan, pays migrants to leave," *Blouin News*, Nov. 28, 2013, http://blogs.blouinnews.com/blouinbeatworld/2013/11/28/israel-mirrors-europe-japan-pays-migrants-to-leave/.

In October 2013, the government lifted the bans regarding re-entry of immigrants of Japanese descent due to a declining population.[64]

When criticized for their immigrant pay-off policy, Japanese officials pointed to the United States. Their argument was the "extreme income inequalities between rich Americans and poor immigrants."[65] The United States had not instituted such a program, though several European countries such as the United Kingdom, Spain and France implemented them in the 1970 recession and again in 2008.[66] While the United States has not paid immigrants to leave, the disregard for immigrants, specifically Mexican and Latin American immigrants, is evidently similar to that in Japan. Thousands of Mexican and Latin American immigrants seek work in the United States, often without proper documentation, prompting many to argue that immigrants are taking jobs from American citizens in a time of economic recession. Additionally, many of the jobs these immigrants perform are deemed dangerous, messy and low paying. Japan's close comparison to the United States may be the logical result of the close alliance between the countries and their economic dependence upon each other, the result of post-World War II occupation and policies.[67]

The history of U.S.-Japanese-Peruvian relations is relevant today as it continues to impact thousands of lives, especially descendants of Japanese Peruvians who experienced racial riots and internment and still endure discrimination in Peru and Japan. The great economic

[64] Ibid.
[65] Hiroko Tabuchi, "Japan Pays Foreign Workers To Go Home," *New York Times*, Apr. 22, 2009, http://www.nytimes.com/2009/04/23/business/global/23immigrant.html.
[66] Lara Vergnaud, "Israel mirrors Europe, Japan, pays migrants to leave," *Blouin News*, Nov. 28, 2013, http://blogs.blouinnews.com/blouinbeatworld/2013/11/28/israel-mirrors-europe-japan-pays-migrants-to-leave/.
[67] Embassy of the United States in Japan, "U.S.-Japan Relations," last modified Sept. 17, 2009, accessed February 19, 2014,. http://aboutusa.japan.usembassy.gov/e/jusa-usj.html.

success once experienced by this group of people, within decades of entering Peru as impoverished farmers, was taken from them, never to be achieved in the same fashion. They were sent to the United States by Peru with the Peruvian government's intention that they never return, and they again, as a group, were sent from Japan under the forced promise to never return. Many Japanese Peruvian citizens and immigrants have found successful paths in the years that followed internment. Ginzo Murono's grand-daughter Alexis Murono attended Wake Forest University and created an online exhibit of the history of Japanese-Peruvian internment, her grandfather's experiences, and those who have again built successful businesses. Others have not been as lucky, such as Augusto Kage, who, now 78, dreamed of becoming a doctor but was forced out of school by the war and had to work to support his family following internment. Many other families have been stuck in mass economic immigrations between Peru and Japan.[68] The paranoid policy that resulted in deportation of thousands of individuals inflicted upon these people an enduring impact that is scarcely recognized and for which little compensation has been made. Such massive events do not end with the declaration of peace after war or the lessening of racial prejudice in a country, but rather have far reaching consequences demonstrated by the political and economic events addressed in the history of Japanese Latin American internment.

[68] Masaharu Nanami, "Japanese-Peruvians still angry over wartime internment in U.S. camps," *Japan Times*, Sept. 16, 2009, http://www.japantimes.co.jp/news/2009/09/16/national/japanese-peruvians-still-angry-over-wartime-internment-in-u-s-camps/#.UwUP5IXy0iJ.