

"Barbed Wire and Bars"

**WESTERN DEFENSE COMMAND AND FOURTH ARMY
WARTIME CIVIL CONTROL ADMINISTRATION**
Presidio of San Francisco, California
April 1, 1942

INSTRUCTIONS TO ALL PERSONS OF JAPANESE ANCESTRY

Living in the Following Area:

All that portion of the City and County of San Francisco, State of California, lying generally west of the north-south line established by Junipero Serra Boulevard, Worcester Avenue, and Nineteenth Avenue, and lying generally north of the east-west line established by California Street, to the intersection of Market Street, and thence on Market Street to San Francisco Bay.

All Japanese persons, both alien and non-alien, will be evacuated from the above designated area by 12:00 o'clock noon Tuesday, April 7, 1942.

No Japanese person will be permitted to enter or leave the above described area after 8:00 a. m., Thursday, April 2, 1942, without obtaining special permission from the Provost Marshal at the Civil Control Station located at:

1701 Van Ness Avenue
San Francisco, California

The Civil Control Station is equipped to assist the Japanese population affected by this evacuation in the following ways:

1. Give advice and instructions on the evacuation.
2. Provide services with respect to the management, leasing, sale, storage or other disposition of most kinds of property including: real estate, business and professional equipment, buildings, household goods, boats, automobiles, livestock, etc.
3. Provide temporary residence elsewhere for all Japanese in family groups.
4. Transport persons and a limited amount of clothing and equipment to their new residence, as specified below.

The Following Instructions Must Be Observed:

1. A responsible member of each family, preferably the head of the family, or the person in whose name most of the property is held, and each individual living alone, will report to the Civil Control Station to receive further instructions. This must be done between 8:00 a. m. and 5:00 p. m., Thursday, April 2, 1942, or between 8:00 a. m. and 5:00 p. m., Friday, April 3, 1942.

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“Barbed Wire and Bars”

On December 7, 1941 the Japanese bombed Pearl Harbor in a strategic move during World War II, which began the American involvement in the war. This sneak attack changed America’s way of thinking about the Japanese, and Japanese Americans were thought by the government to be suspect, capable of espionage or sabotage. In response to this suspicion Exclusion Order #34 and Executive Order #9066 were passed and the mass internment of Japanese Americans began. Their official internment lasted until early 1945, when the camps began to close down, but many families were forced to stay longer while they looked for work.

In the wake of the September 11th tragedy, the issue of internment has arisen again. On October 25th, 2001 President Bush signed a bill, known as the USA Patriot Act that will allow for greater wire-tapping and surveillance surrounding those accused of terrorist actions. This bill also has a stipulation lengthening the amount of time a foreign suspect can be detained without being charged of a crime.¹ This has the possibility of turning into a similar situation of mass internment, and there is a violation of rights in both cases.

I am going to explore the past events surrounding the internment of Japanese Americans including the process of internment, the lifestyle while in the camps, the constitutionality of this internment and the legal challenges this act faced as well as the reparations given to Japanese Americans. I will then compare these events and facts with the contemporary examples of the Patriot

Act and the holding of suspected terrorists in Guantanamo Bay, Cuba. I will conclude by assessing if any rights were violated in either situation and how.

Introduction to Internment:

The internment of Japanese Americans directly affected those living in California, Washington and Oregon, but the repercussions of this act were felt everywhere. Internees were first sent to one of sixteen “assembly centers” before they were then dispatched to one of ten “relocation centers” in California, Arizona, Utah, Idaho, Wyoming, Colorado or Arkansas.² The difference between these two types of centers is assembly centers were temporary establishments, for instance the Salinas fairground served as an assembly center while the relocation centers were designed to be housing for a long period of time. Japanese Americans had been taken from zones that had been designated Military Zones 1 and 2. Military Zone 1 was mainly the coastal region and Military Zone 2 included the eastern areas of the west states. Zone 2 had been considered a free zone until March 29, 1942.³ (See map page 23) Japanese who had moved from Zone 1 to Zone 2 were forced into internment. Eventually, over 110,000 Japanese Americans, two-thirds of whom were citizens were interned.⁴

¹ Terry Frieden, “Antiterrorism bill gives authorities new tools” October 26, 2001. <http://www.cnn.com/2001/US/10/26/rec.anti.terrorism.bill/index.html> (18 November 2001)

² Alice Yang Murray, What Did the Internment of Japanese Americans Mean? (Boston: Bedford/St. Martins, 2000), 9.

³ Ibid, 5.

⁴ Mamoru Inouye, The Heart Mountain Story (United States: Mamoru Inouye, 1997), 3.

Life within the camps:

Most internment camps were either in deserts or swamps.⁵ The facilities were not adequate for the amount of people forced to live in the cramped barracks. For example, the average family of six was forced to live in a space that was twenty by twenty-five feet, with separate communal bathrooms and mess decks. These units were supplied with only one cot per

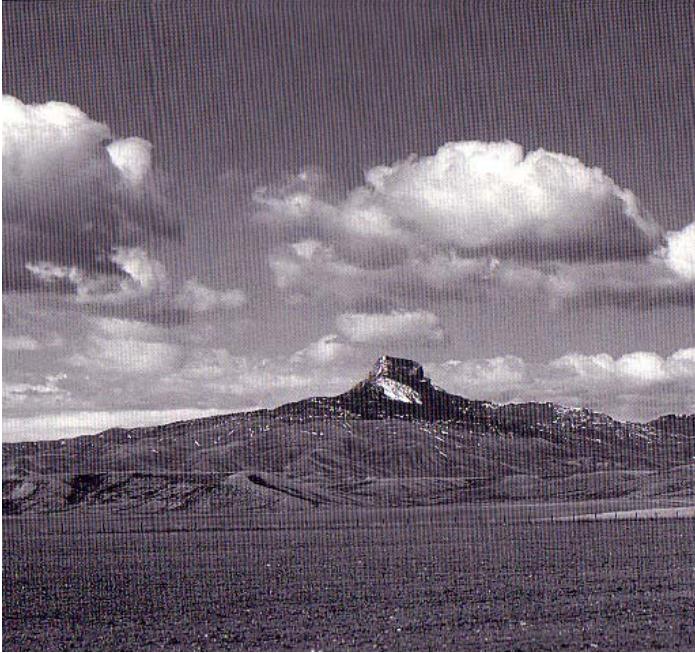


A typical room for a family of four. Photo by Hansel Mieth, from [The Heart Mountain Story](#)

family member, a coal stove and a light bulb.⁶ The two camps I will be focusing on most will be the camps at Heart Mountain and Manzanar.

⁵ Murray, [What did the internment of Japanese Americans mean?](#) 12.

⁶ Ibid, 12.



Hansel Mieth, The Heart Mountain Story. This picture is of Heart Mountain Wyoming, looking very similar as it did when the internees saw it, and as it does today. This majestic mountain was the backdrop and namesake of the Heart Mountain Relocation Center.

The Heart Mountain Relocation center was located between the towns of Cody and Powell, Wyoming.⁷ This area was mainly desert, and the internees were not prepared for the snow capped mountain that greeted them after their four day journey from Southern California. Since the internees were not told of their final destinations, and could only take what they could carry, they were not prepared for the cold harsh winter ahead. There were many hardships to internment aside from housing and weather. Most families were uprooted from their homes and businesses without any warning, and had very little contact with distant family. They did not have many options for their lives at this point.

⁷ Inouye, The Heart Mountain Story. 23.



Masumi Hayashi Photo collage, 1995. From the book Only What we could carry, edited by Lawson Inada. This picture is of a memorial at the Manzanar camp.

Manzanar was located near Lone Pine, California and was home to many internees during World War II. This camp is important because extensive creative works such as photographs and poetry have come from Manzanar as well as many oral histories. Yuri Tateishi talks about her time at Manzanar:

“When we got to Manzanar, it was getting dark and we were given numbers first. We went to the mess hall, and I remember the first meal we were given in those tin plates and tin cups. It was canned wieners and canned spinach. It was all the food we had, and then after finishing that we were taken to our barracks. The floors were boarded, but they were about a quarter to a half-inch apart, and the next morning you could see the ground below. What hurt most I think was seeing those hay mattresses. We were used to a regular home atmosphere, and seeing those hay mattresses – so makeshift, with hay sticking out – a barren room with nothing but those hay mattresses. It was depressing, such a primitive feeling. We were given army blankets and army cots. Our family was large enough that we didn’t have to share our barrack with another family but all seven of us were in one room.”⁸

⁸ Tateishi, John. And Justice For All. (University of Washington Press, Seattle: 1999) 24.

This experience is comparable to the average internment experience, the shock, the discomfort and the dehumanizing of being put in a camp with barracks. An anonymous author wrote the following poem:

THAT DAMNED FENCE

They've sunk the posts deep into the ground
They've strung out wires all the way around.
With machine gun nests just over there,
And sentries and soldiers everywhere.

We're trapped like rats in a wired cage,
To fret and fume with impotent rage;
Yonder whispers the lure of the night,
But that DAMNED FENCE assails our sight.

We seek the softness of the midnight air,
But that DAMNED FENCE in the floodlight glare
Awakens unrest in our nocturnal quest,
And mockingly laughs with vicious jest.

With nowhere to go and nothing to do,
We feel terrible, lonesome, and blue:
That DAMNED FENCE is driving us crazy,
Destroying our youth and making us lazy.

Imprisoned in here for a long, long time,
We know we're punished--though we've committed no crime,
Our thoughts are gloomy and enthusiasm damp,
To be locked up in a concentration camp.

Loyalty we know, and patriotism we feel,
To sacrifice our utmost was our ideal,
To fight for our country, and die, perhaps;
But we're here because we happen to be Japs.

We all love life, and our country best,
Our misfortune to be here in the west,
To keep us penned behind that DAMNED FENCE,
Is someone's notion of NATIONAL DEFENCE!

-Anonymous

There was a way "out" of internment, so to speak. In 1943, the War Relocation Authority Application for Leave Clearance asked two pertinent

questions: 27 and 28. Question 27 asked “Are you willing to serve in the Armed Forces of the United States on combat duty, wherever asked?” and question 28 addressed allegiance to the United States instead of Japan.⁹ If you were male and answered yes to these questions, you could leave the camp to fight for your country.

This question became a struggle for most families. The first generation Japanese Americans, or Issei, did not want their children fighting against Japan, a country that they still felt connected to. For the young boys who answered yes, this was a pledge to their new country, America. Those who said no were often seen as traitors by their peers and were scorned in the years after the war. More than 5,000 said no, but not without much consideration. Jeanne Wakatsuki in *Farewell to Manzanar* explains,

“From the beginning Papa knew his own answer would be YES YES. He agreed with Woody on this much, even though it meant swearing allegiance to the government that had sent him to Fort Lincoln and denying his connections with the one country in the world where he might still have the rights of a citizen. The alternative was worse. If he said NO NO, he could be sent to Tule Lake camp in northern California where all the “disloyal” were to be assembled for what most people believed would be eventual reparation to Japan.”¹⁰

While some chose to swear allegiance to the U.S. and most reported to the assembly centers when called to, there are four Japanese Americans who stand out in history because they resisted internment. They brought their cases all the way to the Supreme Court alleging several different grievances. In order to understand the significance of these cases, a general appreciation of the legality of internment is necessary.

⁹ Jeanne Wakatsuki Houston, *Farewell to Manzanar* (San Francisco: Bantam Books, 1995), 81

Constitutionality and legality of internment:

On February 19, 1942 the President issued Executive Order 9066. This order required that the nation take “every possible protection against espionage and against sabotage to national-defense material, national-defense premises, and national-defense utilities as defined in Section 4, Act of April 20, 1918, as amended by the Act of November 30, 1940, and the Act of August 21, 1941.” This order basically authorized the President to establish and direct the Secretary of War and the military commanders as necessary. This also allowed these military commanders to establish all military areas necessary to avoid espionage and sabotage.¹¹

Lt. General J. L. DeWitt became Military Commander of the Western Defense Command on February 20, 1942. On March 2, 1942 DeWitt issued Public Proclamation No. 1, which designated the entire Pacific Coast particularly susceptible to acts of espionage and sabotage by the Japanese. This proclamation established Military Zones 1 and 2, and allowed for people to be excluded from these areas as was necessary.¹²

Public Proclamation No. 2 was issued on March 16, 1942 and contained necessary provisions for excluding certain people from these military zones. Two days later on March 18, 1942 the President issued Executive Order 9102 which established the War Relocation Authority whose duties included the removal and relocation of those persons already referred to in Executive Order 9066.

¹⁰ Houston, *Farewell to Manzanar* 86.

¹¹ *Hirabayashi v. United States*, 320 U.S. 81 (1943)

¹² *Ibid.*

The Act of March 21, 1942 was passed by congress and prescribed “That whoever shall enter, remain in, leave, or commit any act in any military area or military zone prescribed, under the authority of an Executive order of the President, by the Secretary of War, or by any military commander designated by the Secretary of War, contrary to the restrictions applicable to any such area or zone or contrary to the order of the Secretary of War or any such military commander, shall, if it appears that he knows or should have known of the existence and extent of the restrictions or order and that his act was in violation thereof, be guilty of a misdemeanor...” This act basically made disobeying rules regarding Military zones 1 or 2 to be a crime. This act would later play an important role in the decisions made by the Supreme Court.

On March 24, 1942 DeWitt issued Public Proclamation No. 3, which required all persons of Japanese descent living in military zone 1 to be in their homes after 8:00 pm and remain there until 6:00 am. It required similar of all alien Germans and Italians. Also after this date, DeWitt issued several Civilian Exclusion Orders, the most relevant being No. 57. It stated that after 12:00 noon all Japanese would be excluded from a portion of zone 1 and required a member of each family or each single person to report to a designated Civil Control Station on May 11 or 12.¹³ This also went along with Public Proclamation No. 4 which provided for the evacuation and resettlement of Japanese within the military zones.

¹³ Ibid.

Executive Order 34 came after Executive Order 9066 and excluded all Japanese Americans from the aforementioned military areas. This order would come to play in several Supreme Court cases.

The court cases that challenged the constitutionality of internment called upon Articles 1 and 2 of the constitution as well as the 5th and 14th amendments. The relevance of Article 1 section 8 deals with the war powers provided to congress. Article 2 section 2 deals with the role of the President as Commander in Chief of the Army and Navy. The 5th amendment deals with the right to due process and the 14th deals with citizenship.¹⁴

Supreme Court Cases:

Hirabayashi v. United States, 320 U.S. 81 (1943)

The first case to reach the Supreme Court challenging internment was Hirabayashi v. United States in 1943. Gordon Hirabayashi lived in Seattle, Washington at the time that this area was established as a military area. He was convicted of two separate charges by the District Court and was sent to the Supreme Court by the Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals. These counts included not reporting to the Civil Control Station on May 11th or 12th as required by Exclusion Order No. 57 and Public Proclamation No. 4. The second count was that Hirabayashi violated the 8:00 pm to 6:00 am curfew required by Public Proclamation No. 3. Hirabayashi was sentenced to two three-month concurrent sentences. The Supreme Court decided that if there was enough evidence that

¹⁴ Peter Irons, A People's History of the Supreme Court. (New York: Penguin Books, 2000) 487-496.

Hirabayashi violated the curfew order, there would not be a reason to prove that he violated the first count and therefore focused solely on the curfew issue.

The Supreme Court found the curfew imposed on “all alien Japanese, all alien Germans, all alien Italian and all persons of Japanese ancestry residing...”¹⁵ was constitutional based on military necessity. To quote Justice Stone “Congress and the executive arm of the Government to prescribe this curfew order for the period under consideration and that its promulgation by the military commander involved no unlawful delegation of legislative power.”¹⁶ Justice Stone continued by asserting “The war power of the national government is the power to wage war successfully. It extends to every matter and activity so related to war as substantially to affect its conduct and progress.... It embraces every phase of the national defense, including the protection of war materials and members of the armed forces...Since the Constitution commits to the Executive and to Congress the exercise of the war power...it has necessarily given them wide scope for the exercise of judgment and discretion in determining the nature and extent...”¹⁷ Justice Stone used this language to justify the actions of congress, designating these actions were in accordance with the war powers given to congress in the 1st article of the Constitution.

Hirabayashi then contested the curfew placed on citizens on the basis of their race. He claimed the Fifth Amendment guarantees him equal protection. However the language of the Fifth Amendment only guarantees due process, not equal protection. Discrimination based on race has been seen as a denial of

¹⁵ Hirabayashi.

¹⁶ Ibid.

equal protection, but considering the risks for espionage and sabotage, the Supreme Court decided that “a group of one national extraction may menace that safety more than others... not wholly beyond the limits of the Constitution and is not to be condemned merely because in other and in most circumstances racial distinctions are irrelevant.”¹⁸ The Court decided that the race-based curfew was constitutional under the war powers.

The appellant was sentenced to his two concurrent sentences as required by the District Court. Justices Douglas, Murphy, and Rutledge wrote concurring opinions. This case was used as a benchmark for several other cases to follow.

Yasui v. United States, 320 U.S. 115

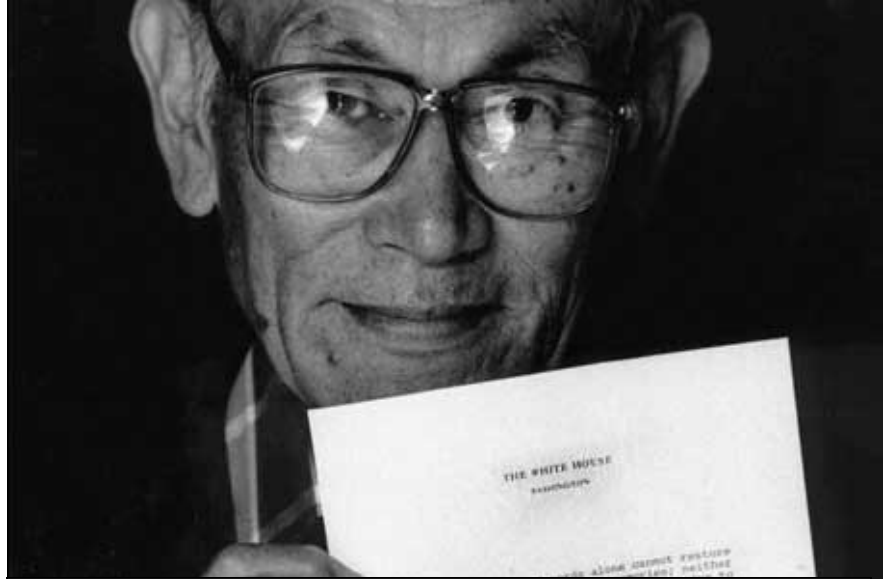
This case is directly related to the Hirabayashi case, and the majority opinion was written by Justice Stone. This case came from the Ninth Circuit Court of Appeals and reached the Supreme Court on May 11, 1943. The appellant was an American-born person of Japanese descent and spent a summer in Japan, worked for the Japanese Consulate but also was a second lieutenant in the Infantry Reserve unit of the United States Army. The appellant violated the curfew order intentionally and asked to be arrested so he could contest the constitutionality of the order. He violated the curfew order on March 28, 1942. This is a very similar matter as the Hirabayashi case.

The district court deemed the Act of March 21, 1942 unconstitutional as it applied to American citizens. This court also decided that the appellant, by his

¹⁷ Ibid.

¹⁸ Ibid.

actions, had renounced his American citizenship.¹⁹ The Supreme Court decided that the appellant's citizenship was not at issue and that he indeed was an American citizen. Following their decision in the Hirabayashi case, the court also held that the curfew order was



Fred Korematsu, with an apology letter from the White House.
www.pbs.org/pov/ofcivilwrongsandrights/images/bigpic.jpg

constitutional.²⁰ The case was sent back to the district court so that the appellant may receive sentencing based on the fact that he is an American citizen and that he did violate the curfew order placed upon him by DeWitt, acting as Military Commander.

Korematsu v. United States, 323 U.S. 214 (1944)

Fred Korematsu was a citizen of the United States and resided in San Leandro, California. His hometown was designated as part of a military area based on Civilian Exclusion Order No. 34. This exclusion order required Korematsu to leave his home and report to an assembly center. Korematsu “knowingly and admittedly violated” this order.²¹ The appellant was contesting the constitutionality of the exclusion order. The appellant was also claiming that on May 30, 1942 when he violated the order that there were, indeed, conflicting

¹⁹ Yasui v. United States, 320 U.S. 115 (1943)

²⁰ Ibid.

orders governing his behavior. The court found that the first order was issued March 27, 1942 prohibited Japanese Americans from leaving the area. This order was overruled on May 3, 1942 when an order required the removal of all Japanese Americans from the area. These orders were not conflicting as the second cancelled the first. The appellant claimed that he disobeyed the order to assemble because he felt that by assembling, he would also be relocated. The court cannot say that assembly necessarily means relocation.²²

The court took on solely the issue of the exclusion order, which the appellant violated. The court found this exclusion to be constitutional because “He was excluded because we are at war with the Japanese Empire, because the properly constituted military authorities feared an invasion of our West Coast and felt constrained to take proper security measures, because they decided that the military urgency of the situation demanded that all citizens of Japanese ancestry be segregated from the West Coast temporarily...”²³ The court found that this exclusion, while based on race, was acceptable because of the war with Japan, and that congress did have the right to pass this order based on their war powers.

Justice Black wrote the majority opinion with concurring opinions written by Justice Frankfurter. Justice Black quotes from the Hirabayashi case in his opinion when he states

“... We cannot reject as unfounded the judgment of military authorities and of Congress that there were disloyal members of that population, whose number and strength could not be precisely and quickly

²¹ Korematsu v. United States, 323 U.S. 214 (1944)

²² Ibid.

²³ Ibid.

ascertained. We cannot say that the war-making branches of the Government did not have ground for believing that in a critical hour such persons could not readily be isolated and separately dealt with, and constituted a menace to the national defense and safety, which demanded that prompt and adequate measures to be taken to guard against it.”²⁴

Dissents were written by Justices Roberts, Murphy and Jackson. These dissents focused on the constitutionality of internment based on race, the first real questioning of this issue. To quote Justice Roberts “I dissent, because I think the indisputable facts exhibit a clear violation of Constitutional rights.”²⁵ This was the first time that a Justice refuted the majority opinion regarding this constitutionality. This case began to change the ideas regarding the internment of Japanese Americans. Justice Roberts quoted several other reasons why Korematsu should not be charged, but this issue of constitutionality is the most relevant.

Reparations:

After his extensive inquiry into the constitutionality of internment, noted scholar Peter Irons decided to approach Hirabayashi, Yasui and Korematsu. These men banded with a team of lawyers and submitted a 150-page petition urging the judges to “do justice where it was denied forty years ago.”²⁶ This petition spurred *Korematsu v. United States*, 1984. Irons filed a writ of *coram nobis*, which is an appropriate way for the court to correct errors in criminal convictions when no other remedy is available.²⁷ As a result of this case, all

²⁴ Justice Black *Korematsu v. United States* 1944

²⁵ *Ibid.*

²⁶ *Ibid*, 363.

²⁷ *Korematsu v. United States*, 584 F. Supp. 1406 (1984)

three men had their earlier crimes erased. This led to later reparations to all survivors of the internment camps.

When George Bush signed Public Law 101-162 in 1989 guaranteeing restitution and an apology for those survivors of internment, it can be assumed that the United States government realized that a great injustice had been done. This law specifically provided \$20,000 per survivor of internment, but more importantly it provided an apology. "A monetary sum and words alone cannot restore lost years or erase painful memories; neither can they fully convey our Nation's resolve to rectify injustice and to uphold the rights of individuals. We can never fully right the wrongs of the past. But we can take a clear stand for justice and recognize that serious injustices were done to Japanese Americans during World War II. In enacting a law calling for restitution and offering a sincere apology, your fellow Americans have in a very real sense, renewed their traditional commitment to the ideals of freedom, equality, and justice. You and your family have our best wishes for the future."²⁸

The internment of Japanese Americans is one of the most notorious events in American history. It begs the question, "Is America capable of repeating this sort of mass internment?" While the legislation recently passed by Bush only deals with detaining foreigners suspected of terrorism, the potential for further legislation exists.²⁹ The question as to whether or not mass internment could be an option used by the government is still a little unclear. It cannot be

²⁸ Lawson Fusao Inada, Only What We Could Carry. (Berkeley: Heyday Books 2000) 412.

²⁹ Frieden.

ruled out at this point, but if it was an option, there would be similar constitutional issues like those surrounding the internment of Japanese Americans.

A Contemporary Connection:

The tragedy of September 11, 2001 changed America's perception of terrorism. Without a doubt, our country is more aware of its vulnerabilities and has already taken action to protect itself. The passing of the Patriot Act and the holding of suspects in Guantanamo Bay without a trial are two examples of these actions.

The Patriot Act was signed into law October 25th, 2001 (USA Patriot Act, Public Law 107-56) and while the alleged goal of this law is to protect Americans, there are mixed opinions as to how the law will affect us as it takes away our privacy, allows for greater power of law enforcement officials and challenges the fourth amendment.³⁰

Proponents of this act claim that these measures will provide more homeland security and protect Americans from acts of terrorism. The bill itself even claims "The acts of violence that have been taken against Arab and Muslim Americans since the September 11, 2001 attacks against the United States should be and are condemned by all Americans who value freedom."³¹ However, many "suspected terrorists" have fallen prey to the broad implications contained in the act.

For example, Ayazuddin Sheerazi was in the U.S. legally working and helping family members with their children. A phony tip was given to the

³⁰ American Lawyer Media, National Law Journal Vol. 24, No. 20, Pg B11

authorities connecting Sheerazi with an anthrax scare, causing Sheerazi to be detained for eighteen days without being charged or convicted of a crime. He has since returned to India, and the question that follows is: Are we better off being protected from supposed terrorists like Sheerazi who have really committed no crime?³² I am not claiming that all suspected terrorists will be found innocent as Sheerazi was, but is the situation happening in Guantanamo Bay, Cuba really worth the potential abuse of our constitutional rights?

According to resources contemporary at time of publishing, there are 300 detainees being held at Camp X-Ray, the detention camp in Guantanamo Bay.³³ These detainees are suspected Taliban or al Qaeda members. They are being held against their will, without formal charges filed by the American government.

The fifth and fourteenth amendments, as mentioned earlier, are directly under fire with the passing of the Patriot Act and the actions in Guantanamo. Who exactly is covered by the Fifth Amendment and when can these rights be violated?

There is an apparent contradiction between the statements made by President George W. Bush and General John Ashcroft and the actions that are taking place in Guantanamo. While Ashcroft made the remark “We must not descend to the level of those who perpetrated Tuesday’s violence by targeting individuals based on their race, their religion, or their national origin. Such reports of violence and threats are in direct opposition to the very principles and

³¹ H.R. 3162 USA Patriot Act

http://www.eff.org/Privacy/Surveillance/Terrorism_militias/20011025_hr3162_usa_patriot_bill.html

³² Thibault, Andy. Connecticut Law Tribune, American Lawyer Media. Vol. 28, No. 4, Pg 24.

laws of the United States and will not be tolerated” the actions of the government do not seem to match these remarks.

The tragedy of September 11th was a shock to many people and was an act of terrorism, as was the attack on Pearl Harbor on December 7th, 1941. Mass internment and wartime hysteria ensued after the attack on Pearl Harbor and America is dangerously close to a similar hysteria now in the wake of September 11th. What must be noted is that the rights of individual citizens were violated during World War II and we must not allow these rights to be violated now. The holding of detainees in Guantanamo Bay and the Patriot Act come very close to violating these rights and easily have the potential to fully violate not only the rights of “alleged” terrorists but also the rights of all Americans. The government is claiming power under “war powers” and the pursuit of “homeland security” and while these goals are amiable, we must take care to defend our individual rights as we defend our great nation.

³³ Franken, Bob. New detainee arrives at Guantanamo Bay. April 21, 2002.
<http://www.cnn.com/2002/WORLD/americas/04/21/ret.guantanamo.detainee/index.html>

Appendix

Map



INTERNMENT CAMP LOCATIONS

○ **ASSEMBLY CENTERS**

- Puyallup, Wash.
- Portland, Ore.
- Marysville, Calif.
- Sacramento, Calif.
- Tanforan, Calif.
- Stockton, Calif.
- Turlock, Calif.
- Merced, Calif.
- Pinedale, Calif.
- Salinas, Calif.
- Fresno, Calif.
- Tulare, Calif.
- Santa Anita, Calif.
- Pomona, Calif.
- Mayer, Ariz.

■ **RELOCATION CENTERS**

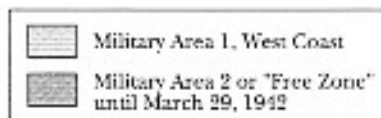
- Manzanar, Calif.
- Tule Lake, Calif.
- Poston, Ariz.
- Gila, Ariz.
- Minidoka, Ida.
- Heart Mountain, Wyo.
- Granada, Colo.
- Topaz, Utah
- Rohwer, Ark.
- Jerome, Ark.

● **JUSTICE DEPARTMENT
INTERNMENT CAMPS**

- Santa Fe, N. Mex.
- Bismarck, N. Dak.
- Crystal City, Tex.
- Missoula, Mont.

△ **CITIZEN ISOLATION CAMPS**

- Moab, Utah
- Leupp, Ariz.



Timeline:

December 7, 1941- Japanese bombed Pearl Harbor.

February 19, 1942- Executive Order #9066

February 20, 1942- DeWitt becomes commander

March 2, 1942- Public Proclamation #1

March 16, 1942- Public Proclamation #2

March 21, 1942- Act of March 21st

March 24, 1942- Public Proclamation #3, Civil Exclusion Order 57

March 25, 1942- Manzanar opens, the first of the permanent camps.

May 9, 1942- Exclusion Order 34

1943- Hirabayashi v. United States

1943- Yasui V. United States

1944- Korematsu v. United States

May 1945- Assembly Centers and Relocation Centers begin to close

1984- Korematsu v. United States

1989- Public Law 101-162

September 11, 2001- Twin Towers Tragedy

October 25, 2001- USA Patriot Act

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Murray, Alice Yang. What Did the Internment of Japanese Americans Mean? (Boston: Bedford/St. Martins, 2000)

Tateishi, John. And Justice For All. (University of Washington Press, Seattle: 1999)

Yasui v. United States, 320 U.S. 115 (1943)

Section 1:

Working title: “Japanese American Internment” or “The Yellow Peril That Wasn’t”

Advisor: Paul Mason Fotsch

Topic:

I will be looking at the Japanese American Internment that occurred during World War II in the Western United States. I will be focusing mainly on those who were interned either as children or adults, and their immediate families and communities. As a white woman, I will also be looking at how my standpoint would have affected this if I had been alive at the time. I am curious as to how the white dominant culture played a role in the internment, as it was obviously a huge role. I hope to focus on three or four central areas including but not limited to the role white Americans played, the legality and constitutionality of internment, the various acts signed by key players that made this internment possible, the reparations made to Japanese Americans, and the possibility of internment in response to the September 11th tragedy.

Section 2:

Major Learning Outcomes and Criteria:

MLO 2 will obviously be an important tool in my capstone as research will be the main focus. I doubt that I will be able to do many interviews with survivors based on my standpoint as a white American and based on the time period the internment occurred in. Hopefully I will be able to, but the bulk of my project will be researching past events.

Which then brings me to MLO 7, Historical Analysis. As I am researching an event that has already occurred, I will be using Historical Analysis. This MLO is providing me with the tools I need to look at this multicultural historical event and evaluate its significance on my culture as well as the Japanese American culture.

To fulfill MLOs 2 and 7 I took HCOM 356: Multicultural Histories in the New Media Classroom with Professor Cecilia O'Leary and this class has given me a good understanding of the skills mentioned, and a chance to practice them with this particular topic. I will be using a project completed in this class as the background information for my capstone project. This project also contained a multimedia portion, which I will also be building from for my capstone presentation.

Finally, MLO 3 will play an important role in my understanding of the Japanese American culture. I will use the tools learned in this MLO to empathetically and critically read and listen to those of Japanese American descent while understanding the power relations and their affects. This MLO will ensure my project to be culturally sensitive as well as deeply reflective of the difficulties within intercultural communication.

I will also be relying heavily on the concentration classes I have taken to help me understand the legal research involved in this sort of project. I will specifically be using HCOM 357: Constitutional Law and Professor Paul Sanford for this portion.

Section 3:

Research Questions:

1. What are the legal and constitutional elements behind the internment of Japanese Americans?
2. How has this internment affected the contemporary Japanese American culture?
3. Is internment a consideration in response to the September 11th tragedy?
4. How do the conditions faced by the Japanese Americans in 1942-45 compare to the conditions facing “unlawful combatants” being held presently in Guantanamo Bay?
5. What can we, as a white dominated society learn from this internment? What can those who are marginalized learn? Can this be a source of power for those who are oppressed?
6. Who brought cases to the Supreme Court regarding this issue and what was the final outcome?
7. Who defines national security? What effects does this definition have on U.S. citizens?
8. How do the espionage and sabotage acts fit in to national security, the constitution, internment, war powers, and the first amendment?
9. What reparations were given to Japanese Americans? By who? On what grounds?
10. How has the opinion of the court changed towards national security, espionage and sabotage, war powers, and the first amendment?

Section 4:

Working Bibliography:

Primary Sources:

Terry Frieden, "Antiterrorism bill gives authorities new tools" October 26, 2001.

<http://www.cnn.com/2001/US/10/26/rec.anti.terrorism.bill/index.html> (18

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Masumi Hayashi Photo collage, 1995. From the book Only What we could carry, edited by Lawson Inada. This picture is of a memorial at the Manzanar camp.

Mamoru Inouye, The Heart Mountain Story (United States: Mamoru Inouye, 1997),

Jeanne Wakatsuki Houston, Farewell to Manzanar (San Francisco: Bantam Books, 1995),

Korematsu v. United States 1944

Secondary Sources:

Alice Yang Murray, What Did the Internment of Japanese Americans Mean?

(Boston: Bedford/St. Martins, 2000)

CJohnYu.96@alum.mit.edu. The Japanese American Internment.

<http://www.oz.net/~cyu/internment/main.html>

Section 5:

Research Plan:

Eddy Hogan and I met on Tuesday February 12, 2001 to discuss my research plan. I will be using the schools full text databases Ebsco and Expanded Academic. I will also be using the Indexes for political science,

cultural science, history and American history. Eddy also directed me to the library at CSU Sacramento as they have any extensive collection of works on my topic. I will also be going to the Japanese American National Museum this weekend for their event remember the signing of Executive Order 9066. I hope to gain a better perspective of the internment from this event. Lastly I will be doing general searches on the Internet both with my own search engines and a few specific ones that Eddy recommended.

I don't need too much more information, and my research now will be used to round out my topic and fill in any holes.

Section 6:

Form of Capstone Project:

I see this project as a research paper with a multimedia aspect, probably using PowerPoint, Sound Forge or possibly Premier. I will of course have the required written section for analysis and research. I will also hopefully be combining oral histories.