



COUNTRY PROFILE

Peru

What gives value to travel is fear. It is the fact that, at a certain moment, when we are so far from our own country...we are seized by a vague fear, and an instinctive desire to go back to the protection of old habits.

This is the most obvious benefit of travel. At that moment we are feverish but also porous, so that the slightest touch makes us quiver to the depths of our being. We come across a cascade of light, and there is eternity. This is why we should not say that we travel for pleasure. There is no pleasure in traveling, and I look upon it more as an occasion for spiritual testing.

If we understand by culture the exercise of our most intimate sense—that of eternity—then we travel for culture. Pleasure takes us away from ourselves in the same way as distraction, in Pascal's use of the word, takes us away from God. Travel, which is like a greater and graver science, brings us back to ourselves.

Albert Camus, *Notebooks 1935-1942*

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MAPS

Source: UN Cartographic Section, <http://www.un.org/Depts/Cartographic/english/htmain.htm> (reprinted with permission).



Map No. 3838 Rev. 3 UNITED NATIONS
May 2004

Department of Peacekeeping Operations
Cartographic Section



COUNTRY PROFILE

Source: "Peru," *CIA World Factbook*, <http://www.cia.gov/cia/publications/factbook/geos/pe.html>



Official Name: Republica de Peru	Capital: Lima
Government: Constitutional Republic	Population: 29,546,963 (July 2009 est.)
Current Head of State: President Alan García, as of 28 July 2006	Currency: Nuevo Sol
Major Political Parties: Alliance For Progress (AP), Alliance For The Future (AF), Centrist Front (FC), Independent Moralizing Front (FIM), Nationalist Party Uniting Peru (UPP), National Restoration (RN), National Unity (UN), Peru Possible (PP), Peruvian Aprista Party (PAP)	Political Pressure Groups: leftist guerrilla groups include Shining Path and Tupac Amaru Revolutionary Movement (MRTA)
Languages: Spanish (official), Quechua (official), Aymara and a large number of minor Amazonian languages	Ethnic Groups: 45% indigenous; 37% <i>mestizo</i> ; 15% white; 3% Afro-Peruvian and other (Japanese and Chinese).
Religions: Roman Catholic 81%, Seventh Day Adventist 1.4%, other Christian 0.7%, other 0.6%, unspecified or none 16.3% (2003 est.)	Size: 1.28 million sq km, slightly smaller than Alaska
Terrain: western coastal plain (costa), high and rugged Andes in center (sierra), eastern lowland jungle of Amazon Basin (selva)	Climate: varies from tropical in east to dry desert in west; temperate to frigid in Andes
Natural Resources: copper, silver, gold, petroleum, timber, fish, iron ore, coal, phosphate, potash, hydropower, natural gas	Agricultural Products: coffee, cotton, sugarcane, rice, potatoes, corn, plantains, grapes, oranges, coca; poultry, beef, dairy products, fish

GETTING TO KNOW PERU: Historical Overview

Sources: Adapted from *The World Guide Tenth Edition*. CD ROM. New Internationalist Publications Ltd. 2005. Reprinted with Permission. "Country Profile: Peru," *BBC News*. http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/americas/country_profiles/1224690.stm, Vivanco, José Miguel. "Letter to President-elect Alan García." 26 June 2006. <http://www.hrw.org/en/news/2006/07/26/letter-president-elect-alan-garc>, "Peru: Special Prosecutor Faces Dismissal." *Human Rights Watch*, 5 May 2005. <http://www.hrw.org/en/news/2005/05/05/Peru-special-prosecutor-faces-dismissal>, "Profile: Alan García." *BBC News*, 5 June 2006. <http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/americas/5047896.stm>, "Peru: NGO Bill Threatens Human Rights." *Human Rights Watch*, 9 November 2006. <http://www.hrw.org/en/news/2006/11/09/Peru-ngo-bill-threatens-human-rights>

The rich history of modern-day Peru dates back some 15,000 years, according to evidence found in caves near Ayacucho. The Chavin civilization, which reached its peak between 1400 and 200 BCE, excelled at urban planning. The Paraca (700 to 100 BCE) were skilled anatomists and embalmers. The Mochica built adobe temples in the Mocha valley, and it is thought that their direct descendants were the Chimú (1000 to 1400 CE), who were great metalworkers. The Nazca culture (200 BCE to 800 CE) developed agriculture with large-scale irrigation systems and built enormous calendars that are still discernible from the air.

The 12th century marked the zenith of the Incan Empire, which politically united the various cultures and languages of the region—and in the process, displaced many people throughout the empire and imposed Quechua as a common language. The founders of the Inca dynasty, Manco Capac and Mama Ocllo, settled in Cuzco, which later became the capital of the empire. In the 14th century, during the reign of the fourth emperor (or Inca), Mayta Capac, the Incas began to attack neighboring populations.

During the reign of Topa Inca Yupanqui (1471-1493), the Inca extended their power southward toward what is now central Chile. Upon Topa Inca's death, a war of succession broke out, which Huayna Capac (1493-1525) ultimately won. He extended the northern frontier up to the river Ancasmayo (the current frontier between Ecuador and Colombia) before dying of an unidentified European disease. At that point, Tahuantisuyu, as the Incan Empire was known, governed around 13 million people.

Huayna Capac's death caused another war of succession between Huascar, governor in Cuzco, and his younger brother Atahualpa, a son of Huayna

Capac and a Shiri princess, who ruled the northern part of the empire from Quito. In 1532, just as the scales were tipped in favor of Atahualpa, a group of 180 Spanish *conquistadors*, led by Francisco Pizarro and Diego de Almagro, disembarked in Tumbes. The Spanish killed those loyal to Atahualpa and, identifying him as the legitimate governor of the empire, met with him in Cajamarca, kidnapped him and demanded a large ransom in silver and gold.

While imprisoned, Atahualpa had Huascar killed, before he himself was strangled in 1533, leaving the empire paralyzed. The Spanish reached Cuzco, where they installed Topa Hualpa as emperor, with the intention of controlling the empire through his puppet leadership. Topa Hualpa, however, was an ally of Huascar, and so the Europeans had committed themselves to a faction they had not intended to support—having initially elevated Atahualpa, they were now casting their lot with his political opponents.

The days of the Tahuantisuyu (the Inca Empire) were numbered from the moment that Pizarro founded Lima in 1535 as the center of Spanish power on the coast. Spanish administration radically changed Peruvian life: the property and land-use rules were altered; the established patterns of the old society were broken up by payment of tributes and forced labor; and the old gods were officially replaced with Catholicism, although cults of minor deities did not disappear. Indeed, regions and cities of the old empire located beyond the reach of the Spanish Crown survived for centuries. The most notable example of this was the fortress of Machu Picchu, 80 kilometers north-east of Cuzco, which was only re-discovered in 1911 by Hiram Bingham, a Yale University professor.

Because of ongoing conflicts among Spanish *conquistadores*, the Spanish Crown failed to fully establish its authority for decades. Almagro, disillusioned by his failure to conquer lands in Chile, besieged Cuzco until he was defeated and executed in 1538. His allies conspired with his son and attacked Pizarro's palace. Pizarro was assassinated in 1541. The Spanish Crown refused to recognize the young Almagro, who was captured and executed in 1542. That same year, other *conquistadores*, led by Gonzalo Pizarro, Francisco's brother, rebelled against new laws established by the Spanish King. The laws, which intended to impede feudalism, represented a threat to the accumulated wealth and power of the *conquistadores* in the New World. Their rebellion was temporarily successful and ensured independence from the Crown until 1544, when Gonzalo Pizarro was defeated and executed.

Only after the appointment of Viceroy Francisco de Toledo in 1569 did Spain consolidate its dominion in the region. The American institutions were adapted to Spanish authority, and for a long time, the chiefs of the various Andean nations catered to Spanish interests, collecting tributes and providing indigenous workforce for the mines. When the son of Manco Capac, Tupac Amaru, led the indigenous rural population in an uprising, the Crown had him captured and executed in 1571.

After Toledo's administration was over, the Viceroyalty in Peru assumed power, which it maintained until the 18th century, over all of South America except Venezuela and Brazil. The discovery of silver in Potosí in 1545 was followed by discoveries in Huancavelica in 1563. With the exception of gold in New Granada (Colombia), mineral production was concentrated in Peru itself, and in Upper Peru (later Bolivia). The Spanish Crown focused on these areas of concentrated wealth, which became the most developed and richest parts of the continent, and neglected the infrastructure and well-being of the rest.

During the 16th and 17th centuries, Lima was the center of power and wealth for all of Spanish-controlled South America. Based on the labor of the

indigenous workforce, the Court of Lima—where the King's justice was meted out—attracted the rich, religious orders, intellectuals and artists. It was in Lima that the tribunals of the Inquisition worked most avidly and cruelly.

With the advent of the Bourbon dynasty in 1700, replacing the Hapsburgs as rulers of Spain, measures were taken to promote the development of the colonies and to achieve better governance of the continent. The subsequent creation of the Viceroyalty of New Granada meant that the Viceroyalty of Peru lost control over the port of Quito, as well as the territory constituting modern day Colombia. The creation of the Viceroyalty of the River Plate in 1777 also removed control over Upper Peru and what are today Argentina, Paraguay and Uruguay. Chile, meanwhile, became an independent Captainty of the Viceroy of Peru.

Reforms to the mercantile system, allowing the Pacific and Atlantic ports to trade directly with Spain, weakened the position of the Viceroyalty even further. In 1780, the *cacique* (indigenous leader) José Gabriel Condorcanqui had a *corregidor* (chief magistrate) arrested on charges of cruelty. He led a general uprising of indigenous people against the authority of the Viceroyalty in 1780 under the name of Tupac Amaru II, even gaining the support of some *criollos* (descendants of the Spanish). The rebellion, which spread to Bolivia and Argentina, lost support when it turned into a violent battle between the indigenous people and the colonizers. Tupac II was captured in 1781 and taken to Cuzco where, after being forced to witness the execution of his wife and children, he was quartered and beheaded. The revolution continued, however, until the Spanish government approved a general pardon for the remaining insurgents.

The concentration of the Crown's military power in Lima, the conservative attitude of the local oligarchy and the effective suppression of the indigenous uprisings meant that Peru remained loyal to Spain when the other Spanish colonies on the continent began the fight for independence between 1810 and 1821. The forces that finally expelled the Spanish

came from beyond Peruvian borders. General José de San Martín freed Chile in 1818 and used it as a base to attack Peru by sea; he hoped to secure Buenos Aires' control over the mines of Upper Peru and gain independence for the Argentine provinces. Toward the end of 1820, he occupied the port of Pisco and the Viceroy withdrew his troops to the interior of the country. On 28 July 1821, San Martín entered Lima and declared independence.

San Martín asked for the help of Venezuela's Simón Bolívar to attack the large Spanish contingents in the interior of Peru, but Bolívar refused to share leadership. Bolívar, who had liberated the northern part of South America, took over in Peru to continue the fight. The Spanish were finally defeated in the 1824 battles of Junín and Ayacucho, and Peru became politically independent.

During the first years of independence, the conservative oligarchy and the liberals fought constantly. In 1835, Peru and Bolivia joined in a short-lived unification led by Bolivian President Andrés Santa Cruz, which failed both socially and economically.

Between 1845 and 1862, Peru was ruled by Marshal Ramón Castilla. He shaped modern Peru, abolishing slavery and establishing a constitution. In 1864, Spain attempted to establish enclaves on the Peruvian coast. In response, Peru, Chile, Bolivia and Ecuador declared war on Spain. The Spanish fleet bombarded Valparaíso in Chile and El Callao in Peru, before being defeated in 1866.

From 1845, with the silver mines exhausted, guano—bird feces used for fertilizer—became Peru's main export product. Between 1847 and 1879, waves of Chinese immigrants arrived in the country, many of whom found work collecting guano. When the guano "boom" was over, it was replaced by saltpeter from the southern deserts. The wealth these industries brought widened the gap between rich and poor, and acted as a catalyst for the Pacific War (1879-1883), in which Peru and Bolivia joined forces against Chile, which had exploited the saltpeter with the support of British companies. Peru and Bolivia lost the war and

with it the provinces of Arica, Tarapac and Antofagasta. By 1886, with the coffers depleted by war and the saltpeter market falling, Peru was forced to declare bankruptcy.

The 20th century marked the beginning of large-scale mining financed through foreign investment—a phenomenon which continues into the present era—in an attempt to reverse the economy's downward spiral. The North American Cerro de Pasco Copper Corporation invested heavily in copper mining, and foreign investors poured capital into oil exploitation, sugarcane and cotton in the north and central regions. The majority of Peruvian citizens, as well as the growing class of marginalized immigrants, were trapped in poverty, practicing subsistence agriculture or working dangerous, menial jobs on plantations and in the mining sector—in large part because they were denied participation in decision-making about the resources the oligarchy and northern interests were exploiting.

Within this context, the APRA (American Popular Revolutionary Alliance), a Marxist-inspired party, achieved widespread popular support. Víctor Haya de la Torre, the movement's most prominent leader, was in favor of merging class boundaries and frequently debated with José Carlos Mariátegui, founder of the Peruvian Communist Party (PC). Though triumphant in several elections, APRA did not come in to power until 1985 due to successive military coups.

In 1968, a military faction headed by General Juan Velasco Alvarado ousted President Fernando Belaúnde Terry and began to nationalize oil production. Alvarado also spearheaded recovery of natural resources and fishing, cooperative-based agrarian reform, worker participation in company ownership, the creation of collectively owned enterprises, the expropriation of the press and an independent, non-aligned foreign policy.

However, the ailing Velasco gradually lost control and the trust of his allies. In 1975, he was overthrown by his Prime Minister General Francisco Morales Bermúdez. Under pressure from the International Monetary Fund (IMF) and an oligarchy keen on

regaining power, Morales called elections. Belaunde's Acción Popular (AP), which had boycotted the constituent elections, triumphed in the 1980 presidential elections and established IMF guidelines, including liberalization of the economy.

That year, armed violence reappeared in Peru with the emergence of *Sendero Luminoso* ("Shining Path") guerrillas. Founded in the late 1960s, Shining Path was led by Abimael Guzman, a university professor who had initially been a member of a radical Maoist student organization that split off from the Peruvian Communist Party. Though the group's popularity declined in the universities, it reformulated itself as a primarily military political operation, and in 1980, with Guzman as leader, launched what would become a decade-long armed struggle against the state.

While Shining Path's efforts were initially supported by peasants in some of Peru's poorest regions as a welcome alternative to the government's alternating policies of neglect and oppression toward the poor, the group occupied an increasingly complex and ambiguous position. While reports of Shining Path's activities vary, it is clear that the group engaged in brutal violence, including torture, massacres and targeted assassinations against individuals deemed a threat to the struggle.

At first, the Peruvian government did not see Shining Path as a threat. Yet by 1981, Shining Path had gained territory in rural areas and clout among peasants seeking change. As a result, then-President Fernando Belaunde Terry declared a state of emergency in the largest Shining Path-occupied territories. Government officials targeted Shining Path members and peasants indiscriminately in a traditional counter-insurgency effort. Fewer than three years later, another Marxist (but anti-Shining Path) rebel group, the Tupac Amaru Revolutionary Movement (MRTA), emerged, escalating the existing conflict. The military, using its state of emergency powers to the extreme, arrested, detained and tortured thousands of people—many of whom were indigenous, poor and innocent.

In the 1985 elections, the APRA candidate Alan García came in first with 46 percent of the vote. Confronting a foreign debt of \$14 billion, García announced that he would limit payments to 10 percent of annual export income and would negotiate directly with the creditors, without IMF mediation. He introduced severe austerity measures, including a sharp decline in spending on social services.

In spite of his initial popularity among voters, García's first term in office (1985-1990) was marked by weak rule of law in addition to hyperinflation and enormous debt, economic destabilization and increasing levels of poverty—between 1985 and 1990, the number of people living in poverty increased by 13 percent. Such economic insecurity exacerbated social tensions and contributed in part to the predominance of Shining Path. García's administration sought to quell the insurgents with increased military force, leading to grave human rights violations, particularly against Peru's indigenous populations.

Under García's leadership, the Peruvian state was complicit in thousands of Peruvian deaths perpetrated during the conflict between Shining Path and state forces. In August 1985, during the initial weeks of García's first administration, he was responsible for the state's complicity in killing 60 peasants in the Accomarca village of Ayacucho. The administration also executed an estimated 200 inmates during prison riots in Lurigancho, San Juan Bautista and Santa Bárbara in 1986. Prisoners rioted, demanding that 500 individuals incarcerated under terrorism charges be released; the Peruvian state indiscriminately executed dissidents, and following the executions, state actors buried the prisoners' bodies in mass graves in the outskirts of Lima. In addition, García has been under investigation for involvement in the May 1988 murders of 25 members of Cayara community. These crimes are still undergoing investigation today.

The García administration responded to continued insurgency by targeting suspects and making them "disappear." According to the United Nations, Peru accounted for the most disappearances in the world

during García's administration, with more than 1,600 people reported missing.

Inadequate legal redress for these systematic human rights violations accounts for Peru's persistent legacy of impunity. In 1992, García sought exile in France to escape corruption charges opened by the new administration. During the 1990s, no serious legal measures were filed against the state for its human rights abuses; weak legal institutions accounted for inadequate cases against perpetrators from armed insurgent groups.

García's critics claim that his many poor choices in office created an environment that led to the rise of the authoritarian leader Alberto Fujimori, a relatively unknown outsider who won the 1989 general election with 56.4 percent of the vote. By then, Peru faced over 400 percent inflation and suffered from ever-escalating violence. Upon assuming power, Fujimori implemented a severe anti-inflationary plan and, without parliamentary support, began to govern by decree. Deaths and disappearances enforced by security forces—already commonplace—increased, and the number of people displaced by the violence crept steadily into the six-figure range.

In 1992, Fujimori led a coup and, claiming that parliament was corrupt and that the judicial system was obstructing national reconstruction, suspended the constitution. Soon after, he had Abimael Guzmán, founder and leader of Shining Path, arrested and sentenced to life in prison. Without Guzmán's dynamic leadership, Shining Path all but dissolved.

Between 1992 and 1995, trials were held by anonymous judges, leading to the convictions of several thousand police and military personnel for human rights abuses during the war. Upon completion of the trials, however, Fujimori amnestied all those convicted.

In 1995, Peru and Ecuador waged an undeclared war along their common border at the Condor mountain range. Peace talks were held under the Río Protocol, with Argentina, Brazil, Chile and the U.S. as guarantors. In 1998, three years after the armed

conflict, Peru and Ecuador agreed to a peace treaty based on new border lines proposed by Argentina, Brazil, Chile and the U.S.

Fujimori ran again for president in 2000. Peruvians took part in these elections knowing that Fujimori's political machine had presented one million forged signatures supporting his re-election. The opposition candidate, economist and former shoeshine of indigenous origin Alejandro Toledo (with 41 percent of the vote) claimed Fujimori (48.7 percent) had misused state funds to finance his campaign and barred the opposition's access to the media. Toledo led a large protest in Lima, to force a second electoral round. Finally, he announced he would not take part in the elections until their fairness could be guaranteed.

With no international observers and now no opposition candidate, Fujimori was declared president by the Electoral Court. The number of "spoiled" ballots—with the words "no to fraud," at Toledo's request—and the votes for the self-excluded candidate, showed that 54 percent had voted against Fujimori, who was strongly criticized by the Organization of American States (OAS) and the U.S.

The OAS supported a schedule of institutional changes in Peru: freedom of the press, independence of the courts, modifications in the electoral system and civilian control of the army and intelligence services. Fujimori promised U.S. Secretary of State Madeleine Albright that he would implement the changes.

In response to a scandal involving National Intelligence director Vladimiro Montesinos—according to many, the real "power behind the throne"—(a video had shown Montesinos bribing a legislator), Fujimori announced he would call new elections in 2001, in which he would not take part. Fujimori resigned while abroad in Japan; he was simultaneously deposed by parliament in Lima. Valentín Paniagua, of Popular Action, was appointed interim president, and in 2001, Congress accused Fujimori of abandoning his post. Around the same

time, Alan García's heavy lobbying permitted his return to Peru.

Having won the cleanest elections in many years, Toledo became the first freely elected president of indigenous origin. When he assumed office in 2001, Toledo inherited a country deep in debt and mired in fiscal and social problems, including a severe recession and 54 percent of the population living in extreme poverty. According to Toledo's own economic team, poverty in Lima had increased from 35 to 45 percent between 1997 and 2000. A Truth and Reconciliation Commission analyzed thousands of cases of human rights violations that had occurred over the previous two decades. The authorities issued a second international arrest warrant (the first had been issued three months earlier) against Fujimori, on charges of corruption and human rights violations.

Days before the U.S. President George W. Bush visit in 2002, nine people were killed when a bomb exploded near the U.S. embassy in Lima. According to the Peruvian Government, the goal of Bush's visit was to support the Toledo administration and its plans for a free market economy; observers suggested the bomb was placed in protest.

That same year, Health Minister Fernando Carbone reported the conclusions of the Commission on Voluntary Surgical Contraception Activities, which indicated that a forced sterilization plan had been put into effect in rural parts of the country during Fujimori's rule. It is estimated that between 1996 and 2000, the National Program of Family Planning and Reproductive Health sterilized over 280,000 people; many were indigenous and sterilized against their will or in exchange for food.

In 2002, there were violent protests against the privatization of two powerful Peruvian electricity companies, during which one person died and hundreds of others were repressed. After two weeks of conflict, the minister of the interior, Fernando Respigliosi, resigned and Toledo suspended the privatizations.

In 2003, a court in Lima sentenced Vladimiro Montesinos to eight years in jail on embezzlement charges. That same year, Prime Minister Beatriz Merino resigned at Toledo's request. She was accused of involvement in corruption scandals, which she denied. Merino was replaced by Carlos Ferrero, an experienced legislator from the Possible Peru party. Merino had been held in high regard by the population due to her efforts to reform state institutions and the tax system.

2004 once again brought full-scale conflict between the government and much of the rest of the country, following the launch of an enormous oil pipeline project running through much of the Peruvian Amazon. The pipeline, dubbed the Camisea Project and designed to make Peru a major oil exporter, taps the several million cubic feet of natural gas below the Amazon and pipes it across the Andes to Peru's coastline ports. Supported by major private international investments and a loan from the Inter-American Development Corporation, the project had been in the planning stages for several years prior to its implementation, but the Amazonian people protested that they had not been given prior and informed consent.

The construction and continued use of the pipeline set off a domino effect of destructive repercussions in indigenous Amazonian communities—construction destroyed several hundred thousand acres of rainforest; cleared land led to landslides; landslides and related erosion damaged water supplies; communities in the affected areas saw increased disease and premature deaths from contaminated water. In addition, thousands of people lost—and continue to lose—homes and livelihoods, without seeing the dividends that natural gas extraction has brought the state-owned and private companies operating the pipeline.

When protests did not halt the construction or use of the pipeline, indigenous communities took to sabotage and kidnapping of company officials, then to all-out violent struggle. By the end of 2005, Toledo declared a state of emergency.

Also in 2005, a Congressional commission found Toledo guilty of electoral fraud in the 2001 elections, though later decided not to impeach him. That same year, the government began to compensate guerrilla war victims. In November, Fujimori was arrested in Chile.

Former president Alan García won re-election in 2006. By April of the following year, in response to the re-emergence of a small cadre of former Shining Path members who had established a powerful and organized drug cartel, Congress granted García the power to rule by decree on matters of drug trafficking and organized crime.

In 2006, García's administration passed a bill in Congress that allowed the state to interfere in nongovernmental organization activities. In an effort to force NGOs to tow the government's development policy line, the bill gave the Peruvian Agency of International Cooperation (APCI) authority to oversee all NGO initiatives. Its implications were significant—such monitoring would have severely limited Peruvians' freedom of expression, assembly and association.

Following strong protests from civil-society groups, the bill was amended; the altered version limits its application to organizations that receive government funding. However, privately funded NGOs are still required to register their activities. The modified bill also included a list of punishable infractions designed to limit NGO activities. If an organization is found guilty of a serious infraction, its director and legal representatives risk being barred from participation with NGOs for five years. In addition to these measures, García's administration passed 17 decrees to criminalize social movements and protest.

Fujimori finally stood trial in 2007, after being extradited from Chile to Peru. In April of 2009, he was sentenced to 25 years imprisonment on charges of corruption and human rights abuses, including the ordering of murders and disappearances by security forces during his presidency.

Since García's first term in office, his economic agenda has focused almost exclusively on securing a free trade agreement with the U.S., which promised to open Peru's doors to transnational corporations investing in extractive industries. In order to attract foreign investment and compel the U.S. to sign the free trade agreement, García modified existing national policies and created new ones to favor transnational corporations and economic elites. While Peruvian industry has developed significantly in the past 10 years, the vast majority of Peruvian society has felt few of its benefits.

In 2008, García finally negotiated a free trade pact between Peru and the U.S. Not long after, he used the special powers granted to him in 2007 to pass almost 100 pieces of legislation without undergoing review by any other branch of government. Among these were a number of laws that expanded the government's ability to appropriate land and water for private use, mostly designed to implement the free trade pact.

So far, 2009 has seen continued clashes between state forces and Amazonian peoples, who are fighting both the oil pipeline and land ownership laws. The prime minister facilitated negotiations between the government and the protesters, which led to the repeal of some of these laws, but violence resumed not long afterward.

In June and July, protesters blocked off roads, forcing oil companies to close fields and sections of the pipeline. As company losses increased, García ordered the police to end the blockades; this confrontation resulted in 32 deaths.

The struggle over land and resource rights is only one facet of a larger ideological conflict. While the government pushes for policies to promote free trade and foreign investment, the indigenous poor demand to maintain their resources, human rights and dignity. While the state's efforts will certainly result in greater wealth for the country overall, critics and protesters wonder at what cost, and for whose benefit.



PERU HISTORY TIMELINE

Sources: The World Guide Tenth Edition. CD ROM. New Internationalist Publications Ltd. 2005.; "Peru," *Wikipedia*, <http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Peru>; "Peru," *A Dictionary of World History*, Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2000; Stalker, Peter. "Peru," *A-Z of Countries of the World*, Oxford: Oxford University Press, 2004.

- c. 1000 BCE** A succession of complex cultures and states thrive: Chavín, Mochica, Chimú, Nazca, Tiahuanaco and Huari.
- 1200s-1600s** The rise of the Incan Empire, which eventually stretches from Chile to Ecuador.
- 1532-1572** Spanish *conquistador* Francisco Pizarro defeats Incan ruler Atahualpa; although revolts continue for almost 50 years, Spain succeeds in conquering the Incan Empire.
- 1542-1824** Modern Peru is part of the Viceroyalty of Peru, a colonial district containing most of Spanish-ruled South America.
- 1780** Tupac Amarú II leads an indigenous uprising.
- 1821-1824** José de San Martín captures Lima, proclaiming an independent republic. A constitution is written, and the Spanish surrender to Simón Bolívar and withdraw.
- 1824-1844** Bolívar becomes dictator and tries to bring Peru into the state of Gran Colombia (present-day Colombia, Ecuador and Venezuela). Civil war ensues.
- 1845-1862** Under the rule of Marshal Ramón Castilla, Peru witnesses the abolition of slavery, formal establishment of the constitution and creation of an educational system
- 1879-1883** Peru and Bolivia fight the War of the Pacific against Chile. Chile gains substantial mineral-rich territory and Bolivia is left as a land-locked country.
- 1889** The decline of the guano industry (which extracts nitrates from sea-bird droppings) and the costs of war lead to the declaration of national bankruptcy.
- 1920s** A radical political group, the Alianza Popular Revolucionaria Americana (APRA), seeks to obtain greater indigenous participation in politics.
- 1968-1970s** Peru is ruled by a series of military and autocratic governments.
- 1980s** Democratic elections are held and a new constitution established; however, the lot of the poor improves little. Inflation is rampant and government spending on social services declines during Alan García's administration. This is largely due to austerity measures that the IMF requires to refinance Peru's foreign debt. Two guerrilla movements emerge, the *Movimiento Revolucionario Tupac Amaru* (MRTA) and *Sendero Luminoso* (Shining Path); in ensuing conflicts with the government, 28,000 people are killed and more than 700,000 are displaced.

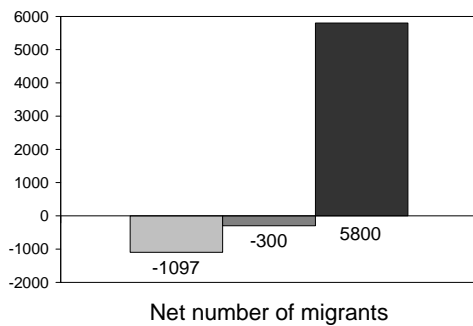
- 1990** Alberto Fujimori, the son of Japanese immigrants, is elected president. He implements free-market reforms (such as opening the mining industry and national airline to privatization by foreign investors) that result in protests, strikes and guerrilla attacks across the country.
- 1992** *Sendero Luminoso* leader Abimael Guzmán is imprisoned. Backed by the military, Fujimori closes Congress and suspends the judiciary.
- 1995-1998** Peru and Ecuador engage in an undeclared war along their shared border.
- 2000** Though constitutionally ineligible, Fujimori runs for re-election. Challenger Alejandro Toledo withdraws, accusing Fujimori of fraud. Fujimori claims victory and is condemned internationally. Investigations reveal corruption in Fujimori's campaign, including bribery by his security chief, Vladimir Montesinos. Fujimori flees to Japan and resigns.
- 2001** Toledo becomes first president of indigenous origin, but becomes increasingly unpopular throughout his term in office. More than half of the Peruvian population is classified as poor, with one-quarter classified as extremely poor—in spite of the country's 12 percent economic growth rate.
- 2004** The government announces a proposal for a private gas and oil pipeline to run through the Amazon, which will not directly benefit the communities it will disrupt. The affected communities—comprising much of the indigenous population of the country—respond with violent protests.
- 2006** Alan García is re-elected.
- 2007** Fujimori is extradited from Japan to face charges of corruption and human rights abuses.
- 2009** Fujimori is sentenced to 25 years in prison. As the conflict over the oil pipeline escalates, at least 54 people are killed in Amazonia and nationwide protests are held to protest the state's trade policies and land ownership laws, which favor international investors over local interests.

COMPARATIVE STATISTICS: South America, Peru and the United States

Sources: EarthTrends: The Environmental Information Portal, World Resources Institute, 2006, <http://earthtrends.wri.org>; Freedom in the World Country Ratings, Freedom House, 2006, <http://www.freedomhouse.org>; Statistics Archive, Latin America Press, 2006, <http://www.lapress.org>; Index of Economic Freedom, The Heritage Foundation, 2006, <http://www.heritage.org>

Legend:  South America  Peru  United States n.d. - No Data

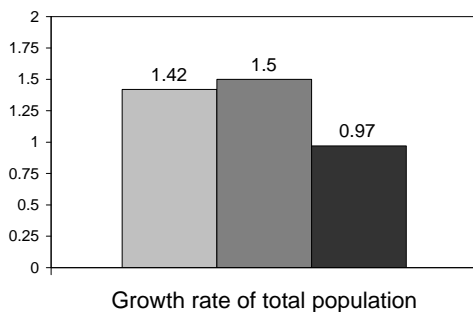
Demographics



Net number of migrants

(2000-2005, in thousands of people)

Measures the number of people entering or leaving a country or region annually during the time period specified. Positive numbers indicate net immigration; negative numbers indicate net emigration.

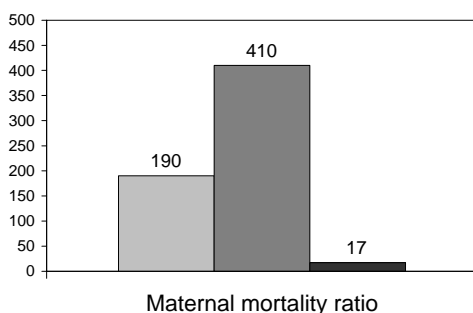


Growth rate of total population

(2000-2005, in percentages)

The average annual percentage change in mid-year population for a country or region in the time period specified. Percentage changes in population are calculated using the exponential growth rate equation, which assumes continuous, exponential growth over time. The projections reported here assume medium fertility.

Health

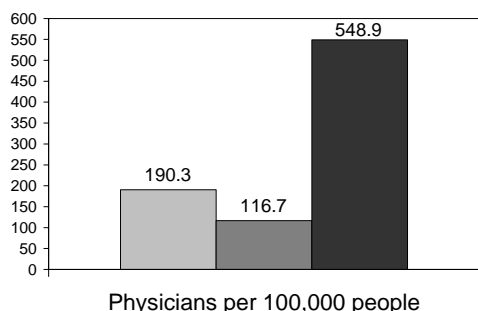


Maternal mortality ratio

(2000, in deaths per 100,000 live births)

Measures deaths of women from pregnancy-related causes, when pregnant or within 42 days of termination of pregnancy. It is a measure of the risk of death once a woman has become pregnant.

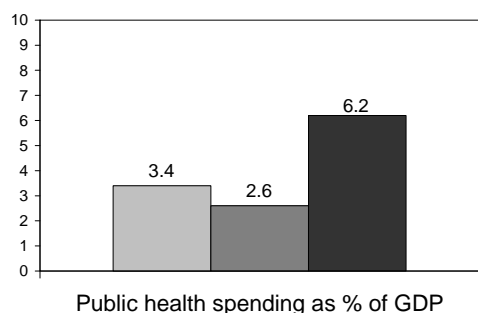
Legend:  South America  Peru  United States n.d. - No Data



Physicians per 100,000 people

(1990-2003)

Physicians are defined as graduates of a faculty or school of medicine who are working in any medical field (including teaching, research and practice). This is an indicator of the presence of health personnel in a country. *Notes: This indicator speaks solely of the quantity of physicians, not quality or accessibility, and does not show the distribution in rural vs. urban areas. Due to differences across countries in defining physician, inter-country comparisons should be made with caution.*

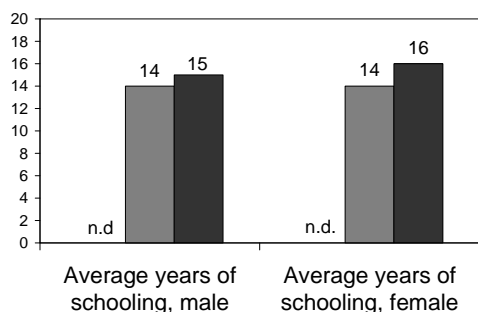


Public health spending as percentage of Gross Domestic Product (GDP)

(2001)

Public health expenditure consists of recurrent and capital spending from government (central and local) budgets, external borrowings and grants and social (or compulsory) health insurance funds. GDP measures the total output of goods and services for final use occurring within the domestic territory of a given country. Expenditure as a share of GDP roughly indicates the economic burden placed on the economy by health care.

Education

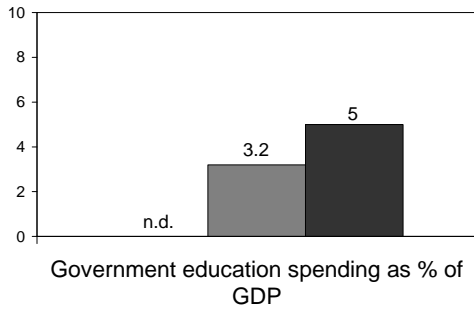


Average length of schooling

(2001-2002)

The number of years, on average, a student remains at school and university, including years spent on repetition. Data include pre-primary through tertiary education. The average length of schooling shows an educational system's overall level of development. *Notes: Because the availability and quality of data varies, approximately 75% of all reported average length of schooling values are estimated. In addition, because educational standards and policies vary between countries, comparisons should be made with caution.*

Legend: South America Peru United States n.d. - No Data

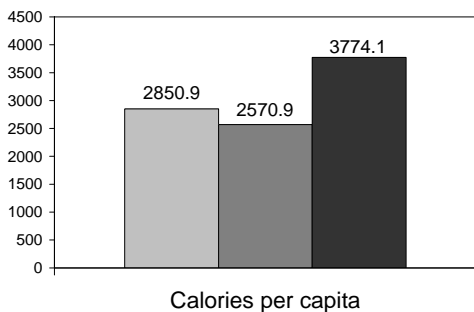


Government education spending as percentage of Gross Domestic Product (GDP)

(1998)

Public education expenditure consists of public spending on public education plus subsidies to private education at the primary, secondary and tertiary levels. GDP measures the total output of goods and services for final use occurring within the domestic territory of a given country. According to the World Bank, education expenditure as a share of GDP reflects a country's "effort in education."

Agriculture

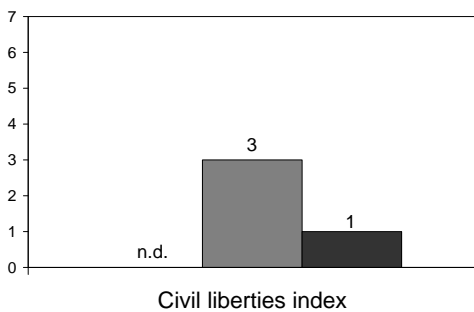


Calories per capita

(2002, in kilocalories/person/day)

Refers to the amount of available food, expressed in calories per person, per day. *Note: Per capita supply figures represent only the average supply available for the population as a whole and do not necessarily indicate what is actually consumed by individuals. Even if they are taken as approximations of per capita consumption, it is important to bear in mind that there could be considerable variation in consumption between individuals.*

Governance



Civil Liberties Index

(2005, in index units: 1=most free, 7=least free)

Measures freedom of expression, assembly, association and religion. 1 indicates an established and equitable rule of law, free economic activity and full civil liberties; 2 indicates some deficiencies in these areas; 3, 4 or 5 indicate partial compliance with all of the elements of civil liberties or complete freedom in some areas coupled with complete denial in others; 6 indicates severely restricted expression and association coupled with political terror; 7 indicates virtually no freedom. Published by Freedom House.

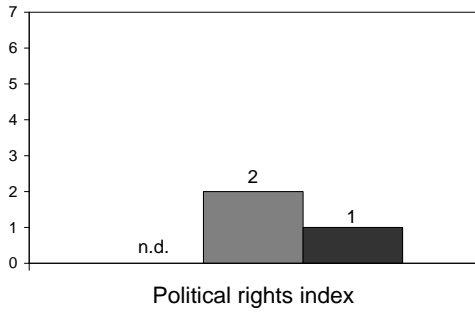
Legend:

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United States

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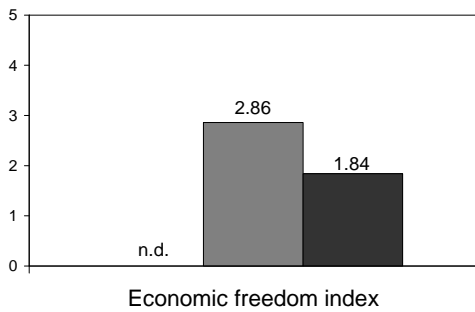


Political Rights Index

(2005, in index units: 1=most free, 7=least free)

Measures the degree of freedom in the electoral process, political pluralism and participation and functioning of government. 1 indicates free and fair elections, political competition and autonomy for all citizens, including minority groups; 2 indicates some corruption, violence, political discrimination against minorities and military influence on politics; 3, 4 or 5 indicate a progressively larger role for the factors noted for a ranking of 2, and some political rights may exist along with civil war, heavy military involvement or one-party dominance; 6 indicates rule by military juntas, one-party dictatorships, religious hierarchies or autocrats; 7 indicates basically nonexistent political rights, extremely oppressive regimes, civil war, extreme violence or warlord rule. Published by Freedom House.

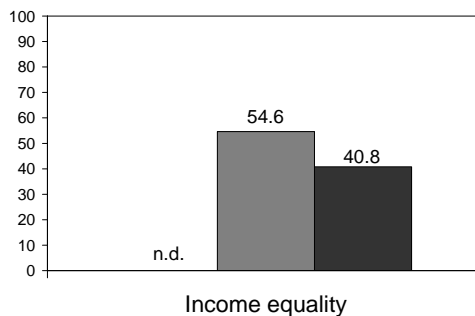
Economy



Economic Freedom Index

(2006, in index units: 1=greatest economic freedom, 5=least economic freedom)

From an annual report published since 1995 by the Heritage Foundation and the *Wall Street Journal*. Includes 50 variables, divided into 10 categories: trade policy, tax levels, monetary policy, capital flows and foreign investment, banking and finance, wages and prices, property rights, regulations and informal market.



Income equality

(1985-2004, in Gini index units: 0=perfect equality, 100=perfect inequality)

The Gini index is an estimate of income inequality. It measures the extent to which the distribution of income among individuals or households within an economy deviates from a perfectly equal distribution.

PERU IN-DEPTH: Contemporary Issues

The following articles are intended to help place your experience in Peru in a larger context. They represent a small sample of the coverage of the country's contemporary issues, challenges and events; they may touch upon political, social, cultural, economic, environmental and other topics. Consider how your learning and experience in Peru are connected to the larger-scale issues discussed in these articles.

Peru: Country Overview

Adapted from: MADRE: An international human rights organization, 2006; updated 2009. <http://www.madre.org/countries/Peru.html>

Peru is hailed as one of Latin America's economic success stories. Its economy's rapid growth (the fastest in the region in 2002) reflects the profits of a small elite, but eclipses the misery of the majority. More than half of all Peruvians—and nearly 80 percent of indigenous peoples and those of African descent—subsist on less than \$1.25 a day. Peru has the third highest child malnutrition rate and one of the highest rates of maternal mortality in Latin America. Sixty-two percent of children live in poverty and 25 percent of Peruvians lack access to health care.

Peruvians are still reeling from 10 years of repressive rule by Alberto Fujimori, whose harsh "anti-terrorism" laws led to the disappearances, rape, assassinations and arbitrary imprisonment of thousands of human rights activists and ordinary citizens. These abusive policies were supported by the U.S.

Peru's next president, Alejandro Toledo, is a former World Bank advisor trained in the U.S. He has remained in lockstep with U.S.-driven neo-liberal prescriptions for Peru's economy, including massive privatization and severe restrictions on public spending. Toledo has pledged to join the Free Trade Area of the Americas (FTAA), which would turn all of Latin America (except Cuba) into a giant free-trade zone. Widespread opposition from civil society and governments stalled the FTAA, and Peru instead pursued a smaller, bilateral agreement with the U.S. MADRE predicted that this U.S.-Peru accord would exacerbate Peru's already high rates of poverty and unemployment, threaten indigenous rights and resources, and place access to critical services such as health care and education even further out of reach of poor families. The UN Human Rights Commission

Special Rapporteur for Health Rights, Paul Hunt, warned at the time that the agreement violates international health and human rights treaties Peru has signed, in part by making it impossible for millions of Peruvians to afford essential medicines, such as HIV/AIDS antiretrovirals.

Peruvians have responded to Toledo's economic policies with massive strikes and protests throughout the country. In Summer 2003, Toledo reacted to protesters by declaring a state of emergency, allowing soldiers and police to use force to crush demonstrations. Such actions, as well as charges of corruption and personal scandal within his administration, caused his popular support to plummet. Current president Alan García faces similar opposition, as he has largely continued Toledo's policies.

Truth and Reconciliation Commission Report

In August 2003, Peru's Truth and Reconciliation Commission reported that over 69,000 people were killed between 1980-2000 during the country's violent conflict between the military, paramilitaries and leftist guerillas. At least another 4,000 disappeared, and over 600,000 were displaced from their homes. Seventy-five percent of the victims were indigenous and over 40 percent of the deaths took place in Peru's mainly rural Department of Ayacucho, where MADRE works. The Commission has recommended collective and individual reparations in health, education, legal assistance and economic compensation to those who were affected by the war. Yet there is little political will to allocate the resources needed to implement such reparations, evidenced by the fact that Toledo

took three months to comment on the Commission's findings and has himself made no mention of reparations.

Indigenous peoples in Ayacucho

In the Department of Ayacucho, where the majority of the population is indigenous, people struggle to survive as small farmers in a region in which only 3 percent of the land is arable. Lack of basic health and education services pose serious threats to women's health. Women's sexual and reproductive health indicators starkly illustrate the unmet needs in the region: maternal mortality looms at 185 deaths per 100,000 live births and five women die every day due to pregnancy-related complications. In Ayacucho, there is one doctor, two nurses and eight hospital beds for every 100,000 people. Poverty rates are almost twice the national average and over 60 percent of the population suffers from chronic malnutrition. Extreme poverty and ongoing political violence drive many rural people to migrate to the cities where they are cut off from the cultural and familial support systems of their communities.

Afro-Peruvians

Afro-Peruvians make up 8 to 10 percent of Peru's population of 27 million. Like other people of African descent throughout the Americas, Afro-Peruvians face on-going racism, discrimination and marginalization that prevent them from accessing decent jobs and critical services such as health care and education. As a result, Afro-Peruvians suffer from higher rates of poverty, maternal mortality and illiteracy. Afro-Peruvian women, who experience both gender and racial discrimination, are forced to contend with even greater barriers to employment, education and health care.

In rural areas, Afro-Peruvian farmers and their families have been increasingly forced off their land by large agribusinesses, a direct result of neo-liberal economic reforms. While their families struggle to survive, Afro-Peruvian youth migrate to urban areas in search of work and better wages. Already, the majority of Afro-Peruvians (73 percent) live in Lima, Peru's capital city.

Militarization and Oil: U.S. Foreign Policy and Corporate Might

Today the "war on terrorism" has long replaced the "war on drugs" as the focus of U.S. policy in Latin America. But beneath the new rallying cry, the effects of U.S. policy on women and families in Peru remain largely unchanged. Rising inequality and increased militarization were the hallmark of Bush's "Andean Initiative," which expanded Plan Colombia to the neighboring countries of Peru, Bolivia and Ecuador. This policy increases U.S. military involvement in Peru, pumping an additional \$550 million of military aid into the region.

Meanwhile, U.S. corporations, in partnership with other foreign investors, have completed the Camisea Gas Project, a \$1.6 billion endeavor that involves extracting gas from the Amazon and constructing a cross-country pipeline that cuts through indigenous lands. The project threatens the health and food security of indigenous peoples and has already caused serious environmental destruction of Peru's rainforests. The U.S. Import-Export bank rejected financing of the project in August 2003, citing economic and environmental reasons. The Inter-American Development Bank (IDB), however, ignored warnings from indigenous rights and environmental activists and approved a \$135 million loan of its own.



Peru's Deadly Battle over Oil in the Amazon

Source: Chauvin, Lucien. *TIME Magazine*, 10 June 2009. <http://www.time.com/time/world/article/0,8599,1903707,00.html>

Peruvian President Alan García is furious. His plans to open huge parts of the country's Amazon jungle to

foreign investors are crumbling, and the woman he was grooming to lead the Cabinet is politically

wounded, a casualty of violent protests by indigenous people in the northern jungle last weekend.

According to the official count, 32 people—23 police officers and nine protesters—were killed June 5 when long-running demonstrations by indigenous people against oil development spun out of control. Hundreds more were injured and arrested. The violence was unleashed when police officers received word from Lima, the capital, to remove the protesters who were blocking a highway and the nearby pumping station on the northern pipeline. The officers moved in with tear gas and automatic weapons. The protesters were mainly armed with spears, but some had guns. Fighting along the tragically named Devil's Curve took 20 lives, while 12 police officers were killed at the pumping station. The stretch of highway around 500 miles north of Lima in Amazonas state has now been cleared of demonstrators but the indigenous protests, which entered their third full month June 9, are not over, and the political fallout for García and his government is just beginning.

One Cabinet member, Women's Issues and Social Development Minister Carmen Vildoso, quit June 8 to protest the government's response and there is building pressure for the resignation of Cabinet Chief Yehude Simon and Interior Minister Mercedes Cabanillas, whose office oversees the National Police. Even the normally staid daily *El Comercio*, dean of Peru's press, called for both ministers to quit.

Cabanillas, a key member of García's APRA party and its presidential candidate in 1995, is routinely referred to at the Peruvian Margaret Thatcher for her tough stands. Administration sources say that she was the president's pick to become chief of staff in July, when García starts the fourth year of a five-year term that ends in July 2011. That is now politically untenable. The ministers have claimed so far that they have no intention of stepping down and the administration, while saying it wants dialogue to end the tension, maintains that it will not modify the series of laws that sparked the protests. The president, addressing a military ceremony over the weekend, said he had no intention of backpedaling, claiming that there was "a

conspiracy afoot to keep Peru from using its natural riches."

At the same event, García shouted that protesters were ignorant: he used the word two more times in the speech in case anyone missed it the first time. The right-wing conservative hinted loudly that the left wing governments of Venezuela (under Hugo Chavez) and Bolivia (under Evo Morales) were somehow behind the protests and financing the conspiracy. He demanded that Peruvians defend the progress he said his government was making to modernize the country.

Indigenous leaders say they too have no intentions of quitting the fight. However, they are going to have to move forward without Alberto Pizango, the president of their umbrella group, AIDSESEP; he requested political asylum June 8 at the Nicaraguan Embassy in Lima after the government ordered his arrest.

The heart of the crisis stretches back a year, when the García government, using special powers granted it by Congress, passed nearly 100 legislative decrees to facilitate implementation of a free-trade agreement with the United States. The agreement came into force this past February. Indigenous communities, under AIDSESEP, objected to a number of decrees that dealt with water and land rights. They argued that the decrees would not only increase the number of oil and logging concessions already granted in the country's 67 million hectares (165 million acres) of rain forest, but allow for the actual sale of their ancestral territories.

A first round of jungle protests was called in August of last year and Congress, recognizing that the administration had overstepped its bounds, repealed two laws that made it much easier for community lands to be sold. Congress promised to examine and vote on repealing other laws, primarily a new Forestry and Wildlife Law. That never happened and AIDSESEP, representing the bulk of Peru's 500,000 indigenous people, resumed the jungle protest April 9.

The new rounds of protests were low-key in the beginning, but tensions increased as the weeks passed. Indigenous demonstrators began blocking roads and rivers, as well as the northern oil pipeline. The pipeline was closed in late April and the state oil company announced it was losing nearly \$120,000 daily. Oil fields in the northern jungle were closed in early June. This was, apparently, one of the reasons that led to the fatal decision to order police officers to open roads and the remove protesters from the pipeline. García has been talking about making Peru an oil and gas superpower since taking office in 2006 and the protests were ruining that plan. The country is currently in the middle of a commodities-led boom, even as most of the rest of the world is in recession.

Of 91 oil and gas concessions currently on the books, many approved during García's term, 59 are in the jungle. They cover around 40 million hectares. The government claims that around six billion barrels of oil are just waiting to be found under the Amazon. Investment in exploration will top \$1 billion this year, something the administration does not want to lose to protests. "This government wants to occupy the Amazon with concessions as if no one lived there, but it has come up against indigenous resistance," says La Torre. "What is needed now is a plan to stop the bloodshed and make sure the martyrs on both sides did not die for nothing."



Peru Guerillas Tread a New Path

Source: Collyns, Dan. *BBC News*, 1 February 2009. <http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/americas/7830215.stm>

For most Peruvians, the Shining Path is now just a bad memory.

Memories of bloody massacres and terror in the Andes, bomb attacks and blackouts in the capital Lima, and the hammer and sickle graffiti daubed in red on buildings across the country.

But for a few, the guerrilla group—one of Latin America's most notorious—is still a reality.

Recently the Shining Path has sprung back from relative obscurity to launch its most deadly attacks in more than a decade. Over the past year, rebels have killed some 25 soldiers and police officers in ambushes and gun battles.

The Shining Path today is a fraction of its former size and is split between two cocaine-producing zones of Peru, some 500km (311 miles) apart. It is made up of a few hundred guerrillas who did not lay down their arms when the group's leader, Abimael Guzman, declared the armed revolution at an end after his capture in 1992.

Expert in guerrilla warfare from years of resistance in some of Peru's remotest and wildest country, and well-armed from the profits of the cocaine trade, the Shining Path—or *Sendero Luminoso* in Spanish—is forcing the Peruvian army to fight new battles in an old war.

Hunting the guerrillas

Operacion Excelencia 777 is the codename used by Peru's armed forces for its co-ordinated offensive against the most recalcitrant guerrillas. They are based in and around the Ene-Apurimac River Valley—an area that straddles the Andes Mountains and the Amazon jungle—known as the VRAE.

The guerrilla stronghold has to be seen from the air to understand the scale of the task the armed forces face. From a military helicopter, one can see how knife-like peaks covered in dense tropical forest drop into sinuous canyons.

It is some 300 square kilometers of no-man's land, spanning the entire northern tip of Ayacucho province. By dominating this area, the guerrillas

controlled a key drug-trafficking corridor, as well as a conduit for illegal logging.

This is Viscatan, the river which gives the whole area its name, the heart of Shining Path territory. A few dozen special forces soldiers live in a network of trenches on this exposed hillside.

Ali, as the officer is nicknamed, says battles have been fought here as they try to hunt down the guerrillas on their own terrain.

"Narco-terror" ultimatum

Since the end of August the armed forces have established five bases in Viscatan—the largest is home to more than 100 soldiers. Tenacity, bravery and patience is their motto and they will need all of these qualities, particularly the last one, says the man in command, General Raymundo Flores.

"*Sendero* haven't taken any big hits," he says. "It's a question of patience, little by little we are eliminating them."

"We have to recognize their physical capacity and their knowledge of the terrain."

He estimates they have killed around 20 guerrillas, but probably none of the leaders. Such is the terrain, they have had to try to calculate the number of enemy dead from the vultures circling overhead, General Flores says.

Four soldiers have been killed in this operation so far, and around 30 injured, mostly by home-made landmines laid by the guerrillas. Nonetheless General Flores is confident the rebels can be beaten within five years.

"The state has made the decision to finish with narco-terrorism," he says. "There may not be big steps so far, but the decision to do so is a big advance."

New tactics

As far as General Flores is concerned, it is not the same Maoist group that practically toppled the state in the early 1990s. It is a breakaway group led by

three brothers Jorge, Victor and Carlos Quispe Palomino, whom he accuses of being a drug-trafficking clan.

"The ideology is a pretext, they are just narco-terrorists," General Flores says, echoing the statements made on the leaflets they drop from the air into villages in the zone. "They're only in it for the money."

However, leaders from the valley's self-defense committees, the civil militia that fought a bitter war with the Shining Path in the 1980s and 1990s, say the Shining Path guerrillas continue to recruit and expand while maintaining their revolutionary ideology.

Peru's Truth and Reconciliation Commission estimated more than 69,000 people died in fighting between the rebels and the military between 1980 and 2000; more than half of those at the hands of the Shining Path.

"Before the Shining Path used to enter the community and kill people; men, women and children," says Frolyan Gutierrez, a village leader in the poor community of Sanabamba. "They stole all our livestock and left us with nothing."

"We begged for an army base to be established. But later, the guerrillas reappeared and they were different; they bought things with their money, instead of just taking them, and invited us to play football."

One step ahead

Drug-trafficking has helped the Shining Path to regain its strength. But it continues to have "political and military aims," says Gustavo Gorriti, a journalist and author on the guerrilla group.

"I don't think this chapter with the Viscatan offensive ends this story, not by any means," he says. "They haven't suffered, at this point, so far as it is known, any significant losses, they have lost territory but for a guerrilla organization that is a thing they are used to."

The Shining Path is a long way from becoming the national threat it was during President Alan García's first term between 1985 and 1990. But so far the

Shining Path has shown it can still stay one step ahead of the state.



Human Rights Watch Universal Periodic Review—Peru

Source: Human Rights Watch, January 2008.

http://lib.ohchr.org/HRBodies/UPR/Documents/Session2/PE/HRW_PER_UPR_S2_2008_HumanRightsWatch_uprsubmission.pdf

Justice for past abuses is a leading human rights concern in Peru. While authorities have made some progress in holding accountable those responsible for some abuses committed during its 20-year armed conflict (1980-2000), most perpetrators continue to evade justice. Investigations of massacres and “disappearances” by government forces have been held up in part by lack of military cooperation. The efforts of Peruvian prosecutors to bring former President Alberto Fujimori to justice in Peru finally bore fruit in September 2007, when the Chilean Supreme Court, in a landmark decision, authorized his extradition on charges of human rights abuse and corruption.

Other human rights concerns in Peru include torture and ill-treatment of criminal suspects, violence against journalists in some parts of the country, and government efforts to regulate nongovernmental organizations (NGOs).

Confronting Past Abuses

The government Truth and Reconciliation Commission estimated in 2003 that almost 70,000 people died or “disappeared” during the armed conflict. Many were victims of atrocities committed by the Shining Path and another insurgent group, and others of human rights abuses by state agents.

Former President Alberto Fujimori is currently being tried in Lima for his alleged involvement in the extrajudicial execution of 15 people in the Barrios Altos district of Lima in November 1991 and the forced disappearance and murder of nine students and a teacher from La Cantuta University in July 1992. Fujimori also faces multiple corruption charges, which will be heard in subsequent court proceedings.

Fujimori had been in self-imposed exile in Japan for five years, before traveling to Chile, where he was arrested in November 2005. Efforts have been underway to investigate and prosecute former officials and military officers implicated in scores of other killings and “disappearances” dating from the beginning of the armed conflict. For example, at least 50 alleged members of the Colina Group, the death squad directly responsible for the Barrios Altos and La Cantuta crimes, have been on trial in Lima since August 2005. Yet, at this writing, only 17 former military officers and civilians had been convicted for abuses attributed to state actors by the truth commission. Lack of cooperation by the armed forces has hampered the investigation of these cases. The military has often failed to provide information needed to identify potentially key witnesses who served in rural counterinsurgency bases during the conflict. It has also declined to identify military officials known to witnesses only by their aliases.

Torture

Despite legislation in force since 1998 that specifically prohibits torture, torture and ill-treatment of criminal suspects continues to be a problem in Peru. The Human Rights Commission (Comisión de Derechos Humanos, COMISEDH)—an NGO that represents torture victims in court proceedings—recorded 78 complaints of torture between January 2005 and October 2007. In recent years, Peruvian courts have made some progress in holding accountable police who abuse detainees. Since 2000, the Supreme Court has confirmed prison sentences against 15 police officers, military agents and prison guards for torture in seven cases. In July 2007, two policemen received eight-year and four-year sentences for a beating that led to the death of Ricardo Huaranga Félix in 2004. In

September 2006, Peru ratified the Optional Protocol to the Convention against Torture and Other Cruel, Inhuman and Degrading Treatment or Punishment.

Freedom of Expression

Journalists who publicize abuses by local government officials are vulnerable to intimidation in some parts of the country. In March 2007, Miguel Pérez Julca, who worked for a news program on a local radio station in Jaén, Cajamarca province, was shot twice in the head by two gunmen in front of his wife, who was also injured, and two sons. He died while being rushed to hospital. Pérez had been reporting on police corruption and problems of public security in the city.

Four days after Pérez's murder, three other journalists from Jaén received death threats in text messages on their cell phones. Pérez was the third Peruvian journalist killed in similar circumstances since 2004.

Death Penalty

The death penalty in Peru is restricted to cases of treason in wartime, and has not been applied since the 1970s. However, following an armed attack in Ayacucho in December 2006 in which eight people were killed, President Alan García presented a bill to Congress to reintroduce the death penalty for terrorist crimes. In January 2007, the bill was defeated in Congress by a substantial majority.

Human Rights Defenders

In November 2006, President Alan García supported legislation that would allow the government to "supervise" the activities of Peruvian NGOs that receive foreign funding. After strong protests by civil society groups, an amended version of the bill was passed that limited its application to organizations that receive government funding or tax benefits. Privately funded NGOs would still be required to register their activities and expenditures with the government aid agency. In September 2007, the Constitutional Court ruled that this requirement to report expenditures was unconstitutional.

Women's Rights

Article 2(2) of the constitution guarantees equal rights, explicitly prohibiting discrimination based on sex. Domestic violence is illegal, and penalties range from one month to six years in prison. The law gives judges and prosecutors the authority to prevent the convicted spouse or parent from returning to the family's home and authorizes the victim's relatives and unrelated persons living in the home to file complaints of domestic violence.

It also allows health professionals to document injuries and requires police investigation of domestic violence to take place within five days. Authorities are obliged to extend protection to women and children who are victims of domestic violence. Rape, including spousal rape, is criminalized.

The National Plan against Violence toward Women 2002-2007 focused on public policies for preventing and addressing violence against women. Campaigns to raise awareness and trainings were provided to public servants, judicial personnel, doctors and psychologists. The Family Violence Act has been amended to eliminate conciliation proceedings before the provincial prosecutor in cases of family violence, on the grounds that such violence represents a violation of human rights that is not a matter for conciliation.

The 2002 Regional Governments Act makes local governments responsible for formulating policies, and for regulating, implementing, promoting, supervising and controlling efforts to prevent political, family and sexual violence. Under the National Program against Family Violence and Sexual Abuse, the Ministry of Women and Social Development (MIMDES) emergency centers provide free services and sponsor prevention activities.

Peruvian law permits abortions to be performed when a pregnant woman's health is at risk of serious and permanent damage. Yet access to these therapeutic abortions is limited by a variety of factors, including vague and restrictive laws, the absence of standard definitions, protocols and medical guidelines, unpredictable approval procedures and ignorance about the exceptions to the existing criminal code on

abortion. Moreover, since these abortions are rarely authorized in public hospitals, many women are forced to carry their pregnancies full term, risking their lives and their long term physical and mental health. Other women who cannot afford private hospitals must seek to have the potentially dangerous procedures performed in clandestine clinics or even at home using folk remedies.

Peruvian authorities have failed to adequately inform women of their rights to reproductive health care information and services. They have also failed to inform medical personnel of their protection under the law and their professional obligation to provide these services to women who need them.



THE JEWISH COMMUNITY OF PERU

Source: Sedaka, Jan. "Though not an inclusive bunch, Peru's few Jews persevere," *Jewish Telegraphic Agency*, 3 January 2003. <http://www.jweekly.com/article/full/19065/though-not-an-inclusive-bunch-Peru-s-few-jews-persevere/>

LIMA—Peru seems an unlikely venue for debate about who is a Jew. This South American country of 27 million has fewer than 2,800 Jews—though some who claim to be Jewish are not counted in the official number. At its peak, the Peruvian community was 5,500 strong.

"That was in 1970," tour guide Jaime Fischman remembers. "Today we're working on survival." Fischman's grandparents were part of an early wave of German and Russian immigrants. Native Peruvians dubbed the exotic newcomers "Turcos," or Turks. "Our countrymen are devout Catholics who've never had much curiosity about who Jews really are," he says.

The Jews of Peru embody a lively mix of cultures. Some are descendants of Polish and Russian immigrants fleeing pogroms, and of Germans who fled the rise of Nazism. A few claim descent from Portuguese "secret Jews" who outlasted the Inquisition. Some came from North Africa. And Holocaust survivors and their descendants also are part of the mix.

In addition, two unique groups challenge Peruvian notions of what it means to be a Jew.

The B'nai Moshe, sometimes referred to as "Inca Jews," are former Christians. Rural farmers with no knowledge of Jewish custom and ritual, they began to practice an iconoclastic form of Judaism in the 1950s—inspired, they said, by the Psalms. They ate only fruits, vegetables and fish with scales. Unable to attract the attention of the mainstream Jewish community, they read from a homemade Torah scroll. They prayed wearing homemade prayer shawls. They used the sea as a ritual bath, and the men traveled to Lima to be circumcised.

For some 30 years, the Jewish mainstream ignored the B'nai Moshe. Eventually they were "discovered" and

examined by an Israeli-led religious court. In 1989 they were converted—on the condition that they move immediately to Israel. With the help of the Jewish Agency for Israel, 140 of the B'nai Moshe settled in Elon Moreh, a religious community in the West Bank. Second and third waves also were converted and made *aliyah*. Those who did not pass the rabbis' examination remain in Peru, awaiting another chance.

The claims of a second group—descendants of 19th-century Moroccan Jewish adventurers who came to the Amazon jungle during the rubber boom—are more problematic. The community has passed through generations of intermarriage. They light candles on Friday night and bury their dead in what they call an "Israelite" cemetery, but their religious practices are also influenced by Catholicism and supernaturalism.

This group lives in Iquitos, a town more than 1,000 miles from Peru's coastal cities, accessible only by plane or river boat. They have little contact with the outside Jewish world. But the 170-member community clings fiercely to a Jewish identity. They make donations to Israeli institutions, and several of their numbers have moved to Israel.

The B'nai Moshe and the "Amazon Jews" remain separated from the established community, which is concentrated in Peru's capital, Lima.

Israeli Rabbi Eliyahu Birnbaum has charged that the Lima Jews don't accept the other groups because they are from a lower socio-economic level. Community leader Elie Scialom believes it's not poverty but the B'nai Moshe's Indian ancestry that keeps them isolated, "much the same way Ethiopians caused concern when they arrived in Israel."

Leo Trahtemberg, a historian and principal of the Colegio Leon Pinelo, believes Peruvian Jewry is "at a

crossroads." "We have a broad base of services, and they are flourishing," he says. "But without forward-looking leadership, we'll eventually lose them." Lima's Jewish institutions are many and long-standing, among them a cultural center, a sports club, women's and youth Zionist organizations and a burial society.

As for the B'nai Moshe, they now have their own places of worship. "They worked hard to be strictly observant," Scialom says, "but they lived too far from our synagogues." Scialom explains why B'nai Moshe converts were relocated immediately to Israel: The rabbis wanted not only to guard against intermarriage, he says, but to assure their contact with Orthodox Jews. "Perhaps if our community were more observant," Scialom muses, "they might have been allowed to become part of us."

Embracing the families in the Amazon is more complex than recognizing the B'nai Moshe, whose Orthodox conversion has removed questions about their Jewish credentials. The Jewish faith brought to the jungle by the ancestors of the "Amazon Jews" has all but disappeared. Some in Lima grumble that the Iquitos only profess Judaism when it helps them obtain things such as free burial, immigration rights to Israel or a chance to beguile tourists.

In any case, both groups could become mere historical footnotes: The remaining B'nai Moshe could convert and move to Israel, while the Iquitos community could disappear through intermarriage.



AJWS's WORK IN LATIN AMERICA AND PERU

Source: AJWS Grants and Service Departments

AJWS's regional strategy for Latin America

AJWS is in the process of expanding and deepening our grantmaking in Latin America and the Caribbean. Our financial and technical support to grassroots and nongovernmental organizations in Latin America will increase over the next three years. We are also in a transitional phase in our Latin America work, in which we are increasing our support (gradually in some parts of the region and more quickly in others) to organizations that support ongoing processes of social change as an essential aspect of their work.

AJWS and our partner organizations throughout the region employ a human rights-based approach to development. We see the processes of development and the promotion of human rights as inextricably linked. In particular, we are committed to advancing the rights and well-being of groups that are socially, politically and economically marginalized. We believe that just and equitable development cannot take place when any human rights are denied. It is equally important for people to be able to worship and express political opinions freely as it is for them to have access to food and shelter. In fact, it is a fundamental principle of human rights theory—one borne out by history—that economic and political rights are mutually interdependent, and that neither alone allows for sustainable human development and dignity.

AJWS's work in the Americas encompasses 10 countries in the Caribbean, Mesoamerica and South America. Grants in the region focus on the rights of indigenous and Afro-descendant peoples, women and youth, sexual minorities and people living with HIV/AIDS. In Mexico, Colombia, Bolivia, Peru and Honduras, AJWS supports indigenous and Afro-descendant peoples' organizations in their work to preserve their ancestral lands and natural resources, resist harmful large-scale industrial projects, and fully realize their collective rights to self-determination and civic and political participation. Effective, accessible and equitable health and education systems depend on the active participation of women and youth. In Guatemala, AJWS partners operate community-based schools that provide high-quality bilingual intercultural education. In Peru, Bolivia and Mexico, grassroots women's groups advocate against discriminatory health policies and gender-based violence. In El Salvador and Honduras, project partners train young people as peer educators in sexual and reproductive health and in addressing issues affecting sexual minorities. In regions of violence and armed conflict, AJWS project partners work to improve people's livelihoods, health and education while advancing peace and security. In Colombia, partners build the civic and political participation of internally displaced people and demobilized youth. In Haiti, Honduras and Colombia, where conflicts are often exacerbated by disputes over land and resources, AJWS's partners work to restore ecosystems and build secure livelihoods.

Selected Project Partners

Association for the Conservation of the Cutivireni Patrimony (Asociación para la Conservación del Patrimonio del Cutivireni—ACPC): Founded in 1987, ACPC was staffed by a group of volunteers based in Lima as well as indigenous Asháninka staff in communities of the Ene and Tambo valleys. ACPC supported the Asháninka people during the crisis caused by the anti-terrorist war that enveloped Peru after 1980 and still persists in some areas of the central jungle today. ACPC's goal is to strengthen and organize the Asháninka people until they achieve just participation in the economic and social life of the country, the protection of their cultural heritage and the conservation of their region's natural patrimony.

Asociación Civil Pro Niño Intimo (Intimate Pro-Child Civil Association—ACPNI): ACPNI was created in 1996 as an initiative of professionals, business people and educators who joined forces to create an institution dedicated to the integrated development of children living in extreme poverty through sports and education programs. Its first project began with 200 mostly *mestizo*, indigenous or Afro-Peruvian children from one of Lima's slums in the youth division of the Club Alianza Lima soccer team. After two years, this integrated sports and education project expanded; Lima now has several Schools of Sports and Life, serving boys and girls in a number of Lima neighborhoods. These schools offer basic services in education, health, supplementary nutrition and vocational and arts training, with the goal of nurturing children with multiple skills and talents and empowering them to lead successful lives.

Centro para el Desarrollo Urbano y Rural (Center for Urban and Rural Development—CEPDUR): CEPDUR was founded in 1996 to advance the rights of women and youth of indigenous and Afro-descendant populations in communities with high levels of extreme poverty. CEPDUR implements income-generation and entrepreneurial training projects, and has responded to the needs of local women's organizations by working in the area of sexual and reproductive health. In 1998 CEPDUR adopted a focus on human rights and ethnic identity, and currently works with schoolteachers, local government officials, women's cooperatives, health promoters and other community members to raise awareness and understanding of human rights. The organization also promotes intercultural dialogue and cooperation between the indigenous and Afro-descendant populations of Peru and carries out research on human development among those populations.

Comunicaciones Aliadas (Allies Communications—COAL): COAL was founded by young Peruvian journalists and activists in 1970. It produces independent and reliable news and analysis about Latin America and the Caribbean with an emphasis on the problems and situations that affect the human rights of vulnerable and marginalized sectors of the population. COAL uses this research to influence individuals and organizations in pursuit of more inclusive and just societies.

LUNDU Centro de Estudios y Promoción AfroPeruanos (LUNDU Center for Afro-Peruvian Studies and Promotion): LUNDU works in the areas of human rights, sexual and reproductive health and rights, youth leadership and empowerment, and ethnic and cultural identity among the Afro-Peruvian community of the El Carmen district of Peru. With support from LUNDU, local youth carry out peer education efforts for the promotion of human rights, self-esteem, and Afro-Peruvian identity, and the dissemination of reliable and confidential information about sexuality. They employ poetry, music, dance, literature and painting to raise awareness of the community's strong cultural traditions, while addressing issues of women's and youth rights and violence against women.

Minga Peru: Founded in 1998, **Minga Peru** is devoted to working with the indigenous populations of the Tigre and Marañón rivers in the Peruvian Amazon to empower women and promote gender equity. **Minga's** method—called the "**Minga** method of communication for social change"—brings community leaders, health workers, youth and traditional healers together with **Minga's** staff to produce radio programs, training materials and community workshops that address human rights issues, income-generation methods, sustainable agricultural techniques, reproductive and preventative healthcare and traditional medicine. **Minga's** radio show, "*Bienvenida Salud*" ("Welcome Health") reaches 25,000 listeners per week. Thousands more women participate in **Minga's** trainings in health, economic development and rights at **Minga's** training center, Tambo **Minga**, or through the efforts of **Minga's** women outreach "*promotoras*" (peer health educators).

Racimos de Ungurahui (Clusters of the Ungurahui [Amazonian Palm]): Founded in 1995, **Racimos de Ungurahui** is a grassroots organization of multi-disciplinary professionals and activists that provides legal and

technical assistance to support indigenous peoples from the Pastaza Amazonian region in protecting their environment and fulfilling their rights. The organization has been very active in the fight against major petroleum companies entering the Amazon without the consent of affected communities.

Solas y Unidas (Alone and United): **Solas y Unidas** was founded in 1999 by a group of women living with HIV/AIDS who had participated in mixed-gender support groups and saw a need for programs that would serve the specific needs of women living with HIV/AIDS. **Solas y Unidas** differentiates itself from other local NGOs not only because it is exclusively staffed by women, but also because of the different approach it takes toward social action, targeting HIV-positive women. In addition to health and human rights education, support groups and experience-sharing meetings, **Solas y Unidas** provides skills training to empower women living with HIV to be advocates for treatment access and stigma reduction and to generate sources of sustainable income to provide for themselves and their families—including a clothing brand dedicated to supporting women living with HIV/AIDS.

AJWS Service Programs and Study Tours in Peru

AJWS Volunteer Summer: In 2005, 15 college students spent seven weeks living and working in Minga Peru's Tambo Minga, the organization's training center for community health promoters. The group worked on site improvements, including building a fence around the perimeter of the facility, painting the building used to house women from other communities who are participating in training sessions and assisting with the construction of bathrooms with running water. The students also met with women who were training to become *promotoras* (peer health educators) through Minga Peru's health promotion project.

AJWS Study Tours: October 2009 marks AJWS's third Peru Study Tour. The first Peru Study Tour in 2003 focused on women's empowerment.

AJWS Volunteer Corps: ACPNI, Pro Mujer and Minga Peru have each received AJWS volunteers in the past.



SOME SPANISH TO GET YOU STARTED

- In Spanish, nouns can be masculine or feminine. Masculine nouns generally end with “-o,” and the masculine article is “el.” Feminine nouns generally end with “-a,” and the feminine article is “la.”
- An adjective modifying a masculine noun ends with “-o,” and an adjective modifying a feminine noun ends with “-a.”
- There are two forms of the second person pronoun (you). “Tú” is the informal you, generally used to address younger people, or people you know very well. “Usted” is the formal you, used to address elders or people you do not know very well. When in doubt, remember that it is always polite and respectful to address someone as “Usted.”

General

Hello	Hola
Good morning	Buenos días
Good afternoon	Buenas tardes
Good evening/night	Buenas noches
What’s your name?	¿Como se llama? (U) ¿Como te llamas? (t)
My name is ...	Me llamo ...
Nice to meet you	Mucho gusto
How are you?	¿Como esta Usted? (U) ¿Como estas? (t)
I’m fine	Estoy bien
I’m doing very well	Estoy muy bien
Please	Por favor
Thank you (very much)	(Muchas) gracias
You’re welcome	De nada
Excuse me	Con permiso
I’m sorry	Lo siento
Good bye	Adios
See you later	Hasta luego

With Kids

How’s it going?	¿Qué tal?
How old are you?	¿Cuántos años tienes?(t) ¿Cuántos años tiene Usted?
What’s your favorite ... ?	¿Qué es tu ... favorito/a? (t) ¿Qué es su ... favorito/a? (U)
Subject in school	Tema en la escuela
Sport	Deporte
Game	Juego
Color	Colór
Kind of food	Tipo de comida
Soccer team	Equipo de fútbol

How cute!	¡Qué lindo/a!
How pretty/handsome!	¡Qué bonita/guapo!
Do you like ... ?	¿Te gustas ... ? (t) ¿Le gusta ... ? (U)
I like ...	Me gusta ...
To play soccer	Jugar al fútbol
To draw	Dibujar
To sing	Cantar
To dance	Bailar
To read	Leer
To go to school	Ir a la escuela
Look at (the) ...	Mira (el/la) ...

With Families

Family	La familia
House/home	La casa/el hogar
How many ... do you have?	¿Cuántos ... tiene Usted? (U) tienes tú? (t)
Brother/sister	El hermano/la hermana
Son/daughter	El hijo/la hija
Father/mother	El padre/la madre
Grandfather/ grandmother	El abuelo/ la abuela
Uncle/aunt	El tío/la tía
Cousin	El primo/la prima
Older	Mayor
Younger	Menor
Married	Casado/casada
Single	Soltero/soltera
Small boy	El niño
Small girl	La niña
Teenager	El jóven/la jóven

Friend	El amigo/la amiga	We're working	Estamos trabajando
		Can I help you?	¿Le ayudo?
In the kitchen		Can you please	¿Puede ayudarme
The kitchen	La cocina	help me with ... ?	con ... por favor?
To cook	Cocinar	I need (the) ...	Necesito (el/la) ...
Can I wash (the) ... ?	¿Puedo lavar (el/la) ... ?	Will you please	¿Por favor, puede
Can I help with ... ?	¿Puedo ayudar con ... ?	bring (the) ... ?	traer (el/la) ... ?
The bowl	El plato hondo, el tazón	We need more ...	Necesitamos mas ...
The cup	La taza	The bag	La bolsa
The fork	El tenedor	The dirt	La tierra
The glass	El vaso	The ditch	La zanja
The knife	El cuchillo	The dust	El polvo
The plate	El plato	The fence	La cerca
The pot	La olla	The gloves	Los guantes
The spoon	La cuchara	The hoe	El azadón
The salt	La sal	The hole	El hoyo
The flour	La harina	The pickaxe	El pico
The rice	El arroz	The pipe	El tubo
The beans	Los frijoles	The plant	La planta
The sugar	El azúcar	The road	El camino, la carretera
The hot sauce	La salsa picante	The rock	La piedra
The trash	La basura	The sand	La arena
The food is ...	La comida es ...	The shovel	La pala
Delicious	Deliciosa	The tree	El arbol
Hot [temperature]	Caliente	The wheelbarrow	La carretilla
Hot [spicy]	Picante		
Very tasty	Muy rica		
At Work		Traveling	
To work	Trabajar	We are going to ...	Vamos a....
To dig	Excavar, escabar	I am going to ...	Voy a...
To plant	Sembrar	Where is ... ?	Dónde está...?
To build	Construir	The bathroom/latrine	El baño/la letrina
To carry	Llevar	The market	El mercado
I'm working	Estoy trabajando	The telephone	El teléfono
		How much does	¿Cuanto cuesta esto?
		this cost?	



PERU: Recommended Reading

Books

- Alarcón, Daniel. *War by Candlelight: Stories*.
- Echenique, Alfredo Bryce. *A World for Julius*.
- Gorriti, Gustavo. *The Shining Path: A History of the Millenarian War in Peru*.
- Llosa, Mario Vargas. *Conversation in the Cathedral*.
- Llosa, Mario Vargas. *Death in the Andes*.
- Llosa, Mario Vargas. *El Pez en el Agua*.
- Kirk, Robin. *The Monkey's Paw: New Chronicles from Peru*.
- Poma, Huaman. *Letter to a King: A Peruvian Chief's Account of Life Under Incas and Spanish Rule*.
- Prescott, William H. *History of the Conquest of Peru*.
- Segal, Ariel. *Jews of the Amazon*.
- Wilder, Thornton. *The Bridge of San Luis Rey*.

Articles

- Barrig, Maruja. "Women, Collective Kitchens and the Crisis of the State in Peru." John Friedmann, Rebecca Abers and Lillian Auter, eds., *Emergences: Women's Struggles for Livelihood in Latin America*. Los Angeles: UCLA Latin American Center Publications, 1996.
- Jo-Marie Burt (1996). "Local NGOs in Peru Devise an Alternative Anti-Poverty Program," *NACLA Report on the Americas*, May/June. <http://www.hartford-hwp.com/archives/42a/014.html>

Calderón, Ernesto García. "Peru's Decade of Living Dangerously," *Journal of Democracy* 12(2): 46-58, 2001

Cotler, Julio. "Popular Deluge: The Informal Sector, Political Independents, and the State in Peru." *The Changing Role of the State in Latin America*, Menno Vellinga, ed. Boulder, CO: Westview Press, 1998.

Panfichi, Aldo. "The Authoritarian Alternative: 'Anti-Politics' in the Popular Sectors of Lima." *The New Politics of Inequality in Latin America: Rethinking Participation and Representation*, Douglas A. Chalmers, et al., eds. Oxford: Oxford University Press, 1997.

Roberts, Kenneth. "Neoliberalism and the Transformation of Populism in Latin America: The Peruvian Case," *World Politics* 48:1: 82-116, 1996.

Rosenberg, Tina. "Dialectic," *Children of Cain: Violence and the Violent in Latin America*. New York: Penguin Books, 1992.

Films

- Fitzcarraldo* (1982, Werner Herzog)
- The Fall of Fujimori* (2006, Ellen Perry)
- The Bridge of San Luis Rey* (2005, Mary McGuckian)

Websites

- Peruvian Parliamentary Portal: <http://www.congreso.gob.pe/>
- Minga Peru: <http://www.mingaPeru.org/>
- Solas y Unidas: <http://www.solasyunidas.org/>
- Reuters AlertNet Peru: <http://www.alertnet.org/db/cp/Peru.htm>

NOTES



American Jewish World Service (AJWS) is an international development organization motivated by Judaism's imperative to pursue justice. AJWS is dedicated to alleviating poverty, hunger and disease among the people of the developing world regardless of race, religion or nationality. Through grants to grassroots organizations, volunteer service, advocacy and education, AJWS fosters civil society, sustainable development and human rights for all people, while promoting the values and responsibilities of global citizenship within the Jewish community.

For more information, please visit www.ajws.org.

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