

NHSMUN

National High School Model United Nations



BACKGROUND GUIDE

2021

Hist. Crisis

Topic A: A Nation's Rise from Ruins – Post-WWII Japanese Reconstruction (1946)

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Good day delegates,

My name is Brandon Heimberg, and I am your Session I Director for Historical Crisis! I am currently attending American University as a sophomore, and I am double majoring in International Relations and Economics with a minor in Spanish. I am originally from New Jersey, specifically Central Jersey. I enjoy a good fantasy adventure, but sometimes I'll read up about financial topics. I am very passionate about finance and business, but I also study biology and law as well. I'm all for creating relationships with people, and I love a good conversation! Outside of academics, I have always really been into Brazilian Jiu-Jitsu, and I have to say that it is by far my favorite sport. Nowadays, I stick to swimming, biking, or short runs (with an emphasis on short). I have also recently just been getting into playing the bass guitar, and I'm super excited to keep learning. MasterChef Canada will always be one of my favorite shows, as I can't help but love watching other people cook (to sharpen my skills, of course).

My Model UN career began when I was a freshman in high school. At the time, could not talk in front of groups of people. During my time in high school, I learned that crisis committees are the best committees, but more importantly, I experienced amazing growth. At the end of my junior year, I was elected to be Secretary-General of my program and carried the position through my senior year. It was during this time that I learned the most about myself and of the value that Model UN had brought to my life. After graduating, I now continue my Model UN career by serving as a Simulation Coordinator at AmeriMUNC, and as your Director for the Historical Crisis!

My Co-Director, Hunter, and I have worked closely with one another over these past few months to put together this Background Guide, and I have to say that I am delighted to present to you all with the finished product! Not only is this committee and conference going to give you a new perspective on an important part of America's history, but we have created a topic that will be extremely exciting and fun. As soon as you walk through those committee doors, I (or Hunter) will formally be known as "Douglas MacArthur," and you will be on your way to changing history as we know it!

Hunter and I have provided you with this Background Guide to complement your research on the topic. I advise you to keep in mind the focal points of this guide while you continue your own research until the conference. I am genuinely looking forward to meeting all of you, and I wish everyone the best of luck in their preparation for the committee!

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Historical Crisis
Session I



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Dear Delegates,

Hello, my name is Hunter Atkins, and I am your Session II director for this Historical Crisis Committee! My Co-Director, Brandon, and I are extremely excited to present this year's Historical Crisis Background Guide! I hope that every one of you is very excited about diving into our topic, as Brandon and I have been so excited to see this topic come to life. This topic is undoubtedly unique, and I hope this committee simulation at NHSMUN 2021 is an experience you will not forget!

I am currently a sophomore at Auburn University (War Eagle!) studying chemical engineering. I love watching soccer, cooking (but not as much as eating), and playing Minecraft. If you ever want to talk about soccer, I am your guy. I also am an Eagle Scout, so I enjoy anything outdoors, especially hiking around state parks. Now, I know you probably think that chemical engineering does not really go with Model UN, but I have been heavily involved in Model UN for six years! I have participated in many MUN conferences around the Southeast and even got to chair a historical crisis committee at my high school's conference my senior year. Crisis committees have always been my favorite because they keep everyone in the room involved and thinking on their feet while also bringing out people's creative side! I also find MUN enriching because it combines learning with collaboration and diplomacy, which expand your worldview.

Both Brandon and I believe this committee simulation will be particularly exhilarating, covering a topic most of the public does not learn about much. The American occupation of Japan was an expedition into uncharted political territory. The decisions made during this transition determined whether the state of Japan and its citizens would survive after the devastation of World War II. The primary focus of the committee is not on Japan during World War II, but on how the American occupation of the country changed Japan's role in the course of history while the country was struggling to stay afloat. However, the major events of WWII, especially if they deal with Japan, will be important for delegates to know because they will determine what steps need to be taken to revitalize the "land of the rising sun."

I strongly encourage you to conduct independent research in tandem with reading this Background Guide because learning about different viewpoints on a topic will help you form your own perspective on the topic and figure out how you will address the issues that come with the topic. This committee will hopefully be challenging to you all, and with that challenge comes an extra bit of preparing and thinking about the topic. I think that will be very rewarding during the conference when you face exciting crises equipped with all your knowledge on the topic! If you have any questions, feel free to reach out to Brandon or me. I absolutely cannot wait to meet you all and see what creative solutions you will come up with!

Best Regards,

Hunter Atkins

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Historical Crisis

Session II



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A Note on the NHSMUN Difference

Esteemed Faculty and Delegates,

Welcome to NHSMUN 2020! Our names are Rose Blackwell and JJ Packer, and we are this year's Directors-General. Thank you for choosing to attend NHSMUN, the world's largest Model United Nations conference for secondary school students. We are thrilled to welcome you to our conference in March!

As a space for collaboration, consensus, and compromise, NHSMUN strives to transform today's brightest thinkers into tomorrow's leaders. Our organization provides a uniquely tailored experience for all in attendance through innovative and accessible programming. We believe that an emphasis on education through simulation is paramount to the Model UN experience, and this idea permeates throughout NHSMUN.

Debate founded on strong knowledge: With knowledgeable staff members and delegates from over 70 countries, NHSMUN can facilitate an enriching experience reliant on substantively rigorous debate. To ensure this high quality of debate, our staff members produce extremely detailed and comprehensive topic overviews (like the one below) to prepare delegates for the complexities and nuances inherent in global issues. This process takes over six months, during which the Directors who lead our committees develop their topics with the valuable input of expert contributors. Because these topics are always changing and evolving, NHSMUN also produces update papers intended to bridge the gap of time between when the background guides are published and when committee starts in March. As such, this guide is designed to be a launching point from which delegates should delve further into their topics.

Extremely prepared and engaged staff: The detailed knowledge that our directors provide in this background guide through diligent research aims to spur critical thought within delegates at NHSMUN. Before the conference, our Directors and Assistant Directors are trained rigorously through copious hours of exercises and workshops to provide the best conference experience possible. Beyond this, our Directors and Assistant Directors read every position paper submitted to NHSMUN and provide thoughtful insight on those submitted by the feedback deadline. Our staff aims not only to tailor the committee experience to delegates' reflections and research but also to facilitate an environment where all delegates' thoughts can be heard.

Emphasis on participation: The UN relies on the voices of all of its Member States to create resolutions most likely to make a dramatic impact on the world. That is our philosophy at NHSMUN too. We believe that to properly delve into an issue and produce fruitful debate, it is crucial to focus the entire energy and attention of the room on the topic at hand. Our Rules of Procedure and our staff focus on making every voice in the committee heard, regardless of each delegate's country assignment or skill level. However, unlike many other conferences, we also emphasize delegate participation after the conference. MUN delegates are well researched and aware of the UN's priorities, and they can serve as the vanguard for action on the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs). Therefore, we are proud to also connect students with other action-oriented organizations to encourage further work on the topics.

Focused committee time: We feel strongly that interpersonal connections during debate are critical to producing superior committee experiences and allow for the free flow of ideas. Ensuring policies based on equality and inclusion is one way in which NHSMUN guarantees that every delegate has an equal opportunity to succeed in committee. We staff a very dedicated team who type up and format draft resolutions and working papers so that committee time can be focused on communication and collaboration.

Educational emphasis, even for awards: At the heart of NHSMUN lies education and compromise. As such, when NHSMUN does distribute awards, we de-emphasize their importance in comparison to the educational value of Model UN as an activity.

NHSMUN seeks to reward schools whose students excel in the arts of compromise and diplomacy. More importantly, we seek to develop an environment in which delegates can employ their critical thought processes and share ideas with their counterparts from around the world. We always prioritize teamwork and encourage our delegates to engage with others diplomatically and inclusively. In particular, our daises look for and promote constructive leadership that strives towards consensus, as delegates do in the United Nations.

Realism and accuracy: Although a perfect simulation of the UN is never possible, we believe that one of the core educational responsibilities of MUN conferences is to educate students about how the UN System works. Each NHSMUN committee is a simulation of a real deliberative body so that delegates can research what their country has said in the committee. Our topics are chosen from the issues currently on the agenda of that committee (except historical committees, which take topics from the appropriate time period). This creates incredible opportunities for our delegates to do first-hand research by reading the actual statements their country has made and the resolutions they have supported. We also incorporate real UN and NGO experts into each committee through our committee speakers program and arrange for meetings between students and the actual UN Permanent Mission of the country they are representing. No other conference goes so far to deeply immerse students into the UN System.

As always, we welcome any questions or concerns about the substantive program at NHSMUN 2020 and would be happy to discuss NHSMUN pedagogy with faculty or delegates.

Delegates, it is our sincerest hope that your time at NHSMUN will be thought-provoking and stimulating. NHSMUN is an incredible time to learn, grow, and embrace new opportunities. We look forward to seeing you work both as students and global citizens at the conference.

Best,

Rose Blackwell and JJ Packer
Directors-General

A Note on Research and Preparation

Delegate research and preparation is a critical element of attending NHSMUN and enjoying the conference's intellectual and cosmopolitan perspective. We have provided this Background Guide to introduce the topics that will be discussed in your committee. This document is designed to give you a description of the committee's mandate and the topics on its agenda. We do not intend to represent exhaustive research on every facet of the topics. We encourage and expect each of you to critically explore the selected topics and be able to identify and analyze their intricacies upon arrival to NHSMUN in March. Delegates must be prepared to intelligently utilize your knowledge and apply it to your country's unique policy.

The task of preparing for the conference can be challenging, but to assist delegates, we have updated our [Beginner Delegate Guide](#) and [Advanced Delegate Guide](#). In particular, these guides contain more detailed instructions on how to prepare a position paper and excellent sources that delegates can use for research. Use these resources to your advantage—they can help transform a sometimes-overwhelming task into what it should be: an engaging, interesting, and rewarding experience.

An essential part of representing a state in an international body is the ability to articulate a given state's views in writing. Accordingly, NHSMUN requires each delegation (the one or two delegates representing a country in a committee) to write a position paper for both topics on the committee's agenda. In delegations with two students, we strongly encourage each student to participate in the research for both topics, to ensure that both students are prepared to debate no matter what topic is selected first. More information about how to write and format position papers can be found in the NHSMUN Research Guide. To summarize, position papers should be structured into three sections, described below.

I: Topic Background – This section should describe the history of the topic as it would be described by the delegate's country. Delegates do not need to give an exhaustive account of the topic background, but rather focus on the details that are most important to the delegation's policy and proposed solutions.

II: Country Policy – This section should discuss the delegation's policy regarding the topic. Each paper should state the policy in plain terms and include the relevant statements, statistics, and research that support the effectiveness of the policy. Comparisons with other global issues are also appropriate here.

III. Proposed Solutions – This section should detail the delegation's proposed solutions to address the topic. Descriptions of each solution should be thorough. Each idea should clearly connect to the specific problem it aims to solve and identify potential obstacles to implementation and how they can be avoided. The solution should be a natural extension of the country's policy.

Each topic's position paper should be **no more than 10 pages** long for both topics combined double-spaced with standard margins and font size. **We recommend 2-4 pages per topic as a suitable length.** The paper must be written from the perspective of the country you are representing at NHSMUN 2021 and should articulate the policies you will espouse at the conference.

Each delegation is responsible for sending a copy of its papers to their committee Directors via [myDais](#) on or before **19 February 2021**. If a delegate wishes to receive detailed feedback from the committee's dais, a position must be submitted on or before **29 January 2021**. The papers received by this earlier deadline will be reviewed by the dais of each committee and returned prior to your arrival at the conference.

Complete instructions for how to submit position papers will be sent to faculty advisers via the email submitted at registration. If delegations are unable to submit their position papers on time, they should contact us at info@imuna.org as soon as possible.

Delegations that do not submit position papers to directors will be ineligible for awards.

Committee History

This committee will simulate a fictional meeting of the leaders of the Supreme Commander of the Allied Powers (SCAP)—representing the post-war leadership of the Allied Occupation—and the Japanese National Diet. Although both organizations collaborated extensively during the reconstruction process, such a meeting between these specific senior leaders likely did not occur.

The Japanese National Diet, originally called the Imperial Diet, is the national legislature of Japan and was established under the Meiji Constitution of 1889. The Diet's function remained largely a check upon the executive branch with little ability to write or introduce legislation. Therefore, it remained on the sidelines of Japanese politics until its reconstruction. The Diet took many of its practices from the Prussian system, where the term “Diet” comes from. As of 1945, the Diet is composed of two houses with equal authorities. The upper house is led by the nobility and wealthy business leaders, and the lower house is composed of elected officials. There are 467 members in the house of Representatives, and approximately 400 members in the House of Peers.¹ Both of these houses must work together to pass bills brought to them by the cabinet, sometimes leading to conflict between members of each house.

The General Headquarters (GHQ) of the SCAP and the National Diet Headquarters are centered in Tokyo. The Supreme Commander of the Allied Powers (SCAP) was formed following Japan's surrender in World War II. It consisted mainly of United States military leaders, although it also included representatives from the United Kingdom and the Soviet Union.² The SCAP is led by Gen. Douglas MacArthur, one of the few ever granted the rank of General of the Army in the US Army. He has decades of experience working in the East Asian theater, and he has been given broad discretion to direct the reconstruction of Japan and the creation of a new constitution. Gen. MacArthur's strategy of implementing his changes through the existing processes of the elected Japanese government led to extensive collaboration between the SCAP and Japanese political leaders, whose input was closely considered as reforms were implemented. At the time of our simulation on October 31, 1945, Japan is completely devastated economically, socially, and politically. Millions of Japanese lives have been lost in the war, and most of its infrastructure is ruined after American bombings. It is up to this committee to navigate Japan through this dangerous and tumultuous time.

1 The Editors of Encyclopaedia Britannica. “Diet.” Encyclopædia Britannica. Encyclopædia Britannica, inc., February 23, 2016. <https://www.britannica.com/topic/Diet-Japanese-government>.

2 “Occupation and Reconstruction of Japan, 1945–52.” U.S. Department of State. U.S. Department of State. Accessed September 10, 2020. <https://history.state.gov/milestones/1945-1952/japan-reconstruction>.

Simulation

This committee will be operating with some modified procedural aspects because of the unique way that delegates will be able to change the flow of the committee. There will be less of an emphasis on formal debate and, because of the nature of a crisis simulation, the committee will encourage fast and detailed debate. Because delegates represent individuals tied to areas of government as opposed to the countries in general, roles are more specific, while also giving delegates the task of ensuring that their actions are appropriate for both who they represent and the governing body as a whole.

Because this crisis simulation has specific responsibilities and mandates, delegates must be aware that each action taken must follow their representative's unique policy while also falling in line with actions prescribed in the governing body's mandate. If an action is taken outside of its mandate, it will be ruled improper and removed from consideration. The aforementioned responsibilities require different procedural mechanisms; thus, this committee will use heavily modified procedural rules during both the mandate review and crisis management portions of debate. Due to the complex nature of this committee, we encourage delegates to read the following pages thoroughly.

Individual and Committee Mandates

Delegates must become absolute experts on the background, politics, and past actions of their assigned positions. This exceptional knowledge is needed to prepare for updates that will be presented to delegates at an extremely rapid rate. New crises will emerge throughout committee sessions, and delegates must call upon past actions attempted by the governing body as well as the current situation to formulate a response that is in line with their assigned character's policy. If delegates are not aware of their standing on an issue of their own policy platforms, contradictory and unfeasible policies may arise, slowing down committee and halting debate. With informed delegates, the committee will make informed decisions. For a more detailed account of the various roles, their duties, and functions, please refer to the Committee Representatives section of the paper.

Similarly, delegates must be well informed of this cabinet's powers and the types of actions it can take diplomatically and militarily. For example, delegates cannot compel a military response from members unless Article 5 is invoked. Anything outside the mandate of the body will not be accepted. The committee will be tasked with a variety of issues that will encompass many parts of its mandate, and so prioritizing will be key to ensuring that crises are responded to efficiently. Various actors will have access to information or resources which the whole committee does not have access to. As a result, individuals will have to make decisions on whether they want to respond to issues unilaterally, work with other actors, or through the committee as a whole. Delegates will also have their own agendas, and delegates must consider what they can gain for their countries by approaching a situation in a certain way.

Special Parliamentary Procedures

To better control the unique powers of this committee, special rules and procedures will be adopted. Three forms of debate will be used in this crisis simulation: round robin, roundtable, and moderated caucus. When a standard committee ends a caucus with no further motions, debate automatically returns to the speakers list. This is called the "default debate format." In our simulation, once another form of debate is exhausted, such as a moderated or unmoderated caucus, the committee will revert to a non-exhaustible moderated caucus with a speaking time to be decided at the chair's discretion. This will be this committee's new default debate format. The speaking time can be adjusted by the delegates via a motion.

To modify the default debate style, delegates will have a new procedural motion available to them during debate being a "motion to change the default debate style." The motion will require a simple majority to pass and will not require any speakers for

or against. At the start of committee, the chair will accept motions to set the debate style, generally a moderated caucus with speaking time selected by simple majority; however, the dais understands that it may become necessary from time to time for the committee to create a speakers list or enter a round robin of speeches to have each delegate elaborate on their respective policies.

If the committee reaches a portion of debate where delegates feel that a more fluid form of procedure is needed, such as a time elapsing crisis in which delegates will be forced to solve a specific issue in a controlled period, a new form of debate is necessary. Debate during these segments will need to move much faster than the crisis debate before this period to meet the time requirements set by the dais at which the crisis shall be solved. During these situations, the committee can vote for a roundtable discussion. Thus, delegates will openly discuss the crisis at hand without a structured speaking time. This form of debate resembles an unmoderated caucus that is held at the table to help delegates hear all points of view on the present without a time limit. Of course, if delegates find that the crisis requires a lot of writing, an unmoderated caucus can be motioned for as well.

The last form of debate style is called “round robin.” During this form of debate, each delegate will be allotted a time to speak on the topic. Each time this form of debate is used, a different person will start a speech and then move clockwise or counterclockwise from that delegate. If a delegate wishes to not speak on the issue, they can merely say “pass” to the chair, and their speaking time will be absorbed by the dais. In addition, a delegate may also say, “I yield my time to the chair” to skip his/her speech. To move into this style of debate, a delegate may simply request the following: “motion to change the debate style to a round robin.”

Final Products

The document output for the crisis portions will be heavily modified as well. Because of the nature of the updates provided throughout committee, there will be no resolutions used in this committee. Instead, the committee may pass three types of documents: **press releases**, **communiqués**, and **directives**. Press releases and communiqués are similar documents but have quite different uses. Press releases are when the committee or individuals wish to make information of any kind available to the public. On the other hand, communiqués are addressed to particular individuals and will not be released into the public eye. Anyone who can access a newspaper can subsequently access press releases, but only selected recipients can access communiqués. Thus, if a cabinet member only wants one other cabinet member to know of their stance on an issue, a communiqué may be issued to only that one cabinet member.

Directives are of an entirely different nature. Standard resolutions take far too long to write and are very ineffective when dealing with constant crisis. Thus, the committee will utilize directives as an alternative to resolutions. Directives exercise the executive power of the committee in any way that it sees fit. For example, delegates of the committee may redirect aid, distribute pamphlets about the issues, or anything that delegates can think of as long as it falls under the mandate of the committee. Directives are only comprised of sponsors and operatives, and all perambulatory clauses that a resolution must have are stripped. Thus, a directive is a less formal resolution, having only the operative needed and sponsors enlisted.

Each of these documents will require a different voting procedure to be passed. Communiqués sent from individuals concerning a representative’s own organization do not need to come before a public vote. Rather, the communiqué is simply handed to chair and immediately passed. Similarly, for directives, if it is within the individual powers of your organization then the committee does not have to pass it for it to go into effect. However, the committee must approve communiqués and directives sent from the governing body. These documents must have three members as sponsors to be considered, and no signatories are needed. After the directive or communiqué is presented to the dais, the dais will formally present it to the committee. At this time, the committee may either vote immediately on the piece, or the committee may continue to debate the proposal. To enter voting procedure, the committee must approve a motion to vote on the proposals on the floor, and it requires two-thirds to pass. Proposals that

pass will immediately go into effect, and proposals that fail will no longer be recognized by the dais and will be returned to one of the sponsors. The document may be altered and reintroduced, but it must go through the voting process once again.

Final Notes and Summary

This committee will be moving extremely quickly, especially during crisis situations. There is no formula to provide the real-time at which a crisis is moving (e.g., 1 crisis minute = 1 simulation hour) since this would make some portions of debate outlandishly quick and others extremely slow. Instead, crisis times and allotted periods for discussion will be under the chair's discretion. All crises will be accompanied by a day, month, and year to keep delegates aware of how the committee is moving. Clearly, this committee is extremely unique and moves at a much different pace than all other committees at NHSMUN. However, if delegates come into committee having read this document and already possessing a rudimentary understanding how this secretariat will function, then the committee shall run smoothly. Delegates will also quickly pick up these concepts as debate moves.

If there are any questions or concerns, please feel free to contact Crisis directors.



HIST. CRISIS

NHSMUN 2021



TOPIC A:

A NATION'S RISE FROM RUINS – POST-WWII JAPANESE RECONSTRUCTION (1946)

Photo Credit: Gaetano Faillace

Introduction

The Empire of Japan surrendered on August 15, 1945, when the government notified the Allies that they accepted the Potsdam Declaration.¹ Two months after the Japanese surrender, the American military occupation began in a joint allied operation known as the Occupation of Japan.² The two main goals of the occupation, which officially began on August 28, were to carry out the demilitarization of Japan and aid in its democratization. In reality, the American occupation would play a larger role in reshaping Japanese society. Reforms to education systems, the expansion of labor unions, and improvements to the rights of women, among many other changes, are under discussion as the occupation creates a new government for Japan.³ Our simulation begins on October 31, 1945, when Japan is still reeling from the devastation of war. Millions of Japanese lives were lost in the war, and American bombing runs destroyed most of the country's infrastructure, leaving countless more unemployed and isolated.⁴ The American military is led by the Supreme Commander to the Allied Powers (SCAP), General Douglas MacArthur, who closely works with the Japanese legislative body, the National Diet. Their relationship has been nurtured with hopes to improve the post-war situation in Japan and garner support from the Japanese people.⁵

During the war, the Japanese government focused on expanding its military, with particular emphasis on the expansion and accumulation of raw materials, while subjecting its citizens to forced labor in factories, thus widening the economic and social gap.⁶ Therefore, many citizens view the American occupation as the last hope of restoring stability and prosperity to Japan and its people. However, because the United States was the main enemy of Japan in World War II, causing extensive damage to its vulnerable cities and towns, many Japanese citizens are still opposed to the presence of American soldiers.⁷ The peace between the US and Japan is still extremely fragile, and if mismanaged, could lead to a new outbreak of violence.

It is estimated that around 25 percent of Japan's wealth and property was destroyed as a result of the Allied assault on the main islands. Living standards in rural areas have fallen to 65 percent of pre-war standards and 35 percent in urban

areas.⁸ These issues of wealth inequality only exacerbated the effects of already dire food shortages for many Japanese citizens. Many Japanese citizens are also suffering from communicable diseases such as tuberculosis, which is flourishing in the rubble and filth left behind after the war.⁹ The members of the SCAP and the National Diet will need to discuss how to provide relief to these and other hardships with comprehensive and collective solutions.

The working relationship between the members of the SCAP and the National Diet is vital to reconstruction success, as the SCAP has ample authority given its militaristic control over the country. However, the National Diet is the official legislative body of Japan, and care must be given when working with this supreme organ. Attention must be paid when passing directives for the reconstruction of Japan while trying to gain the approval of the Japanese people. When working to in-

1 "Potsdam Declaration," Encyclopedia Britannica, accessed August 10, 2020, <https://www.britannica.com/topic/Potsdam-Declaration>

2 "Chronology of the Occupation," *US Army Center of Military History*, (1946): 8-5.1 AB, <https://history.army.mil/documents/8-5/8-5.htm>.

3 Grant K. Goodman, comp., "The American Occupation of Japan," (The University of Kansas, 1968), 1-2, <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/c7cf/8e9f223e390564bf9f218b7c510c2c093aa3.pdf>.

4 "The Last Days of Imperial Japan," Council on Foreign Relations, accessed July 19, 2020, <https://www.cfr.org/timeline/last-days-imperial-japan>.

5 Asia for Educators, "The American Occupation of Japan, 1945-1952," Columbia University, accessed July 19, 2020, http://afe.easia.columbia.edu/special/japan_1900_occupation.htm.

6 "Bringing Democracy to Japan," Constitutional Rights Foundation, accessed July 18, 2020, <https://www.crf-usa.org/election-central/bringing-democracy-to-japan.html>.

7 Endo, "Douglas MacArthur's occupation of Japan | Building the foundation of U.S.-Japan relationship," ScholarWorks at University of Montana, 2006, <https://scholarworks.umt.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=3123&context=etd>.

8 Robert J. Baran, "Some of the Serious Conditions in Japan after WWII," accessed July 20, 2020, <https://www.magiminiland.org/BigPicture/PostWarJapan.html>.

9 Baran, "Some of the Serious Conditions in Japan after WWII."

roduce democratic principles into Japanese society, members of the SCAP and the National Diet will need to consider the history of the Japanese government, who has relied on political systems that did not contain any semblance of democracy. With many Japanese citizens on the brink of starvation and society crumbling around them, members of the SCAP and the National Diet need to work quickly and diligently to provide short-term relief to its citizens, as well as establish long-term viable economic and democratic infrastructure to give the country the ability to stand on its own.

History and Description of the Issue

Reorganization of the Japanese Political System

The history of Japan's political system is centered on the ruling power of the imperial dynasty. During the Kofun period (250–538), the first decision to invoke a central government in the country arose while Japan was establishing close contact with many countries in mainland Asia.¹⁰ With a political hub centered around the Japanese province of Yamato, the country was loosely united as Yamato Japan. Powerful rulers of Japanese clans, especially the Yamato clan, came together to establish the imperial dynasty.¹¹ Shortly after, the Soga clan, a family who played an essential role in spreading Buddhism in the country, took control of the political institutions, leaving the emperors as a largely ceremonial symbol of the state.

During the Asuka Period (538–710), one of Japan's most well-known figures was Prince Shotoku Taishi, who ruled from 593–622. Influenced by Confucian and Buddhist principles, Prince Shotoku believed that the rulers ruled at the will of

a supreme force.¹² He wrote the Constitution of Seventeen Articles about moral and political principles. Since then, Japanese emperors have believed that a state is governed by moral examples more than law, thus shaping the beliefs of generations of Japanese citizens.¹³ He moved to centralize the government and establish a bureaucracy of merit, where government officials were chosen based on their progression through a Confucian education system, fashioned after the pattern in China.¹⁴ Shortly after Prince Shotoku's death, and a coup d'état against the Soga clan, Fujiwara Kamatari founded the Fujiwara family, which ruled from the 9th to the 12th centuries. Following the coup, the new rulers sought to suppress the influence and strength of the Soga clan, culminating in a series of reforms.¹⁵ The Taika Reforms aimed to increase the emperor's power and the prowess of many aristocratic families, strengthening the hierarchy of the ruling class.¹⁶ During this period of Japanese history, there were not many economic or cultural advancements in Japan because of the chaos sown among the powerful clans as they vied for power.¹⁷

Over the following centuries, the imperial court gradually lost power in Japan. The aristocracy and the rise of influential military clans left the emperor without much influence. Military governments began to accumulate power previously held by the imperial court.¹⁸ This new government was directed by the shogun, a hereditary military ruler. The shogun fought against rival military clans competing for control of the country.¹⁹ When power was consolidated, however, the shogun effectively had full control of the government, leaving the emperor as a ceremonial figure again.²⁰ Nonetheless, the imperial system, especially the emperor, outlined the authoritative structure for the political system and established the

10 Asia Society, "Japanese History," accessed June 10, 2020, <https://asiasociety.org/education/japanese-history>.

11 Louis D. Hayes, *Introduction to Japanese Politics* (Routledge, August 21, 2017), General History.

12 Charley Linden Thorp, "Prince Shotoku: Founder of Japanese Buddhism and the Japanese Nation," Ancient History Encyclopedia, accessed August 10, 2020, <https://www.ancient.eu/article/1029/prince-shotoku-founder-of-japanese-buddhism-and-th/>

13 "Confucianism," Asia Society: Center for Global Education, accessed August 10, 2020, <https://asiasociety.org/education/confucianism#:~:text=Confucianism%20is%20often%20characterized%20as,ideals%20of%20traditional%20Chinese%20society.>

14 Asia Society, "Japanese History."

15 The Editors of Encyclopaedia Britannica, "Taika era reforms," *Encyclopaedia Britannica*, last modified September 13, 2012, <https://www.britannica.com/event/Taika-era-reforms>.

16 Asia Society, "Japanese History."

17 Hayes, *Introduction to Japanese Politics*, General History.

18 Asia Society, "Japanese History."

19 Asia Society, "Japanese History."

20 Hayes, *Introduction to Japanese Politics*, General History.

roles civilians and other Japanese officials would have during this time.²¹ Dominant *daimyo* families, feudal lords who were subordinate to the shogunate, ruled most of Japan throughout this period.²² Towards the late 15th century, the shogunate was disputed by different powers supported by various *daimyo* families. This dispute led to a period of constant chaos lasting over 150 years.²³

Throughout the 16th century, Japan was wrought with civil war until Oda Nobunaga, a *daimyo*, unified the country and laid the groundwork for the modern state of Japan.²⁴ Soon after Nobunaga's death, the Tokugawa shogunate was founded and established a period of relative peace maintained by the strict rule of a rigid social hierarchy and national isolation from the rest of the world.²⁵ While shoguns had the ultimate ability to rule throughout Japan, the *daimyo* were given almost complete jurisdiction over their respective domains. The shogun kept a close eye on the *daimyo* to ensure that they were ruling justly. The top of the social hierarchy in the domain of a *daimyo* included the samurai, which had military authority over the *daimyo*, with the farmers coming in second because they paid the rice tax that supplied the samurai with food.²⁶ The shogunate ruled during this time with ultimate power, passing down their role through a hereditary dynasty.²⁷

For much of Japan's historical development, it had remained closed off to the rest of the world and focused on international isolation and domestic politics. Only in the mid-1800s was Japan brought out of its isolation and onto the world stage. Commodore Matthew C. Perry of the United States

Navy sailed into Tokyo on July 8, 1853.²⁸ Perry forced Japan to reopen commerce and diplomatic relations with the West after centuries of isolation, revealing the weakness of the Tokugawa shogunate.²⁹ Following haphazard attempts at reform, the shogunate was overthrown by samurai in 1868, known as the Meiji Restoration. The samurai chose Emperor Meiji, a 15-year-old, as the new head of government.³⁰ The restoration began an effort to modernize the nation at levels parallel with the Western world.³¹ The new ruling power in Japan was centralized to a bureaucracy that ruled in the name of the emperor, quite different from any past governing style. However, the emperor did not have supreme authority. In 1889, Meiji proclaimed a constitution as a gift to the people from him. The new constitution set up a bicameral parliament whose decisions could be vetoed by the emperor, gave the elite the right to vote, and recognized the emperor as the ultimate source of authority.³² The Meiji period lasted until Emperor Meiji died in 1912.³³

After Meiji's death, his son Taisho became the next emperor. For health reasons, Emperor Taisho was unable to rule for most of his life, so his son, Hirohito, ruled as regent.³⁴ During his period, famously known as the Taisho Democracy, the country adopted a parliamentary constitutional monarchy. The democracy gave many new freedoms to Japanese citizens, including economic independence, universal male suffrage in 1925, and access to international cultures. Many past governing systems were discarded amidst the fear of possible uproar from a large majority of older Japanese people who were resistant to and unfamiliar with Western governing systems.³⁵

21 Hayes, *Introduction to Japanese Politics*, General History.

22 Kallie Szczepanski, "Who Were the Daimyo Lords of Feudal Japan?" ThoughtCo., last modified August 10, 2019, <https://www.thoughtco.com/a-brief-history-japans-daimyo-lords-195308>.

23 Szczepanski, "Who Were the Daimyo Lords of Feudal Japan?"

24 Asia Society, "Japanese History."

25 Asia Society, "Japanese History."

26 Ohno, "The Economic Development of Japan." GRIPS Development Forum, 2006, 11-162, <https://www.grips.ac.jp/forum/pdf06/EDJ.pdf>.

27 Szczepanski, "Who Were the Daimyo Lords of Feudal Japan?"

28 "Matthew C. Perry," Encyclopædia Britannica, accessed August 10, 2020, <https://www.britannica.com/biography/Matthew-C-Perry>

29 Asia for Educators, "Commodore Perry and Japan (1853-1854)," Columbia University, 2020, http://afe.easia.columbia.edu/special/japan_1750_perry.htm

30 TEA Online Curriculum Projects, "The Nature of Sovereignty in Japan, 1870s-1920s," University of Colorado Boulder, accessed August 10, 2020, <https://www.colorado.edu/ptea-curriculum/becoming-modern/nature-sovereignty-japan-1870s-1920s>

31 Asia for Educators, "Japan's Modern History: An Outline of the Period," Columbia University, 2009, http://afe.easia.columbia.edu/timelines/japan_modern_timeline.htm.

32 TEA Online Curriculum Projects, "The Nature of Sovereignty in Japan, 1870s-1920s."

33 TEA Online Curriculum Projects, "The Nature of Sovereignty in Japan, 1870s-1920s."

34 TEA Online Curriculum Projects, "The Nature of Sovereignty in Japan, 1870s-1920s."

35 Ohno, "The Economic Development of Japan."

Japan's journey to industrialize and modernize as quickly as possible to compete with the Western powers went largely unrecognized by many Western countries, especially the United States. Japanese people and leaders saw this disregard as a form of disrespect for Japan. This belief became entrenched over the following decades, creating resentment of the Western powers that Japan sought to emulate.³⁶

During the late 19th century and early 20th century, various branches of the Japanese government began competing for consolidated power in the interest of the emperor.³⁷ Under the Meiji Constitution, the emperor was the Head of State with wide-reaching political powers while the Prime Minister



Emperor Meiji photographed in full court dress, 1873

served under the emperor in his cabinet acting as the Head of Government. A legislative body known as the Imperial or National Diet was established as the highest law-making legislative body in the state. It was broken up into two houses: the House of Peers and the House of Representatives. This body still functions as the main legislative body of Japan to this day in 1945. The House of Peers consists of members from the Imperial family, people of nobility, and those chosen by the emperor, while the House of Representatives consists of members elected by the Japanese people.³⁸

During this period, the Japanese military expanded for two reasons. The first was to assist in the country's competition with Western powers, and the second was to protect from future invasion by foreign powers.³⁹ The Japanese government strongly pushed for industrial growth to further foreign expansion and trade, causing rapid urbanization as cities became populated by people working in factories and offices.⁴⁰ Japan's dramatic development of a modern industrial system was largely at the expense of the working class.⁴¹ With the growth of Japan's cotton and silk industries, many middle and lower-class families had to send their daughters to work in the mills. This practice was often not followed by families of higher-up government officials, emphasizing the division and resentment between the social classes of this time.⁴²

Exposed to the political ideologies of many Western countries, Japan attempted to turn towards democratic principles during the early years of the 20th century.⁴³ Towards the late 1920s, Japan's failure to catch up with Western powers was heightened by the economic downfall of the global recession, resulting in many civilians questioning the political leadership of their country. Following the Mukden Incident in which Japanese personnel framed Chinese dissidents for an attack on a Japanese railway, Japan invaded Manchuria, China, on September 18, 1931. Because Japanese forces acted without

36 Ohno, "The Economic Development of Japan."

37 Asia for Educators, "Japan's Modern History: An Outline of the Period."

38 Ito Miyoji, trans., "The Constitution of the Empire of Japan | Birth of the Constitution of Japan," National Diet Library, accessed June 14, 2020, <https://www.ndl.go.jp/constitution/e/etc/c02.html>.

39 Asia for Educators, "Japan's Modern History: An Outline of the Period."

40 Asia for Educators, "Japan's Modern History: An Outline of the Period."

41 Saarang Narayan, *Women in Meiji Japan: Exploring the Underclass of Japanese Industrialization* (Inquiries, 2016) Vol. 8 No. 2, <http://www.inquiriesjournal.com/articles/1369/women-in-meiji-japan-exploring-the-underclass-of-japanese-industrialization>.

42 Narayan, *Women in Meiji Japan*, Vol. 8.

43 Murai Ryota, "The Rise and Fall of Taishō Democracy: Party Politics in Early-Twentieth-Century Japan," nippon.com, last modified September 29, 2014, <https://www.nippon.com/en/in-depth/a03302/>.

orders from the Emperor, this caused intense political unrest among the military and political elite. Japanese policymakers attempted to establish political parties to express their views on the Japanese government and advocate for fairer representation in the National Diet. However, with the military's increasing influence over government, many of these democratic institutions lost power and relevance in the late 1930s.⁴⁴ Those institutions collapsed entirely following a February 1936 attempt at a coup d'état by radical Japanese army officers, which was regarded as the tipping point for Japan's turn towards a fascist style of government.⁴⁵

Meanwhile, Japanese forces near Manchuria had continued their military campaign and had captured swathes of land along the railroad that passed through the region. Japan declared a full state of war with China in the 1937 Second Sino-Japanese War, emphasizing Japan's desire for militaristic conquest of the Far East.⁴⁶ This led to Japan's government coming under the total authority of the state military, which wielded near-complete political power through World War II.⁴⁷ Emperor Hirohito had little to no control over the military, as evidenced by his struggle to tell the military to surrender after the bombing of Nagasaki at the end of the war.⁴⁸

In the aftermath of the war, many Japanese citizens, members of the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers (SCAP)—the Allied Occupation forces in Japan—and members of the National Diet are now calling for a transition away from the current nationalistic government. Currently, public sentiment favors moving away from a militaristic government, which is supported by all members of the Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers (SCAP) and the National Diet. However, implementing certain political structures must be weighed accordingly by every member, considering how Japan's govern-

ment during its self-isolation period restricted growth. The establishment of some form of democracy will be paramount to maintain stability. Another crucial aspect of establishing a just political system in Japan is to understand the role of the National Diet as the top legislative body in Japan and advocate for incorporating fair representation for all Japanese citizens in elected Diet positions.

Japan's Modern Military: History and Role in World War II

During the Tokugawa period, the shogunate maintained strict control of the country, enforcing isolationist policies and prohibiting international trade.⁴⁹ After the Meiji Restoration, the Japanese way of life changed completely, especially how the military operated.⁵⁰ The samurai system of overseeing safety and order in the country was completely abandoned for Japan's emerging modernization efforts, much to the dismay of many older, conservative government officials. Instead, a new conscripted army trained in the fighting style of European militaries was formed.⁵¹ This army proved to be far superior to the previous samurai system and was quite useful as Japan fought in many territorial battles with its neighboring countries. Japan continued to bolster its military for the next half-century by fighting in two wars against China and Russia and facing pressure from European powers to give up Taiwan, which it conquered from China. Japan also claimed its territorial control over Korea after defeating Russia, a powerful European power, in the Russo-Japanese war of 1904–1905.⁵²

The Japanese army greatly increased its size during the 1920s and 1930s, intending to conquer more territory to regain some sense of economic security from the economic depression that had taken hold of the country.⁵³ During the 1930s, the world saw both the economic decline of the United States and

44 Asia for Educators, "Japan's Modern History: An Outline of the Period."

45 Ryota, "The Rise and Fall of Taishō Democracy."

46 Ohno, "The Economic Development of Japan."

47 McCormack, "Nineteen-Thirties Japan: Facism?" *Bulletin of Concerned Asian Scholars* 14, no. 2 (1982): 2-14, <https://www.tandfonline.com/doi/pdf/10.1080/14672715.1982.10412645>.

48 Asia for Educators, "Japan's Quest for Power and World War II in Asia," Columbia University, 2009, http://afe.easia.columbia.edu/special/japan_1900_power.htm.

49 Michael F. Solecki, "Medieval Japan, 900-1600," Oxford Bibliographies, November 28, 2016, <https://www.oxfordbibliographies.com/view/document/obo-9780199791279/obo-9780199791279-0165.xml>.

50 Asia for Educators, "The Meiji Restoration and Modernization," Columbia University, 2009, http://afe.easia.columbia.edu/special/japan_1750_meiji.htm.

51 Asia for Educators, "The Meiji Restoration and Modernization."

52 Asia for Educators, "The Meiji Restoration and Modernization."

53 Asia for Educators, "Japan's Quest for Power and World War II in Asia."

the United Kingdom, and the immense expansion of German and Russian military power. This set the stage for Japan's further militaristic conquest of the Far East.⁵⁴ Japan began immense militarization efforts to retain control of its conquered territories—notably, by fighting against the Soviet Union for the land near Manchuria in northern China and further incursions into central China.⁵⁵ On September 27, 1940, Japan entered World War II by signing the Tripartite Agreement to join the Axis powers.⁵⁶

Another critical motivation for Japan to join the war was its desire to have complete control over the Pacific and its natural resources.⁵⁷ As Japan's exposure to the Western European world expanded, it understood the benefits that the Western powers had enjoyed through decades of colonialism and imperialism. As a result, Japan's focus before World War II was acquiring access to those resources normally accessible to colonial powers. Japan attacked the US at Pearl Harbor in 1941 because it was believed that the attack would destroy most US Navy in the Pacific, freeing Japan to have total authority over the resource-rich Pacific islands.⁵⁸ Japan's militaristic ideals were imposed upon its citizens to such a great extent that many Japanese citizens believed their military to be invincible. Early victories in the Pacific allowed the Japanese government to pursue a media campaign to convince the public that obedience to Japan's military pursuits would maintain its invincibility. As the war dragged on, Japan suffered many defeats on the Pacific islands, and the bombings of major port cities left Japanese citizens bewildered.⁵⁹

Solutions concerning the reduction of Japanese military power must consider why Japan became such a strong military force over 50 years, including its desire to be treated as equals by Western powers and its hunger for raw materials. The members of this committee must also address how other countries

in East Asia view Japan's military size and capability after the US occupation, as many are concerned about whether Japanese soldiers will march on their borders again.

Japan in World War II: At Home and Abroad

Japan's reasons for entering World War II and how the war affected its civilian population are vital to understanding the background of this committee and why the US occupation of Japan took place. Japan adopted a militaristic form of government in 1937 because of its failing economy and widespread civilian unrest.⁶⁰ Japanese citizens hoped by giving the military more control over the state, it could fix the impoverished economy. However, the militaristic government manifested itself by taking over Korea, fighting a war with China, and searching for opportunities to absorb resources from states in the Pacific for its new and expanding military. Thus, one of Japan's primary reasons for entering World War II was to collect raw materials and resources to provide for its industries at home and military abroad. Japan lost access to many raw materials and resources it normally acquired with the US and the UK after they restricted trade with Japan.⁶¹

To acquire the resources it needed to fuel the military and economic machines that had been built, Japan decided to attack British, Dutch, and American territories throughout Southeast Asia and the Pacific.⁶² While Japan attacked Hong Kong and Singapore to push the British out, it also attacked the US in the infamous 1941 bombing of Pearl Harbor, the headquarters of the US Pacific Fleet.⁶³ The Japanese bombers killed thousands of American soldiers and injured thousands of others in addition to destroying US battleships and aircraft carriers. The US was unprepared for the surprise attack, which was a short-term success for the Japanese military. The Japanese thought the United States and other Allies would not try to fight another theater of war in the Pacific, but they were

54 Mosk, "Japanese Industrialization and Economic Growth," EH.net, accessed 25 June 2020, <https://eh.net/encyclopedia/japanese-industrialization-and-economic-growth/>.

55 Asia for Educators, "Japan's Quest for Power and World War II in Asia."

56 "World War II in the Pacific."

57 Asia for Educators, "Japan's Quest for Power and World War II in Asia."

58 Asia for Educators, "Japan's Quest for Power and World War II in Asia."

59 Asia for Educators, "Japan's Quest for Power and World War II in Asia."

60 Stephan Weaver, *World War 2 Japan* (Createspace Independent Publishing Platform, 2016), 5-50, <https://play.google.com/books/reader?id=-2jeDwAAQBAJ&hl=en&pg=GBS.PT49>.

61 Weaver, *World War 2 Japan*, 5-7.

62 Weaver, *World War 2 Japan*, 9-10.

63 "World War II in the Pacific."



Atomic bomb damage at Nagasaki. (U.S. Air Force photo)

incorrect, and ultimately both countries declared war on each other.⁶⁴

Throughout 1941, Japan took control of most Pacific states and colonies, capturing Malaya, Singapore, Java, and, after some resistance, the Philippines. The United States and Japan began to engage in naval and land battles on Pacific islands throughout most of the war.⁶⁵ It was not until the Battle of Midway in June 1942 that the US began to gain ground against Japanese forces. The United States began the strategy of island hopping, where American forces would focus on defeating the Japanese on one island, then focus on the next, over time taking more and more ground from the Japanese.⁶⁶ Japan suffered serious losses as the years went on from fighting the war against the US and Britain, getting pushed out of most of the territory they gained in their initial advances.

Beginning in 1944, the US began bombing Japanese territory, including Okinawa. The battle of Iwo Jima took place in February of 1945, the deadliest battle of the Pacific front with 20,000 Japanese soldiers and 7,000 American soldiers killed. The United States continued to bomb major Japanese cities, killing 8,000 civilians in Tokyo. These bombings continued for over a year until the US effectively ended the war by dropping two nuclear weapons on Hiroshima and Nagasaki in August 1945.⁶⁷ As the first-ever use of nuclear weapons, these bombings had an unprecedented humanitarian and political impact on Japan and the world. At least 150,000 and 75,000 civilians were estimated to be killed or injured in the blast at Hiroshima and Nagasaki, respectively. However, these estimates likely underrepresent the true loss of human life, as the radiation and fallout from the blasts would create health complica-

64 “World War II in the Pacific.”

65 Weaver, *World War 2 Japan*, 12-13.

66 “World War II in the Pacific.”

67 Weaver, *World War 2 Japan*, 40-48.

tions for decades.⁶⁸ With so many Japanese lives lost in World War II, anti-American sentiment was quite common in the Japanese communities. Many Japanese citizens despised the American military for occupying their land, fearing that the military would abuse their role in the destroyed country and take advantage of the suffering people.

Most Japanese civilians were badly impacted in some way by the war. The US bombed Japan numerous times in the last two years of the war, killing and injuring hundreds of thousands of civilians, and destroying much of Japan's vital infrastructure. The Japanese military machine also forced Japanese civilians to work grueling jobs in metal factories and munitions plants, use their time to serve the militaristic state by cleaning up after bombings, and give away their property for the good of the Japanese war effort. This caused its own degree of resentment against Japan's leadership, creating a complex system of emotions and feelings towards the US occupation. While there is anger among civilians against the state, there is also a sense of hope at the ability of the US to assist Japan's reconstruction as it attempts to transition out of a post-war, militarily focused state. These emotions must be delicately managed as delegates formulate plans in this post-war era.

Humanitarian Issues

As a result of World War II and the atrocities committed by and against the Japanese military, Japan faces many hurdles as it rehabilitates its economy, people, and government. One such hurdle stems from the Japanese government's immense focus on military spending during the war and lack of funds for public health and other concerns, which are now at the center of attention between Japan's leaders and the American occupation. Now that the American conflict with Japan has ceased, there is a vast resentment towards the Japanese

among American soldiers who are now heavily involved in revitalizing Japan in the form of reconstruction and rebuilding the once-great nation.⁶⁹ These unfavorable views stand in the way of the SCAP and their ability to properly address the humanitarian needs of Japanese citizens, especially when it comes to the issue of public health.⁷⁰ However, young public health officers from the United States Army Medical Corps seem to show great promise. These individuals do not share the same resentment held by their militant counterparts, as they were spared the worst of the fighting.⁷¹ These personnel also bring to the field a vast knowledge of modern medical practices that could be useful in transitioning Japan out of its outdated public health system. Despite these benefits, the anti-American resentment stemming from the Japanese public means that there is the potential for negative mindsets to fester, endangering future humanitarian operations.⁷² However, since occupation troops first arrived, personnel have reported some members of the public saluting, bowing, and waving to the soldiers, insinuating a divergent viewpoint from previous reports on public opinion.⁷³ For any foreign operation in Japan to be successful, the committee must keep relations between foreign workers and the public at the focal point of all proposals made to help the citizens of Japan, and focus on balancing both positive and negative opinions on the American occupation.

Alongside a major decrease in morale after the war, the 2.3 million lives lost in combat and 800,000 more lives lost from air raids have been coupled with widespread health complications.⁷⁴ When the war began, the Allied powers blocked all trade to Japan, leading to an intense shortage of supplies in every industry. This immense supply shortfall, one of the biggest reasons for Japan's defeat in the war, now hinders the capabilities of those who wish to reconcile and heal the broken

68 "Hiroshima and Nagasaki Death Toll," *Children of the Atomic Bomb*, accessed August 30, 2020, <http://www.aasc.ucla.edu/cab/200708230009.html>.

69 Nishimura, Sey. "Promoting Health During the American Occupation of Japan The Public Health Section, Kyoto Military Government Team, 1945-1952." *American Journal of Public Health* 98, no. 3 (March 2008): 424-434. <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC2253585/>.

70 Nishimura, Sey. "Promoting Health During the American Occupation of Japan The Public Health Section, Kyoto Military Government Team, 1945-1952."

71 Nishimura.

72 Nishimura.

73 Mieko Endo. "Douglas MacArthur's occupation of Japan | Building the foundation of U.S.-Japan relationship." ScholarWorks at University of Montana. 2006. <https://scholarworks.umt.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=3123&context=etd>.

74 Nishimura, Sey. "Promoting Health During the American Occupation of Japan The Public Health Section, Kyoto Military Government Team, 1945-1952."

Japanese people.⁷⁵ Food is scarce, and with the economy at a halt, increasing access to sanitation amenities and other necessities has become a major concern.⁷⁶ There is now an elevated risk of major disease outbreaks, which must be combatted while also rebuilding long-term healthcare infrastructure.⁷⁷ Many lives are on the line, and a lack of action by the government and SCAP will result in massive amounts of death, which Japan's struggling economy cannot sustain.

Economic Revitalization

Japan's economy after the events of World War II is an issue that must be addressed for Japan to start to recover as a nation and think about becoming independent from US occupation. The success of a country's economy is generally viewed as vital for international and domestic recognition. Similarly, the financial prosperity of a country often translates directly to the wellbeing of most of its citizens. Most Japanese citizens endured dreadful economic conditions after World War II because Japan's wealth was already concentrated in the hands



Destruction in a Tokyo street

⁷⁵ Endo, "Douglas MacArthur's occupation of Japan | Building the foundation of U.S.-Japan relationship."

⁷⁶ Nishimura, Sey. "Promoting Health During the American Occupation of Japan The Public Health Section, Kyoto Military Government Team, 1945-1952."

⁷⁷ Nishimura.

of the social and political elite. Therefore, the widespread destruction that Japan has suffered disproportionately affected poor Japanese civilians and farmers.⁷⁸

Understanding the diversification of Japan's economy is important when deliberating over which methods of economic development would best suit Japan. During the late 1800s, in its efforts to catch up with the West for modernization, Japan replaced most of its older system of law with newer and more flexible legislation. This allowed for rapid industrial expansion, drawing the ire of older samurai warriors and conservative politicians whose wealth and ways of life were at risk.⁷⁹ After getting rid of the samurai class and replacing those samurai in positions of power, the Meiji leaders began the industrialization process as quickly as possible.⁸⁰ With the industrialization of the Japanese economy, large conglomerates that connected various industries, called *zaibatsu*, began to form, utilizing the profits and human resources from older industries in new, emerging markets, thereby widening the economic gap between lower and upper social classes.⁸¹ These *zaibatsu* were vertically integrated family companies, paving the way for complete control over large sections of the Japanese economy.⁸²

Japan's thriving economy quickly collapsed in 1920, and the prices of most major industries collapsed by 50 percent. Nevertheless, the machinery industry continued to grow because the government continually promoted Japan's military buildup throughout the early 20th century to ensure stability in the homeland and expand territory abroad. With the worldwide depression ensuing in 1930, Japan's economy dropped into a downward deflation spiral with rising unemployment. All aspects of Japanese society were affected as rural poverty rose and civilian discontent increased.

78 Shigeru T. Otsubo, "Post-war Development of the Japanese Economy," Nagoya University, April 2007, [https://www.gsid.nagoya-u.ac.jp/sotsubo/Postwar_Development_of_the_Japanese%20Economy\(Otsubo_NagoyaU\).pdf](https://www.gsid.nagoya-u.ac.jp/sotsubo/Postwar_Development_of_the_Japanese%20Economy(Otsubo_NagoyaU).pdf).

79 Ohno, "The Economic Development of Japan."

80 Ohno, "The Economic Development of Japan."

81 Mosk, "Japanese Industrialization and Economic Growth."

82 Mosk, "Japanese Industrialization and Economic Growth."

83 Ohno, "The Economic Development of Japan."

84 Ohno, "The Economic Development of Japan."

85 Asia for Educators, "Japan's Quest for Power and World War II in Asia."

86 Ohno, "The Economic Development of Japan."

87 United States Holocaust Memorial Museum, "World War II in the Pacific," accessed June 17, 2020, <https://encyclopedia.ushmm.org/content/en/article/world-war-ii-in-the-pacific>.

88 Erich Pauer, ed., *Japan's War Economy* (Routledge, 1999) 11-20.

The Japanese Showa Depression, Japan's name for its economic downturn in the 1930s, was blamed mostly on the liberal economic practices of the Meiji government. This caused many Japanese citizens to push for a more centralized and conservative government to handle the effects of the depression, with some calling for a politicized military.⁸³ With a mandate to deliver Japan from the economic crisis, the Seiyukai government came to power. Finance Minister Korekiyo Takahashi implemented vast economic reforms compared to the previous government.⁸⁴ These reforms included monetary expansion and an end to the gold standard, which worked well in bringing Japan out of its economic depression. The Japanese also began to incorporate economic tactics from European powers, raising high tariffs on industrial imports and using their colonies in East Asia as valuable sources of raw materials.⁸⁵ However, when Takahashi began to target military spending, he was assassinated.⁸⁶ The reforms he implemented continued to help Japan's economy thrive again, but the move made it obvious that the military leadership could not be threatened or defied. Japan's aggressive expansion also caused other states, particularly the United States, to see Japan as a threat to peace in the Pacific. Consequently, the United States imposed economic sanctions on Japan, limiting their access to natural resources like oil, a major driver on Japan's powerful industrial military.⁸⁷

Japan's wartime economy existed continuously from the onset of the Second Sino-Japanese War in 1937 to its surrender in World War II in 1945. An important piece of wartime planning legislation was enacted in March 1938, the National Mobilization Law. This law was the main legal framework that allowed Japan's military to increase its control over the country's economy and citizenry.⁸⁸ After that law and other wartime plans were put in place, the military government began to

control all aspects of Japan's economy, including companies' wages, prices, and labor supply. The Japanese government also took control over most large businesses to yield certain output targets of army munitions, processed metals, and other wartime resources that would support the military. This action was seen as a direct contrast to a free enterprise market, drawing further parallels between Japan's government and the fascists in Europe.⁸⁹

The wartime economic plan prioritized maximizing military strength with limited domestic resources, causing many other Japanese industries to collapse. Many Japanese citizens had ration food, and forced factory labor was common.⁹⁰ These restrictive policies depleted many of the resources that most Japanese citizens relied upon and caused widespread starvation. Not only does Japan need a functioning peacetime economy that can trade with its neighbors, but it must also reinvest in the health and wellbeing of Japanese citizens as the drivers of this growth. Promoting sustainable and independent economic growth is an important step in ensuring lasting peace and stability in Japan.

Constitutional Reform and Government

The 1889 Meiji constitution established Japan as a constitutional monarchy. It was constructed with Western government structures in mind, yet from the perspective of the West, the distribution of power looked extremely foreign. Once Emperor Meiji had come to power, it had become their goal to study and develop an authority similar to those found in the West, but one that could accommodate Japanese traditions and culture. During this preliminary phase of "choosing" what structure best fit Japanese society, scholars from across the globe came to the assistance of Japan's oligarchs to find the solution that best fit the nation.⁹¹ The largest difference between the Japanese government and its Western counterparts lay in the Japanese tradition and history regarding its monarchy.⁹² In Japan, the emperor remained a unique



Shoe shining in the street during the American occupation (1945)

position. A requirement for the constitution was a balance of power between the emperor and the country's ministers. Nonetheless, the emperor was granted vast political power due to his "divine" position and the imperial mythology that supported his rule within Japanese culture.⁹³ The emperor was assigned expansive political powers, while his ministers were only granted the ability to fulfill these powers and decide how they would be carried out.⁹⁴ There were many other dissenting opinions from the oligarchs of Japan at the time. Representation outside the Emperor and his ministers found their place within the government through Japan's legislative body, the National Diet. The Meiji constitution outlines the two separate houses within the Diet—the House of Peers and the House of Representatives.⁹⁵

Until the end of World War II, Japan's Imperial family has

89 Erich Pauer, *Japan's War Economy*, 14-18.

90 Ohno, "The Economic Development of Japan."

91 Bertolini, "Western and Japanese Constitutional Thought in the Shaping of the Role of the Japanese Emperor..."

92 Elisa Bertolini, "Western and Japanese Constitutional Thought in the Shaping of the Role of the Japanese Emperor in the 1889 and 1946 Constitutions." *Historia Constitucional*, no. 19 (2018): 641, doi:10.17811/hc.v0i19.490.

93 Bertolini, "Western and Japanese Constitutional Thought in the Shaping of the Role of the Japanese Emperor..."

94 Bertolini, "Western and Japanese Constitutional Thought in the Shaping of the Role of the Japanese Emperor..."

95 "The Constitution of the Empire of Japan." Accessed July 24, 2020. <https://www.ndl.go.jp/constitution/e/etc/c02.html>.

governed indisputably. Therefore, the office of the Emperor is of particular concern for the SCAP. Emperor Hirohito is not solely faulted for Japanese militant expansion across the continent and into the Pacific, but he was still an important figure of the regime both at home and abroad.⁹⁶ There is an intense debate over “what to do” with the emperor. Considering the immeasurable prominence he holds in the eyes of Japanese citizens, any actions taken by the occupation must be advanced with great care. As discourse concerning the fate of this divine leader accelerates, questions regarding his disposition are imminent. Diplomats and experts have continued to express their concerns with such an outcome.⁹⁷ Advisors have worked to communicate other options, such as incorporating the ruler into a new constitution or allowing the emperor to maintain his position in some capacity while working to immobilize his influence and power.⁹⁸

While the emperor remains the focal point of legislative change sought by the occupation, the National Diet is also not without fault. Japanese political leaders seek to amend the Meiji constitution that is already in place, while the Allied Occupation pushes for a more aggressive form of change through the construction of a new constitution entirely.⁹⁹ According to the SCAP, the rule of the emperor and upper house of the National Diet pose a grave threat to democratic practices. The Far Eastern Commission (a group consisting of the United States, the Soviet Union, the United Kingdom, the Philippines, New Zealand, Australia, Canada, the Republic of China, France, India, and the Netherlands) was composed as a means of overseeing the occupation of Japan and poses a threat of influence to the SCAP.¹⁰⁰ Considering this commission as a threat to the future of Japan's government, Gen. MacArthur has emphasized the need to work quickly.

96 Comparative Constitutions Project. “Japan's Constitution of 1946.” Last modified February 13, 2020. https://www.constituteproject.org/constitution/Japan_1946.pdf?lang=en.

97 Comparative Constitutions Project. “Japan's Constitution of 1946.” Last modified February 13, 2020.

98 Comparative Constitutions Project. “Japan's Constitution of 1946.” Last modified February 13, 2020.

99 Comparative Constitutions Project. “Japan's Constitution of 1946.” Last modified February 13, 2020.

100 Comparative Constitutions Project. “Japan's Constitution of 1946.” Last modified February 13, 2020.

101 Ohno, “The Economic Development of Japan.”

102 Ohno, “The Economic Development of Japan.”

103 Ohno, “The Economic Development of Japan.”

104 Ohno, “The Economic Development of Japan.”

105 Ohno, “The Economic Development of Japan.”

106 Benjamin C. Duke, “The History of Modern Japanese Education Constructing the National School System, 1872-1890.” New Brunswick: Rutgers University Press, 2009.

107 Duke, “The History of Modern Japanese Education Constructing the National School System, 1872-1890.”

108 Duke, “The History of Modern Japanese Education Constructing the National School System, 1872-1890.”

Education

Japanese education has undergone many reforms ever since it was granted high priority during the Edo period of Japan.¹⁰¹ During that time, Japan was ruled by a highly centralized government, but a government that was not involved in economic policy or education. Each *han*, a local branch of the Japanese government during the Edo period, maintained the authority to make regional decisions regarding taxation, currency distribution, funding, and other economic policies.¹⁰² Along with this came the ability to develop educational systems as each *han* saw fit.¹⁰³ Different forms of education were introduced. As such, Japanese society was enriched by numerous new fields of study, with prominent areas such as Confucianism, Chinese philosophy, international languages, technology, medicine, and military training serving to bolster Japanese learning.¹⁰⁴ Explosive growth in education ensued for the next 264 years, laying the foundation for impressive leaps in industrialization that came about after this period.¹⁰⁵

The Meiji Restoration period and the restoration of imperial rule brought the biggest changes to Japanese education. While Japan had higher literacy rates when compared to the rest of the world, the nation was severely behind the West in terms of economic growth and trade.¹⁰⁶ With the creation of the 1872 education plan, Japan made an effort to put itself in a position to compete with the United States while protecting Japanese culture and sovereignty.¹⁰⁷ This shift in educational focus was inspired by European and American systems and advanced technology and science, alongside other fields of study that could aid Japanese economic ventures.¹⁰⁸ Although this process of modernization only became visible during the Meiji rule, the push for educational reforms had already been set in

motion years before. The ultimate result was a more efficient Japanese economy and increased loyalty towards Japanese political leaders, which played into the country's sympathy for military rule years later.

The Meiji government continued to examine education systems across the world, eventually pulling professors from various European nations, the United States, and China to come together and formulate the national standards Japan currently embraces.¹⁰⁹ By incorporating many methodologies and educational approaches from all over the world, Japan ended up with a national education system that made the advancement of the country the top priority, but also enshrined the importance of traditional values.¹¹⁰ This plan and its implementations were discussed over the two decades following the inception of the Meiji government. At the end of those twenty years, the arrangement was finally put into place. Japan's national education system, one of the most modern in the world, ultimately kindled a strong sense of morality for its people and established a strong base for the economy moving into World War II.

Current Status

Impact of War on the Japanese Public

The date is October 31, 1945. The American occupation of Japan began in late August 1945, with US and Allied personnel arriving in Japan and General Douglas MacArthur, the head of the Supreme Commander of the Allied Powers, arriving two days later on August 30. The Supreme Commander of the Allied Powers (SCAP) is the main organization from the US government working to revitalize Japan through the occupation. The British Commonwealth Occupation Force ran parallel to the SCAP to demilitarize Japan but did not play

a substantial role outside of demilitarization. The SCAP has the responsibility to reform Japanese society by issuing directives to different houses of the National Diet to be modified and passed into laws. The SCAP can bypass the National Diet if it sees fit to enact a certain mandate on the Japanese government, but it tries to collaborate with the National Diet on most matters.¹¹¹ Gen. MacArthur began the work of the SCAP by establishing several laws, such as the US Initial Post-Surrender Policy for Japan, which outlined the main goals the US hoped to achieve during the American occupation, and the Memorandum of Freedom of Press, which preventing speech against the Allied occupation media that “disturbs public tranquility.”¹¹² The main goals of the Post-Surrender Policy were to reduce the threat of Japan's military and transform Japan into a democratic, cooperative country. Many Japanese institutions associated with its destructive wartime military were abolished like the main headquarters of the Japanese military, and other government officials connected to the wartime Japanese government resigned from their positions.¹¹³

The land reform bill, passed by the National Diet in October 1945 with the SCAP's recommendation, helped spread the land ownership to include more farmers and working-class members of Japanese society.¹¹⁴ Before the occupation, over 45 percent of the arable land was owned by cultivators, leaving little land for the actual farmers to earn profits off the cultivation. After the land reform bill, farmers were given a chance to own as much land as they wanted for their cultivation. The rest was assumed by the government, which then sold the land through low-interest mortgages to cultivators. This agricultural change brought an improved sense of appreciation for the American occupation. It also reflected a sense of hope for many Japanese civilians in the beneficial changes Americans would bring, including democratic changes that could rebuild Japanese society.¹¹⁵

109 Duke, “The History of Modern Japanese Education Constructing the National School System, 1872-1890.”

110 Duke, “The History of Modern Japanese Education Constructing the National School System, 1872-1890.”

111 Richard J. Smethurst, “The Allied Occupation of Japan: 1945-52,” University of Pittsburgh, Accessed June 30, 2020, <https://www.japanpitt.pitt.edu/essays-and-articles/history/allied-occupation-japan-1945-52>.

112 Lawrence W. Beer, “Postwar Law on Civil Liberties in Japan,” *Pacific Basin Law Journal* 2, no. 1-2 (1983): 103, <https://escholarship.org/content/qt3xb562pz/qt3xb562pz.pdf?t=n4oulx>.

113 “Collections,” National Diet Library, 2003-2004, <https://www.ndl.go.jp/en/index.html>.

114 “Occupation and Reconstruction of Japan, 1945-52,” *Office of the Historian*, accessed August 30, 2020, <https://history.state.gov/milestones/1945-1952/japan-reconstruction>.

115 Richard J. Smethurst, “The Allied Occupation of Japan: 1945-52,” University of Pittsburgh, accessed June 30, 2020, <https://www.japanpitt.pitt.edu/essays-and-articles/history/allied-occupation-japan-1945-52>.



Japanese war crimes trials

While some Japanese civilians are welcoming to the American soldiers because of the famine and suffering resulting from the war, many still view the US as a hostile, occupying force. This sentiment is fueled by vast reports of US soldiers raping Japanese women during the occupation, with 1,336 reported cases of rape during the first 10 days of the occupation alone.¹¹⁶ Many of the women were from Okinawa, where American soldiers fought the particularly bloody Battle of Okinawa before Japan's formal surrender. Although the reported number is quite high, it is believed to be much higher, as the victims did not report many cases due to fears of public stigmatization.¹¹⁷

Many Japanese soldiers returning from war are in terrible condition, with 13 million former soldiers, wartime industrial workers, and repatriated citizens requiring basic necessities like food and housing. The war has destroyed 30 percent of all the housing in Japan, and processed food production has fallen to 32 percent of the pre-war levels, placing the country at ex-

treme risk of famine.¹¹⁸ The Allies have facilitated this massive influx, sending home millions of Japanese soldiers stationed in overseas territories. These soldiers returning home have found it quite difficult to integrate back into Japanese society.

Economy

The industrial sector of the Japanese economy is in shambles, and it seems as though the state of well-being in the nation can only worsen before it gets better. The insurmountable distress of the current Japanese economy can be attributed to a lack of industrial materials. Without such provisions, the economy cannot be spurred in its current state. The people of Japan are grappling with the numerous drawbacks of war, including high levels of unemployment, rampant inflation, and primarily, a shortage of materials.¹¹⁹ The standard of living has plummeted due to industrial shortcomings, with material loss set back by about 25 percent. There are currently many proposals for how to best repair the economy, and the SCAP maintains access to vast funds and resources set aside by the

116 Peter Schrijvers, *The GI War Against Japan: American Soldiers in Asia and the Pacific During World War II*, (Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan, 2002), 212.

117 Peter Schrijvers, *The GI War Against Japan: American Soldiers in Asia and the Pacific During World War II*.

118 Richard J. Smethurst, "The Allied Occupation of Japan: 1945-52."

119 "Occupation and Reconstruction of Japan, 1945-52." U.S. Department of State. U.S. Department of State. Accessed July 26, 2020. <https://2001-2009.state.gov/r/pa/ho/time/cwr/91194.htm>.

United States to assist with the recovery.¹²⁰ The main goals of the SCAP and the National Diet should be to promote economic recovery by employing American assets in such a way that they revive and prepare Japanese citizens to reenter the workforce. This, along with increased participation in mercantile transactions, can be an important catalyst for resurrecting Japan.¹²¹

Japan's economy has historically been composed of diverse industries, including textiles, mining, and automobile production. During the war, the government seized many factories and converted them into war production facilities, leading to severe shortages of consumer goods.¹²² Japan's economic policy before WWII indicated a strong presence of bureaucracy-dominated practices, which limited Japan's capabilities before the war and can thwart revitalization efforts in some capacity in the aftermath.¹²³ Such practices include the inclination to abstain from international trade and the existence of regulations that constrict the potential for any free market activity, considerably disincentivizing foreign investment. The lingering presence of *zaibatsu* (large, vertically-integrated business conglomerates) also threatens the development of a fair economy with a reasonable distribution of wealth.¹²⁴ Many *zaibatsu* enjoyed a special relationship with the military government, and therefore hold immense influence over Japanese political and economic life.

Without foreign investment or imperialistic exploitation, Japan's wartime economy was not sustainable. During Japan's post-war occupation, economic recovery has been severely burdened by a lack of foreign investment. Without the stimulation of foreign funds due to the "riskiness" of Japanese investments, it falls upon the Allied Occupation to develop a solution that grants the economy the stimulus it requires. Furthermore, the steep decline in trade has led to insurmountable friction with its previous trading partners. This committee must address Japan's relationship with its previous allies and discuss how to foster trade with Japan's former victims.

120 Serafino, Nina, Curt Tarnoff, and Dick K. Nanto. "U.S. Occupation Assistance: Iraq, Germany, and Japan Compared." Congressional Research Service. . Last modified March 23, 2006. <https://fas.org/sgp/crs/natsec/RL33331.pdf>.

121 Serafino, Tarnoff, Nanto. "U.S. Occupation Assistance: Iraq, Germany, and Japan Compared."

122 Serafino, Tarnoff, Nanto.

123 Hunter, Janet., and Cornelia. Storz. Institutional and Technological Change in Japan's Economy Past and Present / Edited by Janet Hunter and Cornelia Storz. [Electronic Resource] : London ;: Routledge, 2006. <https://library.oapen.org/viewer/web/viewer.html?file=/bitstream/handle/20.500.12657/24220/1005911.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>

124 "Occupation and Reconstruction of Japan, 1945-52." *U.S. Department of State*. U.S. Department of State. Accessed July 24, 2020.

Bloc Analysis

The Supreme Commander of the Allied Powers (SCAP) has the role of reforming Japanese society by proposing directives, which are then sent through the different houses of the National Diet to be modified and passed into laws. Many of the policies already created by the SCAP pushed for the full introduction of democracy and inclusive representation into the Japanese political system. Neither directive was agreed upon by many conservative members of the Japanese government. As a result, some prominent Japanese government officials were removed from public office or barred from running for public office by the SCAP, arguing that they had ties to nationalist or militant ideologies. These nationalist ideologies mostly focused on preserving the powerful wartime Japanese government, restricting the liberties of most Japanese citizens while leaving many higher-up officials without restrictions. Since the SCAP took this controlling action, many Japanese people affiliated with nationalist political parties have been greatly opposed to the American occupation.

SCAP

The Supreme Commander of the Allied Powers (SCAP) encompasses various roles in reforming Japanese society in the post-war era. The SCAP is broken up into different sections that deal with certain areas of the Japanese government for reconstruction. The General Headquarters (GHQ) of the SCAP is based in Tokyo near the National Diet. Its guiding principles are to call for the introduction of democracy in the country and to promote the downsizing of Japan's military power to avoid rises in nationalism or militancy within government as happened before WWII. The SCAP places special emphasis on increasing representation within the legislative bodies, placing importance on embracing universal suffrage and pushing for a greater representation of women in the National Diet. The SCAP also prioritizes decreasing the prevalence of authoritative, corrupt officials in the Japanese gov-

ernment and reducing the militant nationalist ideology present in the Japanese government and general public by purging members of society with relations to the past military government. As for the economy, their goal is to provide large-scale food relief programs and to revitalize the failing Japanese economy with swift reformative policies. Another major goal of the SCAP is to complete a full constitutional revision and use it to aid the National Diet to draft a new one. It is important to note that, even though the SCAP has the power to mandate changes when an action is deemed necessary by the sole executive authority of Gen. MacArthur, to be successful, actions mandated by the SCAP should work alongside the Japanese government.

House of Peers

The House of Peers is the upper house of the National Diet. Also known as the *Kizokuin*, officials within the House of Peers are chosen to be in these positions because of their no-

ble rank, high tax payments, or relation to the imperial family. Others are hand-chosen by the emperor for their contributions to Japanese society. Examples of body members include nobility, distinguished politicians, scientists, and business leaders. This group's composition is indicative of its domestic policy agenda, with most officials voting for laws that maintain their wealth and status, as well as allowing for the perpetuation of the emperor's power and authority. The members have either a lifetime mandate for their term or a seven-year term limit, given to lower-ranking members. Serving such long terms takes the member's focus away from being re-elected and has led to abuses of power for personal gain. Perpetuating government reforms alongside the efforts of the SCAP will prove to be a difficult task for the *Kizokuin*, as the government dynamic prevailing before the war provided enormous benefits to the affluent elite in Japan. With a diminished influence for Japanese aristocrats on the horizon, the future is bleak for members of the upper house.



MacArthur signs the Japanese surrender aboard USS Missouri, September 2, 1945

House of Representatives

The House of Representatives, also known as the *Shugin*, is the lower house of the National Diet. It consists of democratically elected officials meant to represent the common people of Japan. The members of the House of Representatives have a four-year term limit, which can be dissolved at the discretion of the emperor. It has powerful leverage to force the government to vote on certain policies and legislation that benefit the average Japanese civilian. This body experienced an increase in power throughout the *Taisho* democracy leading up to WWII, but it was sidelined by the military dictatorship. Its members face many conflicting demands, representing their districts and their political parties while also negotiating with members of the SCAP. Members of this body will likely be more open to working towards the SCAP's goals of social and political progression and push back against the more conservative ideology of the House of Peers.

Committee Mission

This cabinet, consisting of members from SCAP and The Japanese National Diet, must maintain their obligations to ensure the safety and welfare of the Japanese people. In fulfilling these obligations, members of this committee identify the core complications impacting the Japanese public while developing plans of action to alleviate the strife and obstacles brought about by the recent war and the current government structures in place. Japan and its people are beyond devastated, and the toll of losing so many lives during the war is immense. Approaching the many facets of rehabilitation will be a delicate balancing act for the political leaders and SCAP members involved. As a committee, members must initiate a democratic order within Japan, creating a prosperous state that encompasses the needs of its people. A resolution must include provisions addressing the economic state of the country, a new constitution exemplifying democratic ideals, and humanitarian proposals to address the health and wellbeing of citizens. Members should not limit their discourse to the previously stated issues, but instead work to develop comprehensive solutions to assist Japan and its people to the greatest magnitude. Keeping in mind President Truman's mandate, Al-

lied occupation must support the goals of phasing out Japanese war potential, while simultaneously working with leaders to reshape the nation into a democratic state.

Committee Representatives

SCAP

Chief, Civil Information and Education Section—Lt. Col. D. R. Nugent

Before receiving his SCAP position, Nugent was a member of the Georgia National Guard, attending The Citadel but having to withdraw because of health problems. Nugent's experience in the Georgia National Guard taught him many guiding principles, including the importance of discipline, toughness, and adherence to order, which reflected how he addressed many of Japan's issues. Working as the head of the Civil Information and Education Section, he is in charge of changing education in Japanese society, reforming the education structure as a whole, and introducing democratic principles and civic courses in the curriculum taught at many schools.

Chief, Economic and Scientific Section—Maj. Gen. W. F. Marquat

A decorated military man, Major General William Frederic Marquat has traveled over terrain harassed by sniper fire and endangered by landmines to ensure the safety of his troops. This, along with other courageous actions, has earned him notable American military honors, most notably the Distinguished Service Cross, which was presented to him for his actions in 1942. Before he enlisted in the military, Marquat worked as a reporter for The Seattle Times. Currently, he is the Head of the Economics and Science Section General Headquarters for the SCAP, supporting the occupation by making recommendations and researching Japan's economic and science sectors.

Chief, Government Section—General Courtney Whitney

An American lawyer and Army commander, Whitney was born in Washington, DC. He became a pilot in the army in 1917, and a few years later, Whitney attended and graduated from George Washington University with a law degree and opened a practice in Manila in the Philippines. He returned to the armed forces in World War II, where he was in charge of Philippine civil affairs under General MacArthur. Under MacArthur, Whitney belonged to a band of generals given the name the "Bataan Boys." Because of Whitney's knowledge of civilian government in the Philippines, he became the Chief of the Government Section at GHQ with the United States occupation of Japan. As Chief of the Government Section, Whitney closely supervises Japan's reconstruction, assisting the National Diet in reshuffling the balance of power towards the legislative branch and moving the government towards democracy with universal suffrage. The Government section also oversees assigned tasks and makes recommendations to the Supreme Commander regarding implementations of surrender. He will also help the National Diet of Japan draft a new Constitution and change many older legal practices that are restrictive on citizen's rights.

Chief, Public Health and Welfare Section—Colonel C. F. Sams

A major concern of the SCAP and the National Diet is the large number of deaths due to the diseases that are currently ravaging Japan. Colonel Crawford F. Sams understood the gravity of the issue, and he has ordered his staff to investigate the possibility of establishing an institute that would coincide with the Japanese Health Administration to combat this problem. Sams has a core understanding of his vital role as the link between the SCAP and the current Japanese administration concerning the exacerbated conditions of Japan's health crisis. With a leading focus on disease prevention, medical care, welfare, and social security, Colonel Sams is tasked with progressing Japan's under-

developed and archaic health systems.

Chief Engineer—Major Hugh J. Casey

Born in Brooklyn, Hugh Casey is a career soldier involved in various projects stateside and has contributed abundant research to the Engineer Corps and other organizations. His pioneering endeavors earned him the honor of creating a rough design that now houses the American War department known as The Pentagon. His service in WWII was distinguished and largely chronicled by “The Engineers of the Southwest Pacific,” which describes “the engineers’ story so that others would learn from their hard-won experiences.” He is now responsible for developing American bases in Japan, Korea, and Okinawa, with his objective being to serve MacArthur in Japan’s recovery.

Chief of Staff—Major General Paul J. Mueller

Graduating from West Point’s class of 1915, also known as “the class the stars fell on,” Mueller served in both world wars and has had command over the 81st Infantry Division since 1942. Under his command, the 81st successfully captured Pulo Anna Island and succeeded in numerous operations throughout WWII. Now General Mueller is currently in charge of occupation duty with the 81st. As Chief of Staff, Mueller works as the head of all the various SCAP sections that each deal with a certain goal for the occupation, such as education, economics, government. Mueller is also the main connection between the various chiefs of those sections and the Supreme Commander Douglas MacArthur, offering him recommendations on actions to take to address the specific directives issued to the SCAP from the United States government.

Deputy Chief, Government Section—Colonel Charles Kades

After graduating from Cornell University and Harvard Law School, Kades worked as a lawyer; he later became the Assistant General Counsel for the Public Works Administration and the United States Department of Treasury. His work for the Public Works Administration consisted of laying out much of the logistics and implementation for New Deal arrangements, one of the defining points in his earlier career. This experience will surely aid him in his current role within SCAP and his responsibilities when it comes to advancing Japan’s transition into a democracy. He remained in this position until 1942, after which Kades entered active military duty in the United States Army. Starting as Chief of the General Headquarters Government Section, Kades became the Deputy Chief of the government section, serving General Courtney Whitney following the arrival. In his current role as Deputy Chief, Kades is involved with General Courtney Whitney to carry out the Government section’s activities and provide adequate information to the SCAP to make the most effective decisions.

Liaison to the Imperial Household—Brigadier General Bonner Fellers

From Ridge Farm, Illinois, Fellers graduated from West Point in 1918, and served as a military attaché in Egypt and later a Brigadier General under General MacArthur in the Pacific. He was a close aide of General MacArthur’s, especially during the beginning of Japan’s occupation. He is largely in favor of keeping the Japanese emperor as the leader of the country. He believes the occupying American forces could use the emperor’s status as a figurehead to their advantage in maintaining the popular approval of the Japanese people, who regard their emperor with the highest reverence. This proposal to adopt the emperor’s status as a figurehead is a proposition growing in popularity amongst American lawyers involved in the occupation, though many of those in the Japanese government are staunch opponents of the idea.

National Japanese Diet

Inoue Tomoharu—Japan Progressive Party

Tomoharu is a politician from Kagoshima, Japan. He attended Tokyo Imperial University, where he studied law. Following university, he worked as the managing director of the Kwanto Co.; he then became the chief of the Democratic Party's Kagoshima branch. As chief of the Kagoshima branch, Tomoharu led meetings of the Democratic Party, trying to slow down the encroachment of militaristic ideals upon the Shinto democratic principles present in Japan the last ten years leading up to the war. Tomoharu was elected to the Imperial Diet in 1930, 1932, 1936, 1937, and was a member of the 1946 Diet. Serving as Imperial Diet Vice-speaker (House of Representatives), he led committees to enact change for Japan to alleviate food shortages for Japanese citizens and reform agricultural land usage and education, all of which were the main Post-war policies of the Democratic Party. Tomoharu hopes to bring political power back to Japan's people and restrain the Japanese government's overarching rule during the war.

Kijūrō Shidehara—Japan Liberal Party

Shidehara's early career consisted of education in law and working with Japanese diplomatic efforts in the United Kingdom, the United States, and the Netherlands. Later, he was appointed as the Vice Minister of Foreign Affairs, after which he worked as an ambassador to the United States. Kijūrō Shidehara, as of this month, has resigned from the office of Prime Minister following Japan's first post-World War II election. Maintaining his position since October of 1945, Kijūrō came back out of retirement to fulfill the responsibilities of Prime Minister, partially a consequence of his pro-American reputation. Now having resigned from his government position, he can decide whether or not he wishes to fall back into retirement or continue his dedication to public service in Japan.

Kimura Kozaemon—Japan Progressive Party

Kozaemon is a politician who was born in the Shimano Prefecture in 1887. In 1907, Kozaemon attended Waseda University. He was elected to the House of Representatives eight times since 1924 but served as the Vice-Speaker after World War II. Kozaemon was a member of the Progressive Party, which later became the Democratic party. The Democratic Party espoused mostly conservative policies, focused on restabilizing Japan after the war with a local police system to maintain safety and improve Japan's relationship with its people. He also served as the Agriculture and Forestry minister in the first Yoshida cabinet in early 1947. During his time as Imperial Diet Vice-speaker from May 22, 1946, to February 15, 1947, the Diet mainly focused on forming the new constitution, working closely with the SCAP to adhere to the new Japanese constitution their guidelines.

Kyuichi Tokuda—Japan Communist Party

Tokuda is a statesperson from Okinawa, Japan. He is a member of the Central Committee and one of the founders of the Japanese Communist Party. Before the founding of the Japanese Communist Party, he worked as a lawyer. Tokuda was recently released from prison, where he spent 18 years for violating the Peace Preservation Law, a tactic employed by the Imperial Japanese Government to suppress and stifle leftist opposition. Now out of prison and back into the political field, Kyuichi has continued to garner support from fellow communist groups within Japan. The day he was released from prison, he was greeted by a large crowd of his own supporters, showing a further indication that he has a stable following within the public.

Machida Chūji—Japan Progressive Party

Chuji is a politician from Akita, Japan. He was first elected to a seat from the Akita district in the lower house of the Diet of Japan in 1912. He was re-elected 10 times before joining the second Okuma cabinet as parliamentary under-secretary for Agriculture and Commerce. In 1926, he became the Minister of Agriculture and Forestry. In 1934, he was promoted to the position of Minister of Commerce and Industry and Minister of Finance. In this position, he worked with the US Ambassador to Japan to improve commercial relations. He served as an advisor to the Konoe and Hiranuma administration. Despite objections, he joined the Taisei Yokusankai during World War II. With the vast number of Progressive Party members being involved in wartime politics, most of them have been ousted by the Occupation, including Machida. At the request of his close friend, Kijūrō Shidehara, he has been invited to this deliberation as a representative of the JPP, but currently holds no elected office.

Sanehiko Yamamoto—Japan Cooperative Party

The owner of Japan's general-interest magazine, *Kaijō*, Yamamoto began publishing articles after World War I promoting socialist content and labor problems. During World War II, the magazine suffered government oppression against *Kaijō's* "communist" staffers. Now it seems as though this magazine re-examining social issues has again started to grow in popularity. Yamamoto is also a member of the Cooperative Party, a centrist party promoting the presence and use of cooperatives.

Takeshi Yamazaki—Japan Liberal Party

Takeshi is a statesperson from Ibaraki, Japan. During Japan's reconstruction years, he was an important politician, serving as Imperial Diet Speaker for the Lower House from August 23, 1946, to March 31, 1947. While in this role, Yamazaki was the Secretary-General of the Democratic-Liberal party in Japan. The Democratic-Liberal party during this time focused on quick economic expansion and cooperation with the occupying US forces. During his time as Imperial Diet Speaker, Takeshi was extremely focused on changing the National Diet's role in the Japanese government to be the highest authority. This led him to work very closely with the SCAP Government Section and other Diet members to give more autonomy to the Imperial Diet, allowing the Diet to have jurisdiction free from the government's bureaucratic control.

Tetsu Katayama—Japan Socialist Party

Katayama is a politician from Tanabe, Japan. He first became involved in politics in 1926 as secretary-general of the newly established Social Democratic Party. He was elected to the lower house of the Diet of Japan in 1930, representing the Kanagawa Prefecture. As a major player in the Social Democratic Party, Katayama hopes to advocate for the rights of laborers and working-class Japanese in post-war Japan. Katayama is largely focused on bringing labor issues to the main stage of discussions in the National Diet and hopes to introduce legislation for unemployed Japanese people.

Tokujiro Kanamori—Japan Liberal Party

Tokujiro is a Japanese politician. He was born in 1886 and graduated from Tokyo University in 1912 with a law degree. Before his time on the National Diet, he worked as Director-General of the Cabinet Legislation Bureau, which established his position in Japan as a respected constitutional scholar. His status as a well-read constitutional intel-

lectual was acknowledged by him being appointed to the National Diet in early 1946 as the Minister of State. In this committee, he has been chosen. In this position, Tokujiro will advocate for the writing and a thorough discussion of the new constitution, hoping to address all aspects of the Japanese plight in the new constitution and help spread the message to the Japanese public that new laws will be enforced soon.

Yoshida Shigeru—Japan Liberal Party

Yoshida briefly attended various universities and educational institutions in his early years, studying law, public service, business, and diplomacy. The beginning of Yoshida's political career consisted of diplomatic missions to countries like China, Italy, the United States, and the United Kingdom. Bearing an anti-war attitude, he made efforts to prevent and later end the war with the Allies by persuading the authoritarian Japanese government to begin peace negotiations. The Liberal Party was formed immediately following the Japanese surrender to end World War II, and Yoshida Shigeru was an early member of the new party. Since then, Yoshida has been appointed to the position of Prime Minister after Occupation leaders were unsatisfied with Kijūrō Shidehara and his conservative economic policies. Encompassing pro-American and pro-British, ideologies, he was a prime candidate from the view of the Occupation.

Research and Preparation Questions

Your dais has prepared the following research and preparation questions as a means of providing guidance for your research process. These questions should be carefully considered, as they embody some of the main critical thought and learning objectives surrounding your topic.

Topic A

1. How can Japan rebuild its economy following the war? What economic strength can prove most beneficial to the nation?
2. How should the committee react to the Westernization of Japan? What routes towards modernization and reconstruction should the committee consider, and what reactions should be avoided?
3. How should the committee go about rebuilding the government? What new reforms are needed? To what extent should we eliminate traditional forms of governance in favor of new ideals?
4. How should Japan go about the reintegration of veterans that fought in the war?
5. What are the most important issues that should be addressed in Japan's new Constitution?
6. How should Japan handle relations with the allied powers, and more importantly, with the SCAP?

Important Documents

Grant K. Goodman, comp. "The American Occupation of Japan." *East Asian Series Research Publication*. no. 2 (1968): 6-50. <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org/c7cf/8e9f223e390564bf9f218b7c510c2c093aa3.pdf>.

This document provides an organized analysis of the American occupation of Japan, breaking analysis into the political, economic, and social ramifications of the occupation. Furthermore, the document gives in-depth commentary on the various aspects of the occupations, while discussing the possible outcomes for Japanese society, had America not occupied its country for seven years.

Hayes, Louis D. *Introduction to Japanese Politics*. New York: Routledge, 2017. General History.

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Asia for Educators, “Japan’s Quest for Power and World War II in Asia,” Columbia University, 2009, http://afe.easia.columbia.edu/special/japan_1900_power.htm.

This source delves into great details about Japan escaping from the worldwide depression in the early 1930s and the economic changes made during that time. Talking about the political, social, and economic factors that caused Japan to join World War II, this source provides a valuable resource.

Asia for Educators. “The American Occupation of Japan, 1945-1952.” Columbia University. Accessed July 19, 2020. http://afe.easia.columbia.edu/special/japan_1900_occupation.htm.

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Asia for Educators, “The Meiji Restoration and Modernization,” Columbia University, 2009, http://afe.easia.columbia.edu/special/japan_1750_meiji.htm.

This article mentions Japan’s first interaction with the United States and the subsequent upheaval of societal practices to become more like their Western counterparts. Detailed greatly in this article are the main changes Japan made during the Meiji Restoration, especially the transformation of their military to engage in regional wars and conquer foreign territory.

Asia Society. “Japanese History.” Accessed June 10, 2020, <https://asiasociety.org/education/japanese-history>.

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Hunter, Janet., and Cornelia. Storz. *Institutional and Technological Change in Japan's Economy Past and Present* / Edited by Janet Hunter and Cornelia Storz. [Electronic Resource] : London; Routledge, 2006. <https://library.oapen.org/viewer/web/viewer.html?file=/bitstream/handle/20.500.12657/24220/1005911.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>.

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