The Search for Global Citizenship: The Violation of Human Rights in Asia, 1931-1945

A Resource Guide for Ontario Teachers of Canadian and World Studies, Grades 10-12

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The Search for Global Citizenship:
The Violation of Human Rights in Asia,
1931-1945

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Produced by
Toronto ALPHA

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Foreword

This guidebook for Canadian high school teachers, *The Search for Global Citizenship*, is one of those ideas that seem so obvious that the first reaction is, *of course*. Then there is a moment of wonder that it has taken so long to appreciate that the history Canadians learn should extend far beyond voyageurs and British conquests. The country is gloriously diverse, yet the retrospectives that our schools present have been somewhat like a world atlas with only a few countries represented.

Concepts about justice are old. They are imbedded in religious tradition and are emerging in a slowly evolving body of international human rights legislation. Despite what should be deterrents, power struggles invariably arouse human beings to participate in cruelty and slaughters horrible beyond imagination.

If world peace ever happens, it will be built on knowledge. Young people cannot understand the importance of defending existing protections of human life and dignity without knowing that the wall between decency and depravity is paper thin.

*The Search for Global Citizenship* is an important start in what must become a series of guidebooks framing history not only as a parade of dates and uprisings and armistices but as events that occur because people can be seized by ideology and hatred so overwhelming that they are moved to madness. If we don’t understand that evil exists, we are doomed to be careless about safeguarding goodness.

This guidebook gives me hope.

*June Callwood*

*Canadian journalist, author and social activist, 2005*
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Included in this document is a section specifically for the Grade 10 Canadian History and Civics courses. Lesson suggestions are aligned with the overall and specific expectations in the revised Ontario Canadian and World Studies (2005) curriculum document. A working group of educators was established to write and complete this resource guide. Toronto ALPHA is indebted to the following members (listed alphabetically):

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Introduction

The Resource •
Why Teach about Justice and Humanity in War •
Guidelines for Teaching Controversial Issues •

November 14, 1937: the Japanese Army 16th Division approaching Meilizhhen, a town near Changshu, China.
The Resource

This document, *The Search for Global Citizenship: The Violation of Human Rights in Asia, 1931-1945*, is a resource guide to support the Ontario Curriculum on Canadian and World Studies for the Intermediate and Senior Divisions (Grades 9 to 12). This resource provides learning materials and resource information about events that took place prior to and during World War II in the Asia-Pacific theatre. The documents and information are intended to allow students to investigate issues related to war crimes and crimes against humanity.

The learning expectations identified in this document (see Curriculum Connections for Grade 10, pp. 20-23, and Curriculum Connections for Grades 11-12, pp. 55-63) are aligned with the revised Ontario Curriculum Expectations for Canadian and World Studies (2005). This guide is designed to provide support for approximately two to four hours of instruction at the Intermediate level and five to seven hours at the Senior level.

This resource includes:
- a rationale for teaching about active global citizenship, human rights, justice and humanity
- guidelines for teaching controversial issues
- backgrounder to the Asia-Pacific War
- links to Ontario Curriculum expectations
- detailed lessons
- teacher and student resources and handouts
- reference lists

Overall Unit Expectations for the Intermediate and Senior Divisions

The overall expectations for students in this teaching resource are:
- to develop an appreciation, as Canadians, of being part of a larger global community
- to develop both the academic skills that are embodied by historical and geographical literacy and the historian’s habits of mind
- to promote critical thinking, reasoned judgment, ethical decision making and an awareness of the consequences of one’s actions
- to develop a better understanding of some of the historical events of the Asia-Pacific War and Canada’s role in it
- to examine and analyze the roles that specific international institutions and nations played in the Asia-Pacific War
- to foster empathy and a sense of justice regarding the suffering of others
- to gain confidence in the possibility of improving human rights through understanding the roles individuals and nations can play in international justice
- to develop active and conscientious global citizenship and encourage meaningful participation in the development of a just and responsible future

“Those who cannot remember the past are condemned to repeat it”.

George Santayana

“Hope is the mainspring of human existence...Without hope, there is no incentive for learning, for the impulse to learn presupposes confidence in the possibility of improving one's existence”.

Philip Phoenix, 1974
Why Teach about Justice and Humanity Against the Background of War?

People around the world hoped for a bright and peaceful future after the triumph of the Allies over the Axis powers of Germany, Japan, and Italy in World War II. The courts that were convened after the war attempted to deal, once and for all, with the incomprehensible crimes against humanity and acts of aggression that occurred between 1931 and 1945. Through their rendered judgments, the Courts declared that such acts would no longer be tolerated. It was no longer acceptable to use (and abuse) the excuse that “I was just following orders”. In the hope of maintaining a just peace an international institution, The United Nations, was created with a Charter on Human Rights to help monitor and maintain peaceful global interactions. These hopes have, at best, been only partially realized.

Since the end of World War II, millions of people have lost their lives to wars, and millions more have become victims of crimes against humanity. From Cambodia to the former state of Yugoslavia and from Rwanda to Darfur, war-related atrocities have continued. Innocents such as women and children are almost always the indiscriminate targets of violence in war zones, and they suffer particular and horrendous cruelties.

If we are to break the cycle of violence, humankind must constantly remind itself of its own capacity for indifference and evil. We must continue to educate ourselves, and in particular our youth, on how to prevent crimes against humanity. Conversely, we must also remind ourselves of the incredible capacity for humans to act in a selfless and generous manner.

The courage of Roaul Wallenburg, Minnie Vautrin and Romeo Dallaire are but a few examples of the goodness of humans. Through our government, we, as Canadians, have committed ourselves to upholding and promoting human rights and peace. Canadians are recognized worldwide for the contributions and sacrifices we have made to make this world a better place. These are noble commitments, but Canadians are not immune from committing injustices abroad. The brutal killing of a Somali man by Canadian troops while on peacekeeping duties in Somalia in 1993 is a stark reminder that we, too, must be vigilant. Only through the continual examination of the past can we extend our hope that present and future generations make a commitment to the lofty and empowering goal of Never again.
This resource guide examines the lessons learned from World War II in Asia and related conflicts. Why a resource on this particular topic and in this particular area?

- Traditionally, textbooks used in Ontario have focused on the European theatre in World War II, and the war in Asia has often been neglected.
- Ontario has become the locus of Canada’s immigration; cities such as Toronto, Ottawa, Windsor, and their suburbs have become some of the most cosmopolitan and multi-cultural communities in the world. There is an increasing number of students of Asian heritage in Ontario schools, and their family histories include the war in Asia (1931-1945). Their experiences and stories must be acknowledged.
- Canadians had a small but significant role in the Asia-Pacific theatre during and after the war. We can learn from this experience.
- Many grievances related to the war in Asia have not yet been resolved, and a movement for redress has emerged.
- By learning about human rights abuses in Asia during the war, we may be challenged to become responsible and active global citizens.
- Finally, this resource offers an opportunity to better understand the relationship between the war and the post-war evolution of international regulations regarding human rights, justice and armed conflict.

The Canadian prisoners of war released by Japan in 1945 were mostly skin and bones, but we were very happy to have lived through their ordeal.
Guidelines for Teaching Controversial Issues

Some ideas presented in this resource are controversial. The subject matter may create anxiety and generate questions about the future. However, protecting students from controversial issues and global problems is not the way to preserve or nurture a sense of hope for the future. Part of the solution rests in encouraging students to become active global citizens by exploring all sides of an issue, finding out about those who are working to lobby for improved policies and new laws, and considering solutions and actions they and others might take to improve the world. Most importantly, awareness of the issues can help them guard against allowing acts of injustice or inhumanity to recur.

A controversial topic has two important characteristics:

- It contains one or more issues that have no clear resolution on which all parties can agree, or for which there are no readily available solutions.
- The issue(s) have public prominence and have received media attention over time.

Before teaching a controversial topic, teachers need to clarify their own values. They can do this by conducting a self-reflection activity to identify their own biases, recognizing and listing them before and during teaching. It is important for the teacher to present the facts as objectively as possible.

Following these “ground rules” will also help to ensure that the topic is presented fairly and with sensitivity:

- A classroom is not a platform.
- Controversy is best taught through a critical examination of the documents; evaluation of all points to consider; reflection, and then discussion. Avoid direct instruction.
- Discussion should protect divergence of views among the participants.
- Exploring issues should promote better understanding and not be merely an exchange of intolerance.

A baby crying for help after the Japanese bombed the Shanghai South Railway Station on August 28, 1937. This picture was taken by LIFE magazine’s photographer.
The lesson plan for teaching a controversial topic should include:

- ground rules for interaction and discussion - participants must observe the rules of decorum. They should remain polite, respectful and objective and disagree only with the idea and not the person
- a clear division of tasks and responsibilities
- time to deal with the students’ concerns and questions
- assessment / evaluation tools should be laid out clearly in advance, and should be completed for each individual student, separate and distinct from the group

In implementing strategies such as large and small group discussions, independent research, and/or role plays, students should be encouraged to analyze the issue by asking questions such as:

- What is the issue about?
- What biases are brought to bear on the issue?
- What interest groups are involved and what views do they promote?
- What are the arguments for the various views?
- What is assumed?
- How are the arguments manipulated?
Teacher Backgrounder

The Asia-Pacific War •
Lessons for Global Citizenship •
Justice and Reconciliation: Then and Now •

“Shanghai is burning” in 1937
The Asia-Pacific War

For the American and Canadian governments, World War II in Asia began only after the Imperial Japanese forces attacked Pearl Harbour on December 7, 1941. But in fact, war had already been raging in Asia for a decade.

Today, most scholars of Asian history accept that the war in Asia began on September 18, 1931 when the Imperial Japanese Army attacked and occupied Manchuria, in northern China. On July 7, 1937, Japan launched an all-out invasion of China. In the pursuit of accuracy, we have adopted the term Asia-Pacific War to embrace both the Asian phase of the war, from 1931 to 1941, and the Pacific phase of World War II, from 1942 to 1945.

As in many wars, the roots of conflict in the Asia-Pacific region run deep. In order to understand these and subsequent events, we provide an historical framework of analysis covering the years 1895-1945.

Setting the Stage: Imperialism, Racism, and Autocracy (1895-1930)

Japan was a latecomer on the world stage of imperialism. In the second half of the 19th century, Japan had to give up centuries of self-imposed isolation. American warships arrived on Japan's shores in 1853 to confront the country with the West's overwhelming military and technical strength. Most of Asia had by that time been colonized by Western powers. In the end, Japan was not invaded, but the Western powers imposed treaties on Japan that limited the government's ability to control its economy and granted Westerners special privileges.

Faced with this situation, Japan’s leaders decided to “modernize” the nation by introducing a capitalist economy and by striving to obtain foreign markets and colonies. Under the autocratic Meiji constitution of 1889, the Emperor, a powerful sovereign similar to the absolute monarchs in Europe of earlier centuries, commanded the armies and made war and peace. The Japanese education system preached Confucian ethics of loyalty to a lord and obedience of children to parents and, by extension, to all those in authority. This loyalty and obedience was extended to the Emperor, as head of the nation-family.

To advance her economic and military goals, Japan attempted to colonize Korea, the nearest less-developed country. This move brought Japan into conflict with China, which had traditionally treated Korea as a tributary state. This led to the Sino-Japanese War of 1894-1895. Japan's military, now equipped with imported arms and ships, defeated the Chinese army in Korea and invaded parts of China. The harsh peace treaty forced on China awarded the Japanese government an indemnity worth five times the Japanese annual budget as well as the possession of Taiwan. It also enhanced Japan’s prestige both at home and abroad. Japan concluded that war did pay off.
The Japanese government was also influenced by its relationship with other powers. Great Britain and Japan, for example, signed the Anglo-Japanese Alliance in 1902, and US President Theodore Roosevelt supported Japan in its war with Russia in 1904-1905. After this war, Japan extended its colonial presence, gaining control over parts of the Liaotung Peninsula (Manchuria) and the southern half of Sahkalin Island transition. The United States government agreed to Japan's domination of Korea in 1905 in return for Japan's guarantee that it would not challenge US colonial control of the Philippines. Japan gained further colonies during World War I.

The year 1919 was a turning point in Korean resistance to Japanese control. Korean patriots launched the March First Movement to demand self-determination for Korea. Nearly half a million people took part in actions against Japanese rule in over 600 locations across Korea. Japanese occupation forces killed thousands of protesters and arrested between 12,000 and 45,000.

The decision was made at the Paris Peace Conference, following World War I, to allow Japan to keep the German properties in China (Shantung) that were seized during the war. This sparked a massive outcry in China. Student groups, unions, and writers organized large protest demonstrations against Japan. This protest, the May Fourth Movement, among other factors, provided the impetus for both the consolidation of the Chinese Nationalist Party and the formation of the Chinese Communist Party.

Japan's territorial conquests were accompanied by contempt for the conquered. As a result, racism toward Chinese and Koreans became a part of the fabric of everyday life.

Tragically, racism in the West further fueled Japanese expansion in Asia. Immigration policies based on racial exclusion adopted in Canada and the United States, for example, barred both Chinese and Japanese wishing to leave their home countries. These barriers against immigration were then used by the Japanese government to convince their citizens that they needed to expand their control into places like Korea and China to allow for emigration.

Within Japan, there was opposition to Japanese expansion on the continent, but this was quickly suppressed. Many felt that Japan had to emulate the Euro-American powers and build its own empire. Despite emerging liberal and democratic trends during the period 1912-1925, including the expansion of the right of most males to vote, the “Emperor” system, patriotism, and anticommunism prevented any serious internal resistance to Japan's territorial and economic expansion.
Japan faced serious problems both at home and abroad in the late 1920s. Chinese Nationalist Party troops began to move north, threatening Japan’s control in parts of Manchuria and in Korea (annexed by Japan in 1910). Also, the worldwide depression that began in 1929 dealt a serious blow to Japan's economy, particularly its exports. These factors contributed to the Japanese military becoming even more aggressive in pursuit of territorial acquisitions.

**Aggression and Isolation (1931-1941)**

On September 18, 1931, officers in Japan’s Kwantung Army fabricated an incident by placing a bomb on the Southern Manchurian railway which was then under Japanese control. The army, blaming Chinese soldiers for the explosion, invaded Manchuria, and established a puppet state called Manchukuo. The League of Nations subsequently condemned Japan for its aggression. However, Japan withdrew from the League in 1933, and the Japanese army expanded its control in northern China.

In July 1937, Japan decided to launch an all-out, but undeclared, war against China. Despite stiff Chinese resistance, Japanese forces took Shanghai and, in early December, Nanking - China's capital at that time. There, Imperial soldiers reportedly killed tens of thousands of captured soldiers and civilians. Women and young girls were raped, and children were brutally treated. The “Rape of Nanking,” as it became known, is considered by some as among the worst atrocities in history.
At this time, the Japanese government established a system of so-called “comfort stations”. Thousands of women, particularly from Korea, but also from throughout Asia, were tricked or forced into prostitution and used as sex slaves by Japanese soldiers. Some were girls as young as 12 years old. Of the approximately 200,000 victims, about 150,000 perished during or immediately after the war.

Japan’s government also sponsored the development of and experimentation with biological and chemical warfare. Under the leadership of Ishii Shiro, Unit 731 began to test and produce biological weapons at Pingfang, Manchuria. Many POWs and civilians were murdered in experiments. Bacteria-filled and chemical bombs were used against Chinese civilians. It is estimated that between 600,000 and two million shells filled with poisonous chemicals remain buried in China. Although both China's Nationalist and Communist parties continued the war of resistance against Japan, few countries, including Canada, came to their assistance.

In 1936 Japan allied with Germany in the Anti-Comintern Pact, and Italy joined soon after. This, along with Japan's decision in 1937 to invade the rest of China, put it on a collision course with other imperial powers, especially Great Britain and the United States. Once the war in Europe began, in 1939, Japan began to look to the rest of Asia to secure an independent supply of natural resources, particularly oil, from the Dutch East Indies (Indonesia). It rationalized its expansion by propagating the idea of liberating Asia from the domination of Western imperialism and by creating a “Greater East Asian Co-Prosperity Sphere”.

The Pacific Offensive (1941-1945)

When the Imperial Japanese forces began to move into Indochina in 1940-1941, other countries began to act. For example, the United States and Canada imposed economic sanctions against Japan. Japan decided that to win control over Asia, it would need to confront the United States. On December 7, 1941, Imperial Japanese forces attacked US bases at Pearl Harbour, Hawaii, and the Philippines. At the same time, Japanese forces also began a massive assault against Commonwealth forces in Hong Kong and Malaya. Hundreds of Canadians died defending Hong Kong, and on Christmas Day of 1941, 1,685 Canadian soldiers were captured there. Of the 1,975 Canadian soldiers who fought at the battle of Hong Kong, 290 were killed, 493 were wounded, and the remainder were all taken prisoner. Subsequently, Japan succeeded in establishing control throughout most of Southeast Asia.

However, in China and other countries, armed resistance to Japanese control continued, and as the US brought its economic and technological supremacy to bear against Japan, the tide of the war began to turn. Besides the Canadian troops sent to defend Hong Kong, many other Canadians - including Chinese and Japanese Canadians - served in the Pacific theatre. Japanese Canadians volunteered, in spite of the fact that the Canadian government had forcibly removed them from their homes in British Columbia in 1942, based on the racist view that Japanese-Canadians were enemy aliens and a menace to Canada. Through the efforts of the Allied forces, Japan was put clearly on the defensive by 1944.
Japan’s treatment of prisoners of war was atrocious. The number of US and Commonwealth POWs who died in captivity under the German and Italian regimes was four percent, compared to 27 percent of those held by Japan. Many POWs were forced to toil under inhumane conditions. They were often beaten and denied medical care, and many were executed or died from diseases or malnutrition. As well, the Japanese government forced many civilians from the occupied territories to work as slave labourers for the Japanese military and for private Japanese corporations. Over 15 million people in China and other Asian countries died during the war because of Japan’s aggression.

In the summer of 1945, the United States decided to drop atomic bombs on Japan. The first fell on Hiroshima on August 6; the second on Nagasaki on August 9. Meanwhile the Soviet Union entered the war against Japan, mobilising its troops against Japan’s army in northern China. Finally, on August 15, Japan surrendered. For some people, such as the POWs interned in Japan, the atomic bombs seemed like lifesavers. To many others, however, the dropping of atomic bombs against mainly civilian populations seemed like a war crime itself.

A U.S. airman at Fukuoka Prison being executed.
Lessons for Global Citizenship

In trying to understand this terrible episode in Asian history, we cannot deny that atrocities occurred or downplay their seriousness. However, it is unwise to think that these acts were uniquely Japanese, or that they reflect some aberration in the character of the Japanese people.

There were, of course, specific dynamics unique to Japan. For example, the Japanese state made use of the ancient code of the warriors (bushido) and the Emperor system (kokutai) to instil fanaticism and a follower mentality within the military and among the civilian population. Similar factors played a part in the rise of fascism and dictatorship on a global scale during the 1920s and 1930s. After the war, the world community searched for ways to prevent aggressive war and human rights violations. The results of this search offer rich lessons in global citizenship.

Imperialism

By annexing Korea and Manchuria and invading China, Japan was attempting to carve out its own colonial empire. It did this under the pretext of liberating Asian from Western imperialism. The West was vulnerable to criticism, because Great Britain, the United States, the Netherlands, Spain, Portugal, France, Germany, and Russia had all previously colonized parts of Asia.

The world community has since rejected this colonialism and, through the United Nations, has adopted the following principle: “All members shall refrain in their international relations from the threat or use of force against the territorial integrity or political independence of any state, or in any other manner inconsistent with the purposes of the United Nations”. (Article 2(4) of the United Nations Charter of June 26, 1945.)

Democracy

Despite a movement for liberal-democratic reform in Japan between 1911 and 1928 and the granting of universal male suffrage in 1925, political repression was achieved through a public security act. The Japanese government repressed both democratic and left-wing criticism of its actions abroad. Ultra-nationalist Japanese military and civilian groups were organized in reaction to the rising democracy movement, to the world economic crisis, and to what they perceived as hesitancy on the part of the government in carrying out what they viewed as Japan's divine Imperial mission. Terrorist activities and imprisonment brought most groups into line, including the Imperial household, the bureaucracy, and conventional political parties. Military and civilian police units became so powerful that by 1940 political prisoners could be detained indefinitely, and political parties and trade unions were disbanded.
Motivated by a desire to avoid repeating experiences such as those described above, people and nations worked to establish standards of civil conduct that would empower people. For example, the United Nations adopted the Universal Declaration of Human Rights, passed on December 10, 1948, by the United Nations General Assembly. These and other codes created new benchmarks for the respect of human and social rights, and adherence to them can help promote and protect democracy.

**Militarism**

When the Emperor of Japan declared war on China in 1894 and on Russia in 1904, he explicitly stated that Japan would respect international law. In the 1930s, when the Japanese government and military commenced their acts of aggression in China, they referred to these as “incidents” rather than acts of war. To them, this meant that they were no longer bound by recognized rules of war, including the Hague and Geneva conventions that offered minimal standards of protection for prisoners of war and civilian prisoners. These factors contributed to the poor treatment of both POWs and non-combatant civilians by the Japanese military.

**Racism and Sexism**

Racism fuelled the atrocities committed by the Japanese military. Today racism persists throughout the world, which in more extreme cases led “ethnic cleansing” and genocide. Similarly, sexism leads to crimes against women, including rape and other acts of violence. The world community has outlawed such acts, and these prohibitions have been enshrined in human rights legislation on international and national levels. Some of these legislaton include the United Nations passed the Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide (1948); the International Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (1965); and the Declaration on the Elimination of Violence against Women (1993).

These and other conventions result from the lessons of the past, but constant education, vigilance, and preventive services are essential if they are to have a meaningful impact.
Justice and Reconciliation: Then and Now

The United States took primary responsibility for the occupation of Japan after the war. While the occupation ushered in many positive reforms, there was definitely a dark side to this period. As one historian concluded:

“One of the most pernicious aspects of the occupation was that the Asian peoples who had suffered most from Imperial Japan’s depredations – the Chinese, Koreans, Indonesians, and Filipinos – had no serious role, no influential presence at all in the defeated land. They became invisible. Asian contributions to defeating the Emperor’s soldiers and sailors were displaced by an all-consuming focus on the American victory in the Pacific War”.

Guidelines for the trials of Japanese war criminals were formulated in the Charter of the International Military Tribunal for the Far East, January 19, 1946. The Charter defined three categories of war crimes: (a) crimes against peace, (b) conventional war crimes, and (c) crimes against humanity. A similar charter had already been formulated for the Nuremberg Tribunal for German war criminals in August 1945.

This tribunal tried 28 Japanese war leaders for crimes against peace and for conventional war crimes. Twenty-five were found guilty. Of these, seven were executed, and the others were given prison terms. Two died during trial, and one was found mentally incompetent. All those imprisoned were pardoned by 1957. Local military tribunals were convened in other countries - including Hong Kong, the Philippines, and the Dutch East Indies (Indonesia) - resulting in the execution of approximately 900 people and the imprisonment of approximately 3,000 others, mostly for crimes against prisoners of war. Tribunals were also held in the Soviet Union and mainland China.

But issues related to Japan’s war responsibility were sidelined as US relations with the Soviet Union degenerated and American occupation policy shifted towards making Japan its outpost against communism in Asia. In order to avoid highlighting Japan’s past, at least fifty alleged war criminals awaiting trial by the Tokyo Tribunal were released, and various other war crimes committed throughout Asia, such as the use of biological and chemical weapons, the system of sexual slavery, and forced labour were ignored. In particular, war crimes committed against Asians did not receive adequate attention.

In September 1951, as the Korean War raged, 48 countries, including Canada, signed the San Francisco Peace Treaty with Japan. The Soviet Union did not sign, and representatives from China and Korea were not even invited. The peace treaty saw Japan (a) abandon all claims to its colonial territories, (b) accept the Tokyo war crimes judgment, and (c) give up its properties and assets abroad. At the same time, other countries received very modest reparations from Japan. Hong Kong veterans, for example, each received $1.50 for each day they were imprisoned.
The Cold War climate of fear in the 1950s allowed conservative forces in Japan to deny the country's war-crimes responsibility. This led to the chronic problem of the Japanese government’s promotion of textbooks that downplayed Japan's colonial past. Consequently, many younger Japanese people today have little idea of Japan's wartime activities. However, other citizens have demanded that the Japanese government face its responsibilities. Japanese historians and journalists, for example, chronicled the Nanking massacre for Japanese readers 20 years before Iris Chang had already published *The Rape of Nanking* in 1997 for English-speaking audiences.

Victims of the war, however, were left with little recourse after the closing of the military tribunals and the signing of the San Francisco Peace Treaty. Canada's own Hong Kong war veterans are a case in point. For years, the Hong Kong Veterans Association of Canada campaigned for both a formal apology and compensation from the government of Japan for abuse suffered by POWs. In 1987 veterans took their case to the United Nations Human Rights Commission, but the government of Canada refused to support their claim, asserting that all rights were extinguished by the San Francisco Peace Treaty. Finally, in 1998 the Canadian government paid the veterans compensation of $18 per day of captivity. Although grateful for the compensation, many veterans remain embittered by their experiences, particularly by the lack of redress from the Japanese government and corporations which had benefitted from their sufferings.

The large majority of the victims of Japanese war crimes were people from China, Korea, the Philippines, and other Asian nations. In the 1980s, as the Cold War began to settle and as Japan’s economic influence in Asia grew, elderly victims came forward to demand an apology and redress.

Japan’s violations of international laws of war were broad in scope and include:
- inhumane treatment of prisoners
- mass killing of civilians and surrendered soldiers, such as at Nanking
- military sexual slavery
- biological and chemical weapons and experiments on humans
- forced relocation and forced labour

Survivors and their supporters have pressed their claims for redress in a number of ways. Some have lobbied their own as well as the Japanese government and demanded a full apology and compensation from Japan. Some victims have pursued their cause through legal means, filing civil suits in Japan's courts and, more
recently, in courts in the United States. In other cases, proponents of redress have taken their cases to international bodies such as the United Nations or the International Labour Organization.

As a result, the governments of South Korea and the Philippines, as well as the state legislature of California and Hong Kong, have passed motions demanding that Japan squarely address its responsibilities regarding the commission of war crimes by its military.

**The Case of the “Comfort Woman”**

The case of the “comfort women”, the women who were forced to become sex slaves in brothels set up by the Imperial army, stands out as a significant milestone in the redress movement. It also exemplifies the complexities of war crimes issues.

When former female victims in Korea and other countries stepped forward to demand redress, the Japanese government at first denied any involvement. Subsequent research, however, uncovered documentation clearly showing that the system had been administered by the Imperial forces. The Japanese government thereafter apologized and created a support foundation, the Asian Women's Fund, which provides “atonement” monies to former sex slaves. The government paid administrative and welfare costs, but the “atonement” monies were provided through private donations. This fund has been criticized as a means by which the Japanese government continues to avoid taking direct responsibility for war crimes. A special investigation by the United Nations has resulted in a call on Japan to fully compensate victims.

The Japanese government has, for the most part, resisted claims for compensation, arguing that:

- The Japanese government has apologized for the war.
- All outstanding claims were waived with the signing of the San Francisco Peace Treaty and subsequent treaties.
- Individuals cannot sue a state for compensation for war crimes; only states have that right.
- The statute of limitations for filing suit for serious crimes is 20 years in Japan, and thus the period for filing suits has expired.

In rejecting the Japanese government’s position, the victims argue that:

- The apologies offered are unacceptable, as they did not have the full support of Japan’s parliament.
- The lenient treatment regarding reparations in the San Francisco Peace Treaty was based on Japan’s economic circumstances at the time. The treaty envisaged possible changes, which have indeed occurred; Japan can now afford to pay.
- Individuals do have the right to sue a state under article III of the 1907 Hague (IV) Convention.
- The state cannot extinguish individual rights.

Some may argue that Canada, as a signatory to the 1951 San Francisco Peace Treaty, has a responsibility to ensure justice for the redress movement. Global citizenship requires that we work for justice, reconciliation, and peace on behalf of all.

2008 ALPHA Study Tour Teachers pay their respects by placing a wreath at a Nanking Massacre Victims Memorial Hall
Resource Guide for Grade 10

Connections to Ontario Grade 10 Curriculum •
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Image of helpless children at the Nanking Massacre, housed at the Museum of the Chinese People’s Resistance Against Japanese Invasion
Connections to Ontario Grade 10 Curriculum

The events and atrocities of World War II in Asia connect to the Canadian curriculum in a number of ways. These events have direct links to the overall and specific expectations in the following three Grade 10 courses. Related overall expectations appear in bold and specific expectations appear in regular font. They are listed here to assist teachers in planning their program and specific lessons.

**Canadian History since World War I, (CHC2D) - Grade 10, Academic**

This course explores the local, national, and global forces that have shaped Canada's national identity from World War I to the present. Students will investigate the challenges presented by economic, social, and technological changes and explore the contributions of individuals and groups to Canadian culture and society during this period. Students will use critical-thinking and communication skills to evaluate various interpretations of the issues and events of the period and to present their own points of view. More specifically, students will be expected to:

- **assess Canada’s participation in war and contributions to peacekeeping and security by:**
  - describing Canada’s and Canadians’ contributions to the war effort overseas during World War I and World War II
  - describing atrocities committed during World War II and assessing Canada’s response to them

- **explain how and why Canada’s international status and foreign policy have changed since 1914 by:**
  - analysing Canada’s responses to some of the major human tragedies since World War I, including Japanese atrocities prior to and during World War II

- **analyse the changing responses of the federal and provincial governments to social and economic pressures since 1914 by:**
  - explaining how and why the Canadian government restricted certain rights and freedoms in wartime
  - describing the impact, both short- and long-term, of these restrictions on the general population and on various groups within Canada

- **formulate questions on topics and issues in the history of Canada since 1914, and use appropriate methods of historical research to locate, gather, evaluate and organize relevant information from a variety of sources by:**
  - evaluating the credibility of sources and information (e.g., by considering the authority, impartiality, and expertise of the source and checking information for accuracy, underlying assumptions, stereotypes, prejudice and bias)
- organizing and recording information gathered through research (e.g., using notes, lists, concept webs, timelines, charts, maps, graphs, mind maps)

- interpret and analyze information gathered through research, employing concepts and approaches appropriate to historical inquiry by:
  - analysing information, employing concepts and theories appropriate to historical inquiry (e.g., chronology, cause and effect, short- and long-term consequences)
  - distinguishing between fact, opinion, and inference in texts and visuals found in primary and secondary sources
  - identifying different viewpoints and explicit biases when interpreting information for research or when participating in a discussion
  - drawing conclusions and making reasoned generalizations or appropriate predictions on the basis of relevant and sufficient supporting evidence

- communicate the results of historical inquiries, using appropriate terms and concepts and a variety of forms of communication by:
  - expressing ideas, arguments, and conclusions, as appropriate for the audience and purpose, using a variety of styles and forms (e.g., reports, essays, debates, role playing, group presentations)
  - using an accepted form of documentation (e.g., footnotes, endnotes, or author-date citations; bibliographies or reference lists) to acknowledge all sources of information, including electronic sources

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**Canadian History since World War I, (CHC2P) - Grade 10, Applied**

This course explores some of the pivotal events and experiences as well as the local, national, and global forces that have influenced the development and shared Canada’s identity as a nation from World War I to the present. Students will investigate the challenges presented by economic, social, and technological changes and explore the contributions of individuals and groups to Canadian culture and society during this period. Students will use critical thinking and communication skills to evaluate various interpretations of the issues and events of the period and to present their own points of view.

Students will be expected to:

- **evaluate Canada’s participation in war and contributions to peacekeeping and security by:**
  - describing some of the contributions Canada and Canadians made to the war effort overseas including Hong Kong during World War I and World War II
• describe changes in Canada’s international status and its role in the world since 1914 by:
  - describing Canada’s responses to some of the major human tragedies that have occurred including the Nanking massacre since World War I

• assess the changing role and power of the federal and provincial governments in Canada since 1914 by:
  - assessing key instances in which the Canadian government chose to restrict citizens’ rights and freedoms in wartime and peacetime, including mandatory registration of enemy aliens and the internment of Japanese-Canadians

• formulate questions on topics and issues in the history of Canada since 1914, and use appropriate methods of historical research to locate, gather, evaluate and organize relevant information from a variety of sources by:
  - evaluating the credibility of sources and information

• interpret and analyse information gathered through research, employing concepts and approaches appropriate to historical inquiry by:
  - identifying different viewpoints and explicit biases when interpreting information for research projects or when participating in discussions
  - drawing conclusions on the basis of relevant and sufficient supporting evidence

• communicate the results of historical inquiries, using appropriate terms and concepts and a variety of forms of communication by:
  - expressing ideas, arguments, and conclusions as appropriate for audience and purpose
  - using a variety of oral, written and visual forms
This course explores what it means to be an informed, participating citizen in a democratic society. Students will learn about the elements of democracy and how to think critically about public issues and react responsibly to them, and will be expected to:

- **analyse responses to civic issues that involve multiple perspectives and differing civic purposes by:**
  - demonstrating an understanding of a citizen’s role in responding to non-democratic movements and groups
  - describing examples of human rights violations

- **apply appropriate inquiry skills to the research of questions and issues of civic importance by:**
  - formulating appropriate questions, locating relevant information, and identifying main ideas, supporting evidence, points of view, and biases

- **demonstrate an understanding of how decisions are made and conflicts resolved in matters of civic importance, and the various ways in which individual citizens participate in these processes by:**
  - comparing and contrasting different ways of resolving disputes
## Unit Overview for Grade 10

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<th>Lesson</th>
<th>Instructional Focus</th>
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<td>The War in the Pacific, Part 1: 1931-1938</td>
<td>Students examine:                                                                                      • the origins of the Asia-Pacific war&lt;br&gt;• parallels between it and the war in Europe&lt;br&gt;• the extent of civilian atrocities which preceded Allied intervention in the Pacific theatre</td>
<td>• Handout 1.1 (Timeline and Description of Origins and Events of the Asia Pacific War, 1931-1938.)&lt;br&gt;• Handout 1.2 (Biological and Chemical Warfare)&lt;br&gt;• Handout 1.3 (The Nanking Massacre)&lt;br&gt;• Handout 1.4 (“Comfort Women”)</td>
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<td>The War in the Pacific, Part 2: 1939-1945</td>
<td>Students become familiar with some of the major events of the second half of the Asia-Pacific war, including:&lt;br&gt;• the Canadian defense of Hong Kong and the fate of the Canadian soldiers who fought there&lt;br&gt;• the internment of Japanese-Canadians at home&lt;br&gt;• the use of slave labour by the Japanese&lt;br&gt;• issues of reparations and compensation for these and other groups</td>
<td>• Handout 2.1 (Timeline and Description of Events of the Asia-Pacific War, 1939-1945)&lt;br&gt;• Handout 2.2 (The Battle for Hong Kong: Before, During and After, 1941-1998)&lt;br&gt;• Handout 2.3 (Japanese Canadian Internment) 1942 and After&lt;br&gt;• Handout 2.4 (Slave Labour in Japan and the Occupied Territories)&lt;br&gt;• Handout 2.5 (The San Francisco Peace Treaty, 1951)</td>
<td>60 - 120 minutes</td>
</tr>
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Lessons for Grade 10

2008 Peace & Reconciliation Study Tour Teachers inside the Nanking Massacre Victims Memorial Hall
Lesson One: The War in the Pacific, 1931-1938

Overview:

Students examine the origins of the Asia-Pacific War, the parallels between it and the war in Europe, and the extent of civilian atrocities which preceded Allied intervention in the Pacific theatre.

Teaching/Learning Strategies:

1. Using Handout 1.1, students divide into groups of four to six to develop a list of possible answers to this question: *Imagine a fictitious country which is very aggressive and is attempting to invade and rule its neighbours. From what you have learned about Japanese history in the twentieth century, what do you think might be some of its characteristics?*
   - Consider geography, population size, structure of the government, the military and educational systems, the economy, relationships between social classes, religious beliefs and/or any other factors which might have a bearing on imperialist or colonial ambitions.
   - When the lists are shared, a class discussion centred on their commonalities should consider the relationship between these factors and the consequences for civilian life in the society of the aggressor nation as well as in the conquered territories.

2. Students are divided into three groups, with each group covering one of the three following topics:
   a. biological and chemical warfare in the Asia Pacific War (Handout 1.2)
   b. the Nanking Massacre (Handout 1.3)
   c. the “comfort women” (Handout 1.4)
   - Students in each group read at least two of the references whose website addresses are provided at the end of the assigned handout, and prepare a brief paper based on the information in the reference sources.
   - The paper produced by each group will then be read by the rest of the class, and should be followed by a class-wide discussion on each topic.

We strongly recommend that the teacher issue students the following remark before having them read the articles in Handouts 1.2, 1.3 and 1.4.

"The articles you will be reading contain some graphic details about rape, murder and other acts of brutality. If you feel uncomfortable reading this material, please feel free to talk to me or even leave the room if necessary”.

Note to teacher: Some Handouts refer students to websites. If computer access is not available to all students, teachers may wish to print out those they consider most valuable.
Lesson Two: The War in the Pacific, 1939-1945

The Human Cost and the Enduring Legacy

Overview:

Students become familiar with some of the major events of the second half of the Asia-Pacific War, including the Canadian defence of Hong Kong and the fate of the Canadian soldiers who fought there; the internment of Japanese-Canadians at home; the use of slave labour by the Japanese; and issues of reparations and compensation for these and other groups.

Teaching/Learning Strategies

Tactical errors made during a war have high costs in human lives and in peoples’ well-being. In small groups, students will discuss one of the two topics below:

- What were the major errors of judgment and action taken by Canadian officials which resulted in the surrender of Hong Kong, and the deaths of so many soldiers then and afterward? What might have been done to avoid making this costly decision?
- How was the internment of Japanese-Canadians justified? How might this reprehensible decision be avoided?

A major concern of victims of war is compensation and reparation. Students will work in groups on one of the following topics:

- From whom did Canadian Hong Kong veterans demand compensation, and why? What were the barriers? What was the eventual outcome? How long did it take?
- What did Japanese-Canadians ask for by way of compensation and reparation? From whom? How long did it take to be realized? Why?
- Were people who were forced to perform slave labour compensated? How is this situation similar to or different from the post-war treatment of other civilian victims of military aggression - such as the “comfort women” or victims of the Nanking Massacre?
- What is the relationship between the 1951 San Francisco Peace Treaty and Japan’s reparations to civilian victims of the war?

Each group will make a presentation to the class that will include both its conclusions and the questions that remain unanswered.

Time: 60-120 Minutes

Materials:
- Handout 2.1 (Timeline of the Asia-Pacific War, 1939-1945)
- Handout 2.2 (The Battle for Hong Kong, 1941-1998)
- Handout 2.3 (Japanese-Canadian Internment, 1942 and After)
- Handout 2.4 (Slave Labour in Japan and the Occupied Territories)
- Handout 2.5 (The San Francisco Peace Treaty, 1951)
Handouts for Grade 10

Statue displaying the horror of the Nanjing Massacre
Handout 1.1: Timeline of the Asia-Pacific War, 1931-1938

World War II began in 1939 in Europe and ended in 1945 in Japan. Until 1941, there was no official link between the wars in Europe and Asia.

In Europe, the National Socialist (“Nazi”) Party in Germany formed the government. It encouraged Germans to believe they were a “master race” who needed and deserved more territory, and whose rightful destiny was to rule other nations. The Nazi government launched what was intended to be a world-wide war of conquest by attacking Poland in 1939. At that point, countries which had formal alliances for mutual defense with Poland (Great Britain, with Canada as one of its Commonwealth partners, and France) declared war on Germany. Thus began World War II in Europe. At the height of its territorial conquests (in 1941), Germany occupied all of Europe, except for a few neutral countries and Italy, which was its ally. (It was unsuccessful in its attempt to conquer the Soviet Union.)

Meanwhile, in Asia, Japan began invading its neighbours in 1931, with the same intention - to occupy and rule them. Japan’s government embodied the idea of the divinity of the Emperor to whom all Japanese, civilian and military, owed unquestioning allegiance and obedience. And the government insisted on its need for more territory and the fitness of the Japanese race to rule over others, just as the German government did. Japan had already dominated Korea and Taiwan in earlier conflicts and ruled them as colonies. In 1931, it invaded Manchuria, the north eastern part of China, and set up a puppet government there, and invaded other parts of northern China from that base. Beginning in 1937, the Japanese launched a full-scale invasion of China, beginning in Beijing and Shanghai.

1931  “Manchuria Incident”. The Japanese army launches a full-scale attack on Manchuria.
1932  The Japanese army seizes all of Manchuria and establishes the puppet state of Manchukuo.
      Japan begins to set up biological warfare units in Japan and China.
1933  The League of Nations declares that Manchukuo is not a legitimate state and calls for the withdrawal of Japanese troops.
      Japan withdraws from the League in protest.
      Expanding from Manchuria, the Japanese army gains control of much of North China.
1937  “Marco Polo Bridge Incident”. Japan’s full-scale invasion of China begins.
      Peking (now Beijing) and Shanghai are captured.
      When Nanking (now Nanjing), the capital falls, the Japanese military commits the Nanking Massacre.
      The military sexual slavery system for the Japanese military expands rapidly after the Nanking Massacre.

Some Japanese soldiers admitted ... they had been taught that next to the emperor, all human life, even their own, was valueless.
Iris Chang, *The Rape of Nanking*
Handout 1.2: War Atrocities – Biological and Chemical Warfare

Japan's government sponsored experiments into biological and chemical warfare. Under the leadership of Ishii Shiro, Unit 731 and other similar units performed tests on living humans. For example, they injected victims with germs to see the effects and to test the effectiveness of vaccinations. They performed operations on living humans without the use of anaesthetic. To keep their activities secret, the victims of medical experiments were then killed. These units killed thousands of POWs and civilians, mainly from China. Germ-filled bombs produced by these units were dropped on Chinese cities. Chemical weapons were mass-produced in Japan and used widely. It is estimated that even today between 600,000 and 2,000,000 shells filled with poisonous chemicals remain buried in China.

- The subsequent and willful amnesia created a decades long loss of vital history and led to the needless sufferings by the victims. This generation and the next must know about the infamous activities of Unit 731

Daniel Barenblatt,
A Plague upon Humanity

Additional Resources:
www.fas.org/nuke/guide/japan/bw
http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Unit_731
http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/asia-pacific/2218266.stm
http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/programmes/correspondent/1796044.stm
http://english.people.com.cn/200410/05/eng20041005_159097.html

The entrance to the historical site of Unit 731 in Harbin
Handout 1.3: War Atrocities – The Nanking Massacre

Japanese military aggression against China and other Asian countries before and during the Second World War is remembered for the cruelty and brutality of Japan’s imperial forces. Besides soldiers in the armies that fought Japan, the victims included an untold number of civilians in China, Korea, the Philippines, Japan, and other Asia-Pacific countries, as well as civilians from North America and Europe located in Asia when war broke out. Millions died, and millions more were held under brutal military rule. Civilians and prisoners of war faced terrible atrocities, including the sexual slavery suffered by “comfort women”, slave labour, live human medical experiments, and the use of chemical and biological weapons.

The Rape of Nanking

In 1928, the Chinese government moved the capital of China to Nanking. The city normally held about 250,000 people, but by the mid-1930s its population had swollen to more than one million. Many of them were refugees, fleeing from the Japanese armies that had invaded northern China in 1931.

On November 13, after securing control of Shanghai, the Japanese army advanced towards Nanking. In December 1937, Japanese troops invaded the city of Nanking. Much of the city was destroyed by bombing raids. The Japanese Imperial forces marched thousands of Chinese civilians into the countryside and murdered them; they raped women, and looted and burned homes. The large-scale massacre and gross mistreatment of the Chinese at Nanking became known as the Rape of Nanking. The following timeline highlights events related to the massacre.

12 November 1937 Japanese troops capture Shanghai after three months of fierce fighting. The march towards Nanking (now Nanjing) begins and the “Three-all” policy (“Loot all, kill all, burn all”) is used to terrorize civilians along the advancing route.
22 November 1937  The International Committee for the Nanking Safety Zone is organized by a group of foreigners to shelter Chinese refugees.

12 December 1937  Chinese soldiers are ordered to withdraw from Nanking.

13 December 1937  Japanese troops capture Nanking.

14 December 1937  The International Committee for the Nanking Safety Zone lodges the first protest letter against Japanese atrocities with the Japanese Embassy.

19 February 1938  The last of the 69 protest letters against Japanese atrocities is sent by the Safety Zone Committee to the Japanese Embassy and the Committee is renamed as the Nanking International Relief Committee.
Many eyewitness accounts of the Nanking Massacre were provided by Chinese civilian survivors and western nationals living in Nanking at the time. The number of Chinese killed in the massacre has been subject to much debate. The Encyclopaedia Britannica (1999-2000 Britannica.com) states that estimates of the number of Chinese killed ranges from 100,000 to more than 300,000.

Several accounts of the Nanking Massacre come from the group of 25 foreigners (mostly American, but also some German, Danish, and Russian people) who had established a neutral area called the International Safety Zone to shelter the Chinese refugees whose lives had been threatened and homes destroyed by the invading Japanese soldiers. When Nanking fell, the Zone housed over 250,000 refugees. The committee members of the Zone found ways to provide these refugees with the basic needs of food, shelter, and medical care.

Miner Searle Bates

Dr. Miner Searle Bates was a missionary and professor of history at the University of Nanking. He was also an organizing member of the Nanking International Safety Zone Committee.

Soon after the fall of Nanking, Bates lodged his first protest letter to the Japanese Embassy and continued to do so throughout the massacre at Nanking. Following is the letter he wrote to the Japanese Embassy.

December 27, 1937

Beginning more than a week ago, we were promised by you that within a few days order would be restored by replacement of troops, resumption of regular discipline, increase of military police, and so forth. Yet shameful disorder continues, and we see no serious effort to stop it. Let me give a few examples from University property [the University of Nanking was within the Zone]...

Last night between eleven and twelve o’clock, a motor car with three Japanese military men came to the main University gate, claiming that they were sent by headquarters to inspect. They forcibly prevented our watchman from giving an alarm, and kept him with them while they found and raped three girls, one of whom is only eleven years old. One of the girls they took away with them.

Stray soldiers continue to seize men to work for them, causing much fear and unnecessary inconvenience. For example, a soldier insisted on taking a worker from the Hospital yesterday; and several of our own servants and watchmen have been taken.
Several of our residences are entered daily by soldiers looking for women, food, and other articles. Two houses within one hour this morning.

...Yesterday seven different times there came groups of three or four soldiers, taking clothes, food and money from those who have some left after previous lootings of the same type. They raped seven women, including a girl of twelve. In the night larger groups of twelve or fourteen soldiers came four times and raped twenty women.

The life of the whole people is filled with suffering and fear - all caused by soldiers. Your officers have promised them protection, but the soldiers every day injure hundreds of persons most seriously. A few policemen help certain places, and we are grateful for them. But that does not bring peace and order. Often it merely shifts the bad acts of the soldiers to nearby buildings where there are no policemen....

While I have been writing this letter, a soldier has forcibly taken a woman from one of our teachers’ houses, and with his revolver refused to let an American enter. Is this order?

Many people now want to return to their homes, but they dare not because of rape, robbery, and seizure of men continuing every day and night. Only serious efforts to enforce orders, using many police and real punishments will be of any use. In several places the situation is a little better, but it is still disgraceful after two weeks of army terrorism. More than promises is now needed.

(Published in *American Missionary Eyewitnesses to the Nanking Massacre, 1937-38*, Edited by Martha Lund Smalley, Yale Divinity School Library, Occasional Publication No. 9, 1997, pp. 31-32.)

**John Rabe**

*John Rabe* was a German businessman and leader of the Nazi Party in Nanking. He saved so many lives during the Nanking Massacre that some refer to him as the "Oskar Schindler of China". When Rabe returned to Germany, he wrote to Adolf Hitler, telling him what he had witnessed in Nanking, and hoped that Hitler could prevent further atrocities by the Japanese military. Two days later, the Gestapo arrested him. Fortunately, he was released, but he was warned never to talk publicly or publish anything about the events taking place in Nanking. Following is an excerpt from the diary of John Rabe.

December 16, 1937

All the shelling and bombing we have thus far experienced are nothing in comparison to the terror that we are going through now. There is not a single shop outside our Zone that has not been looted, and now pillaging, rape, murder,
and mayhem are occurring inside the Zone as well. There is not a vacant house, whether with or without a foreign flag, that has not been broken into and looted ...

No Chinese even dares set foot outside his house! When the gates to my garden are opened to let my car leave the grounds - where I have already taken in over a hundred of the poorest refugees - women and children on the street outside kneel and bang their heads against the ground, pleading to be allowed to camp on my garden grounds. You simply cannot conceive of the misery.

I’ve just heard that hundreds more disarmed Chinese soldiers have been led out of our Zone to be shot, including 50 of our police who are to be executed for letting soldiers in.

The road to Hsiakwan is nothing but a field of corpses strewn with the remains of military equipment... There are piles of corpses outside the gate ... It may be that the disarmed Chinese will be forced to do the job before they're killed. We Europeans are all paralyzed with horror. There are executions everywhere, some are being carried out with machine guns outside the barracks of the War Ministry.


Additional Resources:

www.geocities.com/nankingatrocities/Table/table.htm
www.princeton.edu/~nanking/html/body_nanking_gallery
www.columbia.edu/cu/ccba/cer/issues/fall99/textonly/yoshida
www.cnd.org/njmassacre/nj.
www.jca.apc.org/JWRC/center/english/index-english.htm

John Rabe’s house in present day Nanking, restored as a museum
Handout 1.4: War Atrocities – “Comfort Women”

**Sexual Slavery**

An estimated 200,000 women from Korea, the Philippines, China, Burma, Indonesia and other Japanese occupied territories were forced by the Japanese military forces to work in sex stations. The Japanese soldiers referred to them as “comfort women”. Only about 30% of the women survived the war. Following is the story of a former “comfort woman” who is now living in North Korea.

**Testimony of Kim Young-shil**

“I am Kim Young-shil. I was born on October 23, 1923 and was raised in Yang-gang-do, Bochon County.

It was 1941. One day I encountered a well-dressed man in western clothes. He asked me if I wanted to have a good job. Thinking that any job would be better than working as a maid, I accepted his offer and followed him to where there were already eight other girls ahead of me. They were all about 14 or 15 years old.

So we all got on a truck, and after about 30 minutes’ ride, we arrived at a place where there were many Japanese soldiers. From there we were taken north near the border of China and Russia. There was a huge military camp, and many girls had already arrived before us. A soldier came up to me and put a name tag on my chest. It had a Japanese name “Eiko” written on it. He then told me, “From now on, you must not speak Korean. If you do, we will kill you. Now, your name is Eiko”.

The officer who took us to the camp wore a good-looking uniform with a three-star insignia. He came into my room that night. Scared, I jumped up. He sat down, laid his sword on the floor, and proceeded to take off his clothes. Why was he doing this? Where is my job? I started to cry. He shouted. “You obey my orders. I will kill you if you don't”. He then held me down and raped me. I was a virgin until that moment.

From the following day on, I was forced to service sex for 10 - 20 soldiers every day, and 40 to 50 on Sundays. We were exhausted, weakened, and some of us could not even eat. We were in a state of “half-dead”. Some girls became really sick and did not recover from the ordeal. The soldiers took them away. We did not know what happened to them, but we never saw them again. A new batch of girls arrived to replace the missing ones, like we did.

There was a girl next to my cubicle. She was younger than I, and her Japanese name was Tokiko. One day an officer overheard her speaking to me and accused her of speaking Korean. He dragged her out to a field and ordered all of us to come out there. We all obeyed. He said, “This girl spoke Korean. So
she must die. You will be killed if you do too. Now, watch how she dies”. He drew his sword. Horrified, I closed my eyes and turned my face away. When I opened my eyes, I saw her severed head on the ground.

On Sundays we were made especially busy. Soldiers stood in line in front of our cubicles. …

“I was totally exhausted. I could keep neither my sense of humiliation nor my dignity. I felt like a living corpse. When soldiers came to my room and did it to me one after another, it was done to a lifeless body. Again. And again. And again...”.

(Excerpted from Comfort Women Speak. Edited by Sangmie Choi Schellstede, published by Holmes and Meier, pp. 48-51)

Additional Resources:
www.alpha-canada.org/learn/intro.
www.icasinc.org/lectures/soh3.html
www.aplconference.ca/resource.html
www.webcom.com/hrin/parker.html
www.webcom.com/hrin/parker/c95-11.html

Lament of a “Comfort Woman”

I was fifteen, gentle and innocent
But you came and ripped me
From the warmth of my parent’s home
The tenderness of my mother’s arms
To be fed, like two hundred thousand others
To your countless lusty wolves
Which defiled and devoured me
And tossed me, broken and scarred
Into the cold scornful sea

O, my beloved country
Why am I to blame
Why do you turn your face away from my pain
O, my father, O, my brothers
Who will help me bear my shame
O, Hirohito, O, You mighty Meijis
I comforted your soldiers in their struggle
Now who comforts me in my pain

O, Koizumi and all your faceless Yasukuni men
How do you sleep at night
While I shiver and cry in an endless nightmare
Alone in my hovel, broken in body and spirit
Frightened and ashamed

By Eugene Koh, 2006 Peace & Reconciliation Study Tour participant
Handout 2.1: Timeline and Description of Events of the Asia-Pacific War, 1939-1945

In 1939 war broke out in Europe, and in 1940 Japan became an ally of Germany.

On December 7, 1941, the Japanese bombed Pearl Harbour with an attack on the U.S. fleet there. This precipitated the entrance of the United States into the war in both Europe and Asia. The Allies then included Australia, Belgium, Canada, China, France, Great Britain, Poland, the Soviet Union and the United States; the Axis countries were Germany, Italy, and Japan. Later that year, the Canadians fought unsuccessfully to defend Hong Kong, then a British colony, from Japanese occupation.

By mid-1942, the Japanese Army had occupied many parts of China, Hong Kong, Vietnam, Cambodia, Laos, Burma, Indonesia, the Philippines, Malaya, Singapore, and many island groups in the Pacific.

World War II ended in Europe with the defeat of the German army in 1944; in Asia, it continued until mid-1945, and ended with the dropping of two atomic bombs on the Japanese cities of Hiroshima and Nagasaki by the United States.

In World War II, the position of Japan was very similar to that of Germany: both were militaristic regimes whose ambition was to conquer and colonize their continents. They both took the offensive, attacked countries which had not attacked them, and asserted their superiority and fitness to rule others as well as their right to provide their own people with more land and resources. Both were initially very successful in their military campaigns. And both were unusually brutal in their treatment of both prisoners of war and civilians.

1939 World War II starts in Europe.

1940 Japan moves into northern Indo-China (now Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia).

1941 Japan joins the Axis Alliance with Germany and Italy. Tojo Hideki becomes Prime Minister of Japan.

Japan raids Pearl Harbour on December 7. British Malaya and Hong Kong are simultaneously attacked. The Pacific phase of World War II begins, as the Allies declare war on Japan.

Hong Kong falls on December 25. Of the 1,975 Canadian soldiers sent to defend Hong Kong, 290 are killed in action and 1,685 are captured and interned by the Japanese military. 267 die in internment.

In all of the Japanese-occupied territories, the Japanese military exploits millions of Koreans, Chinese and other Asian peoples to work as slave labourers.

To make up for the wartime labour shortage in Japan, tens of thousands of Koreans, Chinese and Allied POWs are taken to Japan to work as slave labourers.

By May 1942 Japan has gained control over wide territories including Hong Kong, the Philippines, Vietnam, Laos, Cambodia, Thailand, Burma (now Myanmar), Malaya (now Singapore and Malaysia), Dutch East Indies (now Indonesia), and many other Pacific islands.

1945  The first atomic bomb is dropped on Hiroshima on August 6.

The Soviet Union declares war on Japan on August 8.

The second atomic bomb is dropped on Nagasaki on August 9.

Japan surrenders on August 15. World War II ends.
Handout 2.2: The Battle for Hong Kong 1941-1998

The Pacific theatre of World War II is often neglected in Canadian history courses. This is unfortunate: much is to be learned, and much should not be forgotten, about what happened in Asia before and during the war.

It was the bombing of Pearl Harbour which brought the United States into the war, making it truly a World War and not one confined to a single continent. It ushered in the nuclear age, with the dropping of the atomic bomb on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, and it resulted in the peculiarly Canadian tragedy that was Hong Kong.

Part One: Overview

In 1941, The British government requested that Canada send troops to Hong Kong to bolster its defences against the Japanese invasion. The Canadian government sent two battalions of 1,975 soldiers. Hindsight and archival evidence suggest that the British request for troops and Canada’s compliance were unfortunate decisions, hastily made and ill-considered. Without any doubt, the consequences were disastrous.

The actual battle for Hong Kong occurred in December 1941. The official surrender of the British colony to the Japanese took place on Christmas Day after 18 days of fighting. Just under 2,000 Canadian soldiers - with extremely inadequate training, experience and equipment - had been defeated by about 50,000 battle-proven Japanese soldiers.

The errors in judgment about the Japanese made by the Allied war leadership were not all based on factual misinformation about Japanese training and ordinance. Some important mistakes were subjective and race-based. "The Allied leadership operated under racist notions about the fighting ability of the Japanese. They believed them to be inferior fighters, unable to see at night, and afraid of the water. . . . [but] The Japanese troops fought with a savage fury and a fearless dedication”. (Brune, 2003, pp. 19-20).

Almost 300 of the Canadian soldiers died in the battle for Hong Kong, and almost as many died afterward in Japanese Prisoner of War camps. In fact, military prisoners of the Japanese were six to seven times more likely to die in the camps than was true of military prisoners in German war camps. The prisoners of the Japanese Imperial Army were forced to work hard, were fed little and poorly, lived in cold and filth, and commonly caught diseases caused by these conditions. Some were tortured, and some were executed.

The survivors faced tremendous emotional and psychological problems. “They had to struggle to get their lives back in order. They had to return to school, get a job, and make a living. They had to relate to family and friends after having been profoundly changed by their Hong Kong experience. They had to cope with the
sense of guilt that they had survived and friends had not. Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) did not exist as a term back then. But it certainly did exist as a devastating reality and condition”. (Brune, 2003, pp.35-36)

The Hong Kong Canadian veterans fought long and hard to get compensation for their suffering and the disabilities that resulted from it. Compensation was not only monetary; it was also symbolic of recognition and acknowledgement of their sacrifice, and carried the promise that they would not be forgotten at home. The struggle for compensation was long: it was more than forty years after the war, in 1998, that the Canadian government granted compensation to the surviving Hong Kong POWs or their widows. The Japanese government never did so, refusing to admit any wrong-doing. For many veterans, receiving compensation is less important than what they feel is their right to an apology from the Japanese government for their treatment.

While our focus is on the fate of the Canadian soldiers who fought to defend Hong Kong, we should not forget that the civilian population of Hong Kong also suffered greatly under the Japanese occupation.

As in mainland China, Korea, Indonesia and elsewhere throughout the Japanese occupied territories, the Japanese raped rampantly and forced thousands of women in Hong Kong - the most common estimate is about 10,000 - to serve the Japanese soldiers as military sex slaves, the so called “comfort women”, and, as elsewhere, many of them died of physical abuse and repeated rape.

Local residents were forced to dig caves to conceal attack boats, and some of them were killed to ensure secrecy. Others were shipped away (to Hainan Island and elsewhere) as slave labourers. Hundreds of thousands were driven back onto the mainland to reduce the island population, and among those who remained many died of starvation. People who continued to live in Hong Kong were impoverished by a forced exchange of currency at artificially low rates; this was another cause of penury and even starvation for some.

Conditions in Hong Kong between 1941 and 1945 were, as in other Japanese-occupied territories, always difficult and often desperate for both prisoners of war and civilians.

**Part Two: Canada in Hong Kong: 1941-1945**

Governments make a multitude of decisions in both wartime and peacetime. Those decisions, some brilliant and innovative, others faulty and ill-considered, are arrived at for a host of different reasons by people of influence and power. Without a doubt, decisions made in the course of a war are far more significant in that matters of life and death are involved. Relative to the average citizen, the individuals making those decisions have access to more information, but they do not always

* This essay is excerpted, by permission of the author, from *Canada in Hong Kong: 1941-1945, The Forgotten Heroes*, written by Nick Brune for the Hong Kong Veterans Commemorative Association.
have more intelligence. Their decisions can be right or wrong depending on the costs, benefits, consequences, and repercussions of the decision. To be assessed fairly, they must be viewed in light of what the decision makers themselves knew then, not what we know now. Hindsight is indeed 20/20.

However, the Canadian government’s decision in the fall of 1941 to agree to Britain’s request for Canadian troops to bolster Hong Kong defences was not only naive, but ill-conceived, and little short of disastrous. Today, this decision produces very polar views. On the one hand, there is the more traditional interpretation of C.P. Stacey and J.L. Granatstein that the decision was the best one, given the military and political difficulties under which Canada operated. At the other extreme, people such as Brian and Terrence McKenna and Carl Vincent argue that it was a decision of negligence and incompetence. This lesson will examine that decision, the way in which it was made, the possible motives behind the decision, and the initial consequences of the decision. Students involving themselves in the process will begin to appreciate and understand the decision-making model.

Within six months, British Prime Minister Winston Churchill’s opinion on this issue completely reversed. At the beginning of 1941, he was adamantly opposed to sending more troops to reinforce the garrison at Hong Kong. He argued that to do so was complete folly, and that if Japan went to war with Britain, there “[would] not [be] the slightest chance of holding Hong Kong or relieving it”. However, the British War Office convinced Churchill to alter his thinking. Further, arguing that British troops were too precious to spare, on September 19 Britain formally requested that Canada send “one or two” battalions to Hong Kong to support the British battalions garrisoned there.

Canadian authorities naively accepted this reversal of British policy in good faith. Nothing in the way of independent investigation was done. No one questioned or challenged the new orthodoxy. Canada simply went along with the British request. To make a bad situation worse, Canada implemented the decision with far too much haste and too little thought. The troops chosen were ill-prepared and minimally trained. Some did not even know how to fire a gun. Their transport and other essential equipment, through bureaucratic incompetence, never arrived.

The tragedy of the Canadian decision to commit troops to Hong Kong in 1941 will be multiplied if succeeding generations fail to learn how it came about. That it was wrong goes without saying, and hardly needs to be debated. However, we must understand how the decision was made, and thus be on guard should something like this happen again. George Santayana’s often-quoted maxim about history applies with devastating force in this situation. “Those who forget their history are fated to repeat the mistakes of the past”.
The Battle

The actual battle for Hong Kong was many things - short, intense, disorganized, and tragic. For a number of reasons, the 1,975 Canadian troops were thrown into an impossible situation. Virtually every aspect of military planning and strategy worked against them. They were badly out-numbered, ill-equipped, and poorly trained. If that was not bad enough, their leaders were motivated by racist assumptions about the inferiority of the enemy being faced. And finally, against this backdrop, the Canadian troops were ordered to hold an indefensible position. The result was as tragic as it was inevitable – complete defeat.

British intelligence estimated the Japanese strength at about five thousand troops with little artillery support. In reality, the number was ten times that many. In addition, they were battle-hardened troops with considerable fighting experience. And they were fully equipped. Poor planning had resulted in none of the 212 Canadian military vehicles that had been included ever arriving in Hong Kong. The two battalions selected, the Royal Rifles and the Winnipeg Grenadiers, had been on garrison duty in Newfoundland and Jamaica, respectively. They had absolutely no combat training or experience, and, in fact, had been labelled “unfit for combat” by the high command. The Canadian authorities, deciding that time was of the essence, hastily assembled these troops that had very minimal experience. Many had less than five weeks training, and several could not even fire a gun. The Allied leadership operated under racist notions about the fighting ability of the Japanese. They believed them to be inferior fighters, unable to see at night, and afraid of the water. As events would sadly prove, nothing could have been farther from the truth. The Japanese troops fought with a savage fury and a fearless dedication. Once the Allied position on the peninsula around Kowloon fell in a matter of days, the garrison was forced to try to hold the island of Hong Kong. That would prove to be an impossible task.

Everybody makes mistakes, including governments. However, the consequences when governments make them, particularly in wartime, are far more serious. In this lesson, students will understand and appreciate the results of the Canadian decision to send troops to Hong Kong. Such decisions made in boardrooms by the high command play out with devastating human consequences on the hard ground of reality. Pierre Berton, writing in a recently published book, *Marching as to War*, called the entire enterprise “a travesty…[and] a blatantly foolish enterprise”. Carl Vincent echoes his sentiments: “There was no reason why Canadian troops should have been dispatched to the doomed outpost of Hong Kong – but through a combination of British cynicism and Canadian thoughtlessness, they were sent anyway”. The greater tragedy may well be if succeeding generations fail to know and applaud the courage of those Canadian troops sent into an impossible situation.
Surviving the Prisoner of War Camps

The great Russian novelist, Leo Tolstoy, once sagely noted that the best way to judge the degree of civilization of any society was to visit its prisons. For the 1,685 Canadian survivors of the Battle of Hong Kong, this telling indictment speaks not only of the barbarity of the camps but also of the prisoners’ incredible will to survive. Imprisoned by their Japanese captors in prisoner-of-war camps at North Point on Hong Kong Island and at Sham Shui Po in Kowloon, the Canadians were forced to endure conditions that could rightly be described as horrific and horrendous. Exhausted from battle, many wounded, they were hoping for the best. What they faced was unknown, but the Geneva Conventions that set out humane rules for the treatment of prisoners gave them some cause for hope. Three and a half years of brutal captivity proved just how illusory those hopes were, and the accuracy of Tolstoy’s reflection.

The Japanese violated the Geneva Conventions with impunity. They set their captors to work – in mines, on the docks, and constructing airport – all in direct violation of the rules regarding the treatment of prisoners of war. Nevertheless, forcing P.O.W.s to work for the Empire of the Rising Sun may well have been the most minor of Japan’s infractions. Not only did the Japanese work their prisoners cruelly, the conditions in which they were kept were also inhumane. Food rations were meagre – often only a small bowl of rice. The huts in which they had to live were rat infested, dark, with no heat. The prisoners were forced to sleep on wooden planks or a cement floor. Given their already weakened conditions, the hard work, and the lack of adequate medical care, diseases were rampant throughout the camps. Dysentery, thyroid problems, diphtheria, wet beri beri, and dry beri beri (hot feet) infected all but a small handful. Drugs that might have alleviated some of the suffering and saved lives were stolen by camp commanders and sold on the black market. Some prisoners were tortured and others executed.

The camps were, in short, a living hell. The casualty rate was high. While 290 soldiers had died in battle or had been executed by the Japanese, almost the same number died in the POW camps. In total, 554 soldiers of the 1,975 soldiers who originally sailed to Hong Kong were either buried or cremated in the Far East. The soldiers who had fought bravely and survived the fighting in some ways came to envy their fallen comrades. They had come through the battle, but now they faced another challenge in this “hell on earth,” although a very different one. For example, those who were fortunate enough to survive typically lost almost half of their body weight.

This lesson seeks to have students understand and empathize with what these men endured. It is a testament to the indomitable human will to survive. We do them a great disservice if we fail either to remember or to commemorate their struggle.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>From</th>
<th>To</th>
<th>Disease</th>
<th>Remarks and Result</th>
<th>Treatment</th>
<th>Medical Officer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>24.12.41</td>
<td></td>
<td>Sword wound</td>
<td></td>
<td>NIL</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.42</td>
<td></td>
<td>Fever</td>
<td></td>
<td>Aspirin</td>
<td>Capt. Reid R.C.A.M.C.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.42</td>
<td></td>
<td>Beri beri</td>
<td>Oedema feet &amp; ankles disturbed sensation</td>
<td>B1 Injts. -do-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.2.43</td>
<td>6.3.43</td>
<td>Malaria B.T.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Quinine Course</td>
<td>Major Crawford R.C.A.M.C.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.7.43</td>
<td></td>
<td>B avitaminosis</td>
<td>Numbness both feet &amp; legs halfway to knee</td>
<td>B1 Injts. -do-</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31.8.43</td>
<td></td>
<td>I.A.T.L. fot.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Heat</td>
<td>-do-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.2.44</td>
<td></td>
<td>B avitaminosis. Sore tongue</td>
<td>Tharyngitis: Local.</td>
<td>Maj. Crawford</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.3.44</td>
<td>24.3.44</td>
<td>Peptic ulcer.</td>
<td>Complicated by diarrhoea, Scabies:</td>
<td>Diet. Alkalis. Scrubs.</td>
<td>-do-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.9.44</td>
<td></td>
<td>B avitaminosis</td>
<td>No complaints Wt. 168 Vision R.20/20 L 20/20</td>
<td>Vit. Capsules</td>
<td>-do-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21.9.44</td>
<td>29.9.44</td>
<td>Sprain L. intercostal muscle.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Chest binder</td>
<td>-do-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.1.45</td>
<td>18.1.45</td>
<td>Injury</td>
<td>Cut L eyebrow</td>
<td>1 stitch</td>
<td>-do-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.6.45</td>
<td>26.6.45</td>
<td>Malaria B.T.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Quinine gr. 30d. 8d.</td>
<td>Capt. Strahan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.7.45</td>
<td></td>
<td>Peptic Ulcer</td>
<td>Epigastric pain</td>
<td>gr. Rice diet &amp; eggs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Compensation Issues

The great American writer, Thomas Wolfe, entitled one of his novels *You Can’t Go Home Again*. He intended it in another sense but it is no less appropriate for soldiers returning home from war. “Coming home” from any war is a difficult and often traumatic experience. For Canadian soldiers, returning from Hong Kong was traumatic, and more so. These survivors most certainly felt a myriad of emotions – relief, guilt, confusion, euphoria, frustration, and bitterness. And they were the lucky ones. Close to six hundred soldiers of the original contingent, almost one-third, never returned.

Those Canadian soldiers who did come home were scarred, in many cases permanently. There were the evident physical wounds with which they returned. Many were emaciated, having lost close to half of their normal body weight. That was not altogether surprising, given the fact that they were conscripted labour in the POW camps and fed meagre rations. Most returned with a number of different ailments and diseases. Decades of medical treatment in Canada would alleviate some, though scarcely all of them. The overwhelming majority of returning Hong Kong veterans would endure a variety of lifelong medical problems, from hearing and sight loss to intestinal and digestive difficulties. As serious as their physical challenges were, they paled in comparison to their emotional and psychological burdens. They had to be demobilized and reintegrated as civilians. They had to struggle to get their lives back in order. They had to return to school, get a job, and make a living. They had to relate to family and friends after having been profoundly changed by their Hong Kong experience. They had to cope with the sense of guilt that they had survived and friends had not. Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) did not exist as a term back then, but it certainly did exist as a devastating reality and condition.

*Canadian POWs in Japanese occupied Hong Kong*
And finally, they had to deal with the issue of compensation. Certainly there was the financial aspect, that they should be compensated for what they had endured and suffered, as well as for the violation of their rights. But that was merely the tip of the iceberg. They wanted to be recognized, to be acknowledged, and not be forgotten. Compensation was a validation of all those things. In addition, it would be evidence that their own government recognized their suffering, as well as proof that the Japanese government was admitting a wrong and attempting to redress it. Unfortunately, neither government has acted with much dispatch or integrity. It was only in December, 1998, after considerable pressure and lobbying, that the Canadian government granted compensation of $24,000 to each surviving Hong Kong POW, or POW’s widow, after the Japan’s refusal to do so.

Additional References:
www.vac-acc.gc.ca/remembers
www.valourandhorror.com/HK/HKsyn.php
Handout 2.3: Japanese-Canadian Internment, 1942 and After

The Internment of Japanese-Canadians

While these lessons are about the war in Asia, there was an important piece of North American history being made at home, as a result of the Asian war.

In North America, because of the war in Europe, some restrictions supposedly related to national security were imposed on residents who were of German or Italian descents. But only in the case of the Japanese did these restrictions go beyond curfew hours, and only in the case of the Japanese did they extend to those born in North America. In both Canada and the United States, all persons of Japanese origin, wherever born, were, in 1942, removed from their homes and sent to internment camps, where they were made to stay not only until the War ended, but beyond.

In Canada, the majority of the people interned were Canadian citizens. Nonetheless, they were taken from their homes, mostly in British Columbia, to camps as far east as Ontario. Often families were split up. The living conditions in the camps were primitive and difficult. And the people were not free to go where they chose until 1949. It is very clear that the internment of Japanese Canadians was race-based and unjust.

Additional References:
   Students begin on the second page, at the year 1941.
Handout 2.4: Slave Labour in Japan and the Occupied Territories

Over 61,000 Allied POWs and 250,000 Asian civilians (mainly Chinese, Malay, Tamil and Burmese) were used as slave labourers to build the 415 kilometre-long Burma-Thailand Railway, the infamous “Death Railway”. It is estimated that half of the Asian labourers, and one-fifth of the Allied POWs, perished on the railroad.

Japanese private corporations also relied on slave labourers during the war. An example is Kajima Corporation, a well-known Japanese company. In 1944, a group of 986 Chinese were taken to Japan and forced to work in Kajima’s mining and construction sites at Hanaoka in northeast Honshu. More than 400 of them died from torture, starvation, and the horrifying conditions of Kajima’s slave camp.

Mr. Liu Qian (from Beijing Township), a survivor of the forced labour camps in Japan, shows where a supervisor’s axe broke his leg.
Handout 2.5: The San Francisco Peace Treaty, 1951

San Francisco Peace Treaty of 1951

Article 14(a) of the treaty
“It is recognized that Japan should pay reparations to the Allied Powers for the damage and suffering caused by it during the war. Nevertheless, it is also recognized that the resources of Japan are not presently sufficient if it is to maintain a viable economy to make complete reparation for all such damage and suffering and at the same time meet its other obligations”.

Article 14(b) of the treaty
“Except as otherwise provided in the present treaty, the Allied Powers waive all reparation claims of the Allied Powers, other claims of the Allied Powers and their nationals arising out of any actions taken by Japan and its nationals in the course of the prosecution of the war, and claims of the Allied Powers for direct military costs of occupation”.

Convention on the Non-Applicability of Statutory Limitations to War Crimes and Crimes against Humanity

(Adopted and opened for signature, ratification and accession by General Assembly of the UN resolution 2391 (XXIII) of 26 November 1968, entry into force 11 November 1970).

Preamble and article of the convention state:
“Noting that the application to war crimes and crimes against humanity of the rules of municipal law relating to the period of limitation for ordinary crime is a matter of serious concern to world public opinion, since it prevents the prosecution and punishment of persons responsible for those crimes, and

Recognizing that it is necessary and timely to affirm in international law through this convention the principle that there is no period of limitation for war crimes and crimes against humanity and to secure its universal application”., and

Therefore, no statutory limitation shall apply to the following crimes, irrespective of the date of their commission:

(a) War crimes as they are defined in the Charter of the International Military Tribunal, Nuremberg, of 8 August 1945 ... for the protection of war victims;

(b) Crimes against humanity whether committed in time of war or in time of peace as they are defined in the Charter of the International Military Tribunal, Nuremberg, of 8 August 1945... even if such acts do not constitute a violation of the domestic law of the country in which they were committed”.

Additional References:
www.aplconference.ca/resource/html
Resource Guide for Grades 11-12

Connections to Ontario Grade 11-12 Curriculum •
Unit Overview for Grades 11-12 •
Lessons for Grades 11-12 •
Handouts for Grades 11-12 •

Memorial Peace Bell in Nanking (Nanking)
Connections to Ontario Grade 11-12 Curriculum

The events and atrocities of World War II in Asia connect to our Grade 11-12 Ontario curriculum in a number of ways. These events have direct links to the overall and specific expectations in the following eight Grade 11-12 courses. The related Overall Expectations and Specific Expectations for each course are listed here to assist teachers in planning their program and specific lessons.

Nanking (Nanjing)
Zhonghau Gate of present day.

Japanese troops attacking the Zhonghau Gate of Nanking, a defenseless city on December 13, 1937.
### World History Since 1900: Global and Regional Perspectives (CHT3O)

This course focuses on the major events and issues in world history from 1900 to the present. Students will investigate the causes and effects of global and regional conflicts and the responses of individuals and governments to social, economic, and political changes. Students will use critical-thinking and communication skills to formulate and test points of view, draw conclusions, and present their findings about the challenges that people have faced and continue to face in various parts of the world.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OVERALL EXPECTATIONS:</th>
<th>SPECIFIC EXPECTATIONS:</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Strand: Communities: Local, National, and Global</strong></td>
<td><strong>Imperialism and Decolonization</strong></td>
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</table>
| • demonstrate an understanding of the nature of empires and the emergence of nationalist aspirations throughout the world since 1900 | - demonstrate an understanding of the concept of imperialism  
- analyse the impact that selected imperial powers of the past and present have had on their colonies and/or spheres of influence |
| • describe major global and regional conflicts and their consequences, as well as instances of international cooperation, since 1900 | **Conflict and Cooperation** |
| | - explain the causes, course, and results of World War I and World War II  
- assess the local, regional, and/or global impact of selected local and regional conflicts since 1900  
- evaluate the effectiveness of selected processes used to promote peace |
| **The International Community** | **The International Community** |
| | - describe shifts in the international balance of power from 1900 to the present  
- assess Canada’s changing role in international affairs |

| **Strand: Citizenship and Heritage** | **Nationalism and Internationalism** |
| | **Nationalism and Internationalism** |
| • analyse the relationship between the individual and those in authority in various societies since 1900 | - describe factors that have interfered with individual and group rights since the beginning of the twentieth century (policies of racial and ethnic exclusion and cleansing such as the Nanking Massacre and Unit 731)  
- explain how genocides that have taken place since 1900 have affected not only the victims and victimizers but also the world at large |
**Canadian and International Law, (CLN 4U) Grade 12, University Preparation**

This course examines elements of Canadian and international law in social, political, and global contexts. Students will study the historical and philosophical sources of law and the principles and practices of international law, and will learn to relate them to issues in Canadian society and the wider world. Students will use critical-thinking and communication skills to analyse legal issues, conduct independent research, and present the results of their inquiries in a variety of ways.

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<th>OVERALL EXPECTATIONS:</th>
<th>SPECIFIC EXPECTATIONS:</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strand: Heritage</strong></td>
<td><strong>Theories and Concepts</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| • evaluate different concepts, principles, philosophies, and theories of law  
  • describe the relationship between law and societal values | - analyse contemporary legal situations that raise the question of conflict between what may be legally correct but is generally viewed as unjust |
| **Law and Society**    | **Principles of International Law** |
| - analyse how society uses law to express its values | - explain the major concepts (e.g., extradition, customary law, diplomatic immunity) and principles (e.g., general principles, treaties and customs) of international law  
  - explain why the sovereignty of nation states is an overriding principle of international law  
  - identify global issues that may be governed by international law (e.g., human rights, jurisdictional disputes, refugees and asylum, collective security, trade agreements)  
  - explain the role and jurisdiction of the agencies responsible for defining, regulating, and enforcing international laws (e.g., United Nations, World Health Organization, war crimes tribunals, International Monetary Fund, Interpol) |
| **International Treaties and Agreements** | **Global Conflicts and Resolution** |
| - explain the purpose of international jurisdictional and boundary treaties (e.g., United Nations Convention on the Law of the Sea)  
  - evaluate the effectiveness of international treaties for the protection of human rights (e.g., Universal Declaration of Human Rights, Convention on the Rights of the Child)  
  - explain the role of the International Court of Justice in the Hague in resolving issues between nations | - explain how and why the use of force to resolve conflicts is limited in international law  
  - identify laws, past and present, in various countries (e.g., Nuremberg Laws, laws on apartheid, forced labour, sexual slavery) that conflict with the principles of international law and explain how they violate those principles  
  - describe the difficulties and evaluate the effectiveness of international intervention in conflicts between nations |
**Canadian and World Issues: A Geographic Analysis (CGW4U) - Grade 12, University Preparation**

This course examines the global challenges of creating a sustainable and equitable future, focusing on current issues that illustrate these challenges. Students will investigate a range of topics, including cultural, economic, and geopolitical relationships, regional disparities in the ability to meet basic human needs, and protection of the natural environment. Students will use geotechnologies and skills of geographic inquiry and analysis to develop and communicate balanced opinions about the complex issues facing Canada and a world that is interdependent and constantly changing.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OVERALL EXPECTATIONS:</th>
<th>SPECIFIC EXPECTATIONS:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strand: Global Connections</strong></td>
<td>Building Knowledge and Understanding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- analyze instances of international cooperation and conflict and explain the factors that contributed to each</td>
<td>- describe the contributions of individuals who have been influential in addressing global issues and evaluate the impact of their work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- analyze the evolving global geopolitical role of a selected region or country (e.g. Asia-Pacific nations) and evaluate how its actions contribute to international cooperation or conflict</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**American History (CHA3U) - Grade 11, University Preparation**

This course examines the development of American social, political, and economic structures from colonial times to the present. Students will analyse the chronology of events and evaluate the roles played by specific individuals and groups throughout American history. Students will conduct research and analysis, and communicate, in a variety of ways, their knowledge and understanding of the country that is Canada’s closest neighbour and most important cultural influence and economic partner.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OVERALL EXPECTATIONS:</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strand: Communities: Local, National, and Global</strong></td>
<td>The Development of a World Power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- analyse the nature and scope of the interactions between the United States and countries and communities beyond its borders</td>
<td>- demonstrate an understanding of the concepts of isolationism and Manifest Destiny, and the effect they had on American foreign policy (e.g., neutrality and unwillingness to join the League of Nations, Franklin Roosevelt’s Good Neighbour Policy, Zones of Influence and the U.S. reaction to the South East Asia Co Prosperity Influence Sector)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- assess the factors (e.g., geographic, ideological, demographic, economic) that have contributed to the United States’s status as a world power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strand: Global Connections</strong></td>
<td>The Role of Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- demonstrate an understanding of the historical process of change in the context of the development of American history</td>
<td>- describe the events that marked profound changes in American history Pearl Harbour; the Doolittle raids, Unit 731, the development of the atomic bomb</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This course investigates the major trends in Western civilization and world history from the sixteenth century to the present. Students will learn about the interaction between the emerging West and other regions of the world and about the development of modern social, political, and economic systems. They will use critical-thinking and communication skills to investigate the historical roots of contemporary issues and present their conclusions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>OVERALL EXPECTATIONS:</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strand: Communities: Local, National, and Global</strong></td>
<td><strong>The Nature of Interactions Among Communities</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• evaluate the factors that have led to conflict and war or to cooperation and peace between and within various communities from the sixteenth century to the present</td>
<td>- describe factors that have prompted and facilitated increasing interaction between peoples since the sixteenth century</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- analyse the processes and implications of imperialism, decolonization, and nation building in various parts of the world</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Conflict and Cooperation</strong></td>
<td>- analyse key factors that have led to conflict and war</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- evaluate the course and consequences of selected conflicts and wars since the sixteenth century</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- describe the key factors that have motivated people to seek peace</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Strand: Change and Continuity</strong></th>
<th><strong>Chronology and Cause and Effect</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• demonstrate an understanding of the importance and use of chronology and cause and effect in historical analyses of developments in the West and throughout the world since the sixteenth century</td>
<td>- explain how and why an understanding of cause-and-effect relationships is an essential tool for historical analysis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Strand: Citizenship and Heritage</strong></th>
<th><strong>Ideas and Cultures of the Non-Western World</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• analyse how non-Western ideas and culture have influenced the course of world history since the sixteenth century</td>
<td>- describe key characteristics of and significant ideas and trends emerging from various non-Western cultures and evaluate their influence on societies around the world</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- explain the ways in which non-Western cultures have attempted to resist the spread of Western influences</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Citizenship and Human Rights</strong></td>
<td>- assess the factors that have hindered the advancement of human rights</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Strand: Social, Economic, and Political Structures</strong></th>
<th><strong>Women's Experience</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• analyse changing aspects of women's economic, social, and political lives in Western and non-Western societies since the sixteenth century</td>
<td>- describe various obstacles to equality that women have faced in Western and non-Western societies since the sixteenth century</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### OVERALL EXPECTATIONS:

- evaluate factors that have led to conflict and war or to cooperation and peace between various communities since the sixteenth century

### SPECIFIC EXPECTATIONS:

#### Conflict and Cooperation

- explain the reasons for the success or failure of selected approaches to maintaining international order
- describe the key factors that have led to conflict and war
- describe the course and consequences of selected conflicts and wars since the sixteenth century

#### Citizenship and Human Rights

- explain how factors have impeded the advancement of human rights
- describe various forms of human servitude and slavery

#### Women’s Experience

- identify various obstacles to equality that women have faced in Western and non-Western societies since the sixteenth century
This course explores the challenges associated with the formation of a Canadian national identity. Students will examine the social, political, and economic forces that have shaped Canada from the pre-contact period to the present and will investigate the historical roots of contemporary issues from a variety of perspectives. Students will use critical-thinking and communication skills to consider events and ideas in historical context, debate issues of culture and identity, and present their own views.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strand: Communities: Local, National, and Global</strong></td>
<td><strong>Canada’s International Role</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- evaluate Canada’s changing role on the international stage</td>
<td>- explain how the role Canada has played in international events and organizations has changed the way the country has been perceived by Canadians and/or the international community (e.g., World War I, World War II, United Nations, International Court of Justice at The Hague)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- evaluate the extent to which Canada’s reputation as a humanitarian nation is merited (e.g., Canada as a destination for refugees in the twentieth century, peacekeeping efforts)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Strand: Citizenship and Heritage</strong></td>
<td><strong>Human Rights in a Just Society</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- evaluate the claim that Canada is a just society, by examining issues related to human rights</td>
<td>- evaluate efforts on the part of individuals, groups, and government to promote human rights in Canada (e.g., reparations for Japanese-Canadian internees)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### OVERALL EXPECTATIONS:

- explain the rights and responsibilities of individual citizens, groups, and states in the international community
- describe the main ways in which sovereign states and non-state participants cooperate and deal with international conflicts
- evaluate the role of Canada and Canadians in the international community
- evaluate the role and operation of the international human rights protection system

### SPECIFIC EXPECTATIONS:

#### Rights and Responsibilities of International Participation
- evaluate the extent to which the rights and responsibilities of states in the international community are parallel to the rights and responsibilities of citizens in democratic national communities (e.g., based on analysis of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Geneva Conventions)
- describe the actions of individuals, including Canadians, who have influenced global affairs

#### International Conflict and Cooperation
- analyse the participation of government and non-government organizations in the global community (e.g., in the areas of humanitarian assistance, collective security, diplomacy)
- identify ways of preventing war and conflict between states (e.g., military preparation, international law, peace movements)

#### Canada’s International Role
- explain the types of commitments made by Canada to other nations or to international or extranational organizations (e.g., participation in the United Nations and in peacekeeping missions)
- evaluate the role of pressure groups in formulating and implementing Canada’s foreign policy

#### International Human Rights
- identify the most important international human rights documents (e.g., Universal Declaration of Human Rights, 1948; International Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, 1976) and assess their significance
- explain the role of states and key agencies (e.g., U.N. Commission on Human Rights, Commission on the Status of Women) in international controversies about human rights
- evaluate the effectiveness of the actions of international organizations or states in cases of human rights violations (e.g., decisions of the International Criminal Court, the International Court of Justice, Amnesty International, Human Rights cases involving "comfort women", forced labourers, and victims of biological and chemical warfare in Japan)
## OVERALL EXPECTATIONS:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>State Power</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- analyse how natural resources and human resources help to determine the power and influence of a country (e.g., geography, demography, economic resources and markets, military strength and diplomatic traditions)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- evaluate the accuracy and usefulness of common classifications of states (e.g. developed or developing; Western and/or non-aligned; major, medium, or small powers) used in describing relationships among states</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- analyse the rise and development of non-governmental organizations (NGO) and corporations as world powers (e.g., International Committee of the Red Cross, multinational corporations such as Shell, Mitsubishi)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Influences on International Relations</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- identify major influences on the development of international relations from antiquity to 1945 (e.g., the development of empires and colonization, the impact of religions)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Strand: Values, Beliefs, and Ideologies

| **The International Influence of Ideologies** |
| - explain the role of religious beliefs in national and international politics (e.g., religious fundamentalism, secularism, relationship between religions and states) |
| - describe the main characteristics of the world's major political ideologies (e.g., fascism, conservatism, liberalism, socialism, communism) |
| - explain the key arguments for and against the processes of "globalization" in economics, politics, and culture (e.g., opportunities for exchanges and international cooperation; likelihood of hegemony or domination of weaker by stronger nations) |
| - analyse how predominant social and cultural beliefs and ideologies can affect minority groups both positively and negatively (e.g., through racial profiling, restriction of rights, genocide, or ethnic cleansing) |

## Strand: Power, Influence, and the Resolution of Differences

| **Nationalist and Internationalist Orientations** |
| - identify the key components of nationalist ideology (e.g., the definition of nation, types of nationalism, the role of theorists and groups, national symbols and images) |
| - determine the origins and effects of nationalistic and ethnocentric conflicts and rivalries |
| - describe the peaceful legal means used to adjudicate conflicts between governments (e.g., the International Court of Justice, International Military Tribunal for the Far East) and explain their relationship to values, beliefs, and ideologies |

- analyse the factors that determine the power and influence of a country
- analyse how international organizations, the media, and technology influence the actions of sovereign states
- explain the role and function of ideologies in national and international politics
- analyse how social and cultural beliefs and political ideologies influence national and international politics
# Unit Overview for Grades 11-12

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson</th>
<th>Learning Focus</th>
<th>Handouts</th>
<th>Suggested Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lesson One:</strong> War Crimes and Crimes Against Humanity</td>
<td>Students use excerpts from various agreements, including the Geneva conventions, the Hague conventions, United Nations conventions, and the Charter of International Military Tribunal, to understand legal definitions and responsibilities related to war crimes and crimes against humanity.</td>
<td><em>Handout 1.1 (War Crimes and International Law)</em></td>
<td>60 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lesson Two:</strong> Nanking Massacre and Other Atrocities</td>
<td>Students investigate war crimes and crimes against humanity committed by the Japanese Imperial Army to identify which international agreements were breached. Students express personal views about the crimes of war.</td>
<td><em>Handout 2.1 (Timeline of the Asia-Pacific War 1894 - 1951)</em>  &lt;br&gt;<em>Handout 2.2 (Rape of Nanking and Other Atrocities)</em></td>
<td>60-90 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lesson Three:</strong> Canadian Hong Kong Veterans</td>
<td>Students investigate the treatment of Canadian Hong Kong prisoners of war and the war crimes committed by the Japanese Imperial Army; identify which international agreements were breached; differentiate between civilian and military victims and make explicit the connection to Canada.</td>
<td><em>Handout 3.1 (Canadian Prisoners of War)</em>  &lt;br&gt;<em>Handout 3.2 (Response Guide for Canadian Prisoners of War)</em></td>
<td>60-90 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lesson Four:</strong> International Law, Reconciliation, and Redress</td>
<td>With a mock justice tribunal, students weigh evidence provided to determine whether Japan has settled its obligations with regard to war crimes and crimes against humanity committed by its Imperial forces.</td>
<td><em>Handout 4.1 (Organizing a Mock Justice Tribunal)</em>  &lt;br&gt;<em>Handout 4.2 (What Victims and Survivors Want)</em>  &lt;br&gt;<em>Handout 4.3 (International Agreements Related to Compensation Claims)</em>  &lt;br&gt;<em>Handout 4.4 (Japan's Responses)</em></td>
<td>60-120 minutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Lesson Five:</strong> Making a Difference</td>
<td>Students respond to a topic that will cause them to reflect upon individual and collective responsibility for preventing war crimes and crimes against humanity.</td>
<td><em>Handout 5.1 (Unit Self-Assessment)</em></td>
<td>60 minutes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Three Chinese senior, who had suffered the atrocities inflicted upon them by the Japanese army during WWII, received a plaque from ALPHA in recognition of their courage as witnesses to the Japanese war crimes against humanity.
Lesson One: War Crimes and Crimes Against Humanity

Overview

Students use excerpts from various agreements, including the Geneva conventions, the Hague conventions, United Nations conventions, and the Charter of International Military Tribunal, to understand legal definitions and responsibilities related to war crimes and crimes against humanity.

Teaching/Learning Strategies:

1. Students participate in a Think/Pair/Share activity to develop answers to a set of critical questions about the rules of war.
   - Ask students to individually answer each of the following questions on a sheet of paper:
     - Are there rules for war?
     - If there are rules for war, who makes them?
     - Who ensures that the rules are followed?
     - What happens if the rules are not followed?
   - Then have each student share his or her answers with another student. When the pairs of students have decided on complete answers for the questions, have the pairs record their answers on chart paper. When completed, display their charts for use later in the lesson.

2. Students become familiar with wars around the world during the 20th century.
   - Have students make a list of wars that took place during the 20th century. They might include: World War I, World War II, Anglo Boer War, Arab Israeli conflict, Algerian Civil War, Chechnya conflict, Korean War, Vietnam War, as well as more recent armed conflicts such as the wars in the Balkans, East Timor, the Philippines, Rwanda and Burundi, Ethiopia, and Iraq.
   - The teacher may want to extend the discussion by presenting articles about some of these conflicts from history textbooks, library references, the Internet, and current magazines and newspapers.

3. Students become familiar with international laws related to war crimes and crimes against humanity.
   - Provide students with copies of Handout 1.1 (War Crimes and International Law) and invite them to compare the official rules with their answers to the questions asked in the first activity.
   - Have students revise their answers on the charts.
Lesson Two: Nanking Massacre and Other Atrocities

Overview:

Students investigate war crimes and crimes against humanity committed by the Japanese Imperial Army to identify which international agreements were breached. Students express personal views about crimes committed during times of war.

Teaching/Learning Strategies

1. Students read about war crimes and crimes against humanity committed by the Japanese Imperial Army to identify which international agreements were breached.
   - Provide students with Handout 2.1: Timeline of the Asia-Pacific War as a reference in this and the other lessons in this resource guide.
   - Provide students with Handout 2.2 The Rape of Nanking and Other Atrocities. Have students read the articles and make a list of the crimes committed by the Japanese Imperial Army (e.g., biological warfare, mistreatment of POWs, sexual enslavement, forced labour, murder).
   - Then ask students to identify for each case which international agreements were breached.

2. Students express personal views about crimes committed during times of war.
   - Organize students into discussion groups.
   - Work with students to decide on the criteria they should demonstrate in their discussions. For example:
     - communicates effectively and respects opinions of others
     - clearly identifies and defines problems and issues of atrocities
     - refers to material presented to support personal views
     - willingness to reassess a position as necessary if presented with new information

We strongly recommend that the teacher provides students the following remark before having them read the articles in Handout 2.2 (Rape of Nanking and Other Atrocities)

"The articles you will be reading contain some graphic details about rape, murder and other acts of brutality. If you feel uncomfortable reading this material, please feel free to talk to me or even leave the room if necessary".
• Present the groups with questions such as the following to encourage them to express their personal views about atrocities committed during times of war.

- What concerned you the most about the atrocities described in the articles? Explain your reasons.
- How did those who set up the International Safety Zone try to help the people of Nanking? What possible risks did the members of the Safety Zone face? How do you think you would react in this situation?
- Think about all of the atrocities described. What would allow such atrocities to happen?
- What lessons can be learned from the study of these historical events?
Lesson Three: Canadian Hong Kong Veterans

Overview:

Students investigate the treatment of Canadian Hong Kong prisoners of war and the war crimes committed by the Japanese Imperial Army. Students identify which international agreements were breached. They differentiate between civilian and military victims and make explicit the connection to Canada.

Teaching/Learning Strategies

1. Students make explicit the connection to Canada as they investigate the treatment of Canadian prisoners of war in Hong Kong and the crimes against humanity committed by the Japanese Imperial Army.
   - Provide students with copies of Handout 3.1 (Canadian Prisoners of War). Students can use the questions from Handout 3.2 (Response Guide for Canadian Prisoners of War) to make notes as they read the articles or view the excerpts the teacher selected from the video.

2. Students differentiate between civilian and military victims as they identify which international agreements were breached.
   - Students refer to Handout 1.1 (War Crimes and International Law) to help them identify which international agreements were breached.
   - Point out the differences in the laws regarding civilian and military prisoners.

Special Note: The video, *Savage Christmas: Hong Kong 1941*, is available in many libraries. It can be used with the activities as an alternative to the print materials. Note: We strongly recommend that teachers preview this video before presentation.
Lesson Four: International Law, Reconciliation, and Redress

Overview

With a mock justice tribunal, students weigh evidence provided to determine whether Japan has settled its obligations with regard to war crimes and crimes against humanity committed by Japanese Imperial forces.

Teaching/Learning Strategies:

1. Students use the various handouts in this guide as well as from their own research to prepare a mock justice tribunal hearing.
   - Provide students with Handouts 4.1-4.4 (Organizing a Mock Justice Tribunal) and review the main tasks and the hearing process.
   - Divide the class into three groups, each with one of the following roles: tribunal members (judges); advocates for victims (prosecution); representatives for the Japanese government (defence). Review with students the other handouts for this and the other lessons and how each can be used by the different groups.
   - Have each group identify research questions and additional sources of information.
   - Remind students that the success of the hearing depends on an imaginative and thorough representation by all three role-play groups. Encourage them to use the initial group discussion to identify research tasks to be carried out by each group member.
   - During the hearing, have students keep a point-form record of the arguments and counter-arguments to use as a resource for writing their responses.
   - Explain the meaning of the terms to redress, to reconcile, and to compensate.

Redress: to acknowledge a wrong that was committed the United Nations includes in its definition of redress violations of human rights (including war

Before starting this lesson, teachers may find it helpful to review the “Guidelines for Teaching About Controversial Issues” at the beginning of this guide. The issue of Japanese redress for its wartime violations of human rights is a contentious one and can be difficult to manage in a classroom discussion. Attempts to reach a judgment on questions like these can easily lead to a “chain” of grievances (“what about the Canadian internment of Japanese Canadians?; what about human rights in Tibet?”; etc.). Students may also feel they have to “take sides” based on their own ethnic identity. Teachers might want to stress that this activity is about concepts of justice, not about taking sides.
crimes and crimes against humanity). Redress is an act of amending injustice and may include apology, monetary compensation, as well as measures to prevent the recurrence of such injustices.

**Reconcile**: to harmonize; make compatible by overcoming a hatred or mistrust. To reconcile is to rebuild a sincere relationship without prejudice.

**Compensate**: to provide a payment of money to make up for a wrong that was committed. It may include payment to individual victims or their surviving family members. Compensation can also be funds established for victimized communities.

- Make students aware of the differences between legal and moral issues.

- Before students present and defend their views, remind them of the following guidelines:
  - the hearing process is meant to help them understand how international tribunal hearings are used to deal with conflicting positions, and to gain confidence in considering the political, moral and legal issues involved in reaching a judgment;
  - arguments are convincing to the degree that they are logical and supported by relevant facts;
  - the prosecution and defence address their arguments only to the tribunal and do not rebut each other directly;
  - whatever their role, their responsibility in the tribunal process is to listen carefully to the arguments presented and to respect the final verdict of the tribunal;
  - arguments include implications for individuals and society.

- To evaluate student's work, consider awarding marks to students who deliver points for the prosecution or defence and additional marks for the quality of their points. Each tribunal member could be given marks for keeping a point-form record of the arguments and counter-arguments.

2. Students write a reflective response discussing what they think are the most viable solutions that will be fair to the victims and survivors of Japan's wartime crimes and to the Japanese people.

- Have students consider the evidence from the tribunal hearing and from other lessons in this resource to develop their responses.

- Work with students to develop criteria for assessment of their responses. For example, marks may be awarded to a response that
  - clearly states opinion regarding viable solutions
  - uses specific details and examples from the tribunal hearing, handouts, and other sources to support opinion
  - groups related ideas together
  - comes to a logical conclusion regarding the most viable solutions that will be fair to the victims and survivors of Japan's wartime crimes and to the Japanese people
Lesson Five: Making A Difference

Overview

Students respond to a topic that will cause them to reflect upon individual and collective responsibility for preventing the occurrence of war crimes and crimes against humanity.

Teaching/Learning Strategies:

1. Students express their personal views on individual and collective responsibility for preventing war crimes and crimes against humanity from occurring.
   - Prompt a class discussion using questions such as the following:
     - What should the international community do about crimes against humanity?
     - What actions should individuals, nations, or the international community take to compensate the victims and survivors of atrocities?
     - How can crimes against humanity be prevented in the future (e.g., do we need more laws, more education, more enforcement)?

2. Students write an essay to express their views on preventing war crimes and crimes against humanity.
   - Have students write an in-class essay or personal position paper on one of the following topics. Students may select appropriate handouts from other lessons to provide background for their essays. Possible topics include:
     - What should Canada, as part of the international community, do about crimes against humanity? How can crimes against humanity be prevented?
     - Tragically, crimes against humanity continued through to the end of the 20th century (e.g., Cambodia, Rwanda, and Yugoslavia). While each has its own historic conditions, what do they have in common? What should the international community do about crimes against humanity? How can crimes against humanity be prevented?

Unit Self-Assessment

Goals for the unit are stated in the introduction. The goals encourage critical thinking on issues related to the content of the unit, with the overall outcome in promoting understanding of the requirements of a socially responsible citizen. Students may complete a self-assessment, such as Handout 5.1 (Unit Self Assessment), to identify the extent to which they are themselves socially responsible citizens. They should be encouraged to use work produced during the unit as part of the evidence to support their ratings.
Before they begin, work with the students to develop criteria to evaluate their essays, for example:
- clearly defines the issue
- explains opposing points of view and supports them with examples
- draws articulate, logical conclusions
- develops and defends plausible resolutions
- includes focused and relevant evidence, examples, and arguments

Extension Activities

If time permits and the situation warrants, consider using or modifying one of the following extension activities, which are intended to enhance the student's understanding of the key concepts of this unit, exploring issues, investigating evidence, and taking actions to make a difference.

1. Have students draft letters to the local media, Member of Parliament, MLA, or foreign government regarding a current issue they want to address. Assess their work for the extent to which the letter clearly identifies an issue, expresses a point of view, supports the view with logical argument, and recommends appropriate action.

2. To illustrate how war crimes continue today, have students create a “Wall of War Crimes”. Students do a search of the web and news media to find reports of current war atrocities. They might also contact Amnesty International for information on current issues related to war crimes.
Handouts for Grades 11-12

Nanking: 7 layers of corpses, buried on the site of the Memorial Museum
POWs were bound together and held on the bank of the Yangtze River
Handout 1.1: War Crimes and International Law

One of the most important steps toward justice for victims of war has been the recognition by the international community of war crimes and crimes against humanity. Over the past century, nations have struggled to define rules of war to ensure the protection of the basic human rights of those caught in conflicts. As a participant in international war crime tribunals, and as one of the nations most active in supporting United Nations' peacekeeping missions around the world, Canada has played an important role in these developments, as a member of the international groups defining these laws.

Following are excerpts from some conventions related to war and peace. For the complete documentation of these conventions, visit the International Red Cross web site at www.icrc.org/IHL.

First International Rules of War

The first international rules of war were set down in the Geneva Conventions and the Hague Conventions. They covered the treatment of the wounded, prisoners of war, and civilians in wartime.

1864  The Geneva Convention of 1864 established the International Red Cross and laid down the rules for treatment of the wounded in war.

1899 and 1907  The Hague Conventions of 1899 and 1907 established as international law many of the customary laws of war that existed before World War I.

October 18, 1907  Hague IV (Convention Respecting the Laws and Customs of War on Land)

Until a more complete code of the laws of war has been issued, the High Contracting Parties deem it expedient to declare that, in cases not included in the Regulations adopted by them, the inhabitants and the belligerents remain under the protection and the rule of the principles of the law of nations, as they result from the usages established among civilized peoples, from the laws of humanity, and the dictates of the public conscience.

Article 3: A belligerent party which violates the provisions of the said Regulations shall, if the case demands, be liable to pay compensation. It shall be responsible for all acts committed by persons forming part of its armed forces.
Article 4: Prisoners of war are in the power of the hostile Government, but not of the individuals or corps who capture them. They must be humanely treated. All their personal belongings, except arms, horses, and military papers, remain their property.

Article 6. The State may utilize the labour of prisoners of war according to their rank and aptitude, officers excepted. The tasks shall not be excessive and shall have no connection with the operations of the war.

Work done for the State is paid for at the rates in force for work of a similar kind done by soldiers of the national army, or, if there are none in force, at a rate according to the work executed.

The wages of the prisoners shall go towards improving their position, and the balance shall be paid them on their release, after deducting the cost of their maintenance.

Article 21: The obligations of belligerents with regard to the sick and wounded are governed by the Geneva Convention.

Article 23: In addition to the prohibitions provided by special Conventions, it is especially forbidden:

(a) To employ poison or poisoned weapons;
(b) To kill or wound treacherously individuals belonging to the hostile nation or army;
(c) To kill or wound an enemy who, having laid down his arms, or having no longer means of defence, has surrendered at discretion;
(e) To employ arms, projectiles, or material calculated to cause unnecessary suffering;
(g) To destroy or seize the enemy's property, unless such destruction or seizure be imperatively demanded by the necessities of war;

Article 25: The attack or bombardment, by whatever means, of towns, villages, dwellings, or buildings which are undefended is prohibited.

Article 27: In sieges and bombardments all necessary steps must be taken to spare, as far as possible, buildings dedicated to
religion, art, science, or charitable purposes, historic monuments, hospitals, and places where the sick and wounded are collected, provided they are not being used at the time for military purposes.

Article 46: Family honour and rights, the lives of persons, and private property, as well as religious convictions and practice, must be respected. Private property cannot be confiscated.

Article 47: Pillage is formally forbidden.

Refinement to the Rules of War

After World War I, international laws were further refined as they applied to civilians, prisoners of war, and wounded and sick military personnel. An important one is the Geneva Convention Relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War, 1929. The Geneva Convention of 1929 was signed by Japan but not ratified because of Japanese military objections.

July 27, 1929

Geneva Convention Relative to the Treatment of Prisoners of War

Article 2: Prisoners of war are in the power of the hostile Government, but not of the individuals or formation which captured them. They shall at all times be humanely treated and protected, particularly against acts of violence, from insults and from public curiosity. Measures of reprisal against them are forbidden.

Article 82: The provisions of the present Convention shall be respected by the High Contracting Parties in all circumstances. In case, in time of war, one of the belligerents is not a party to the Convention, its provisions shall nevertheless remain in force as between the belligerents who are parties thereto.

The Need for Further Refinements

By the end of World War II, it was clear that the existing conventions had not been enough either to control the aggression of ambitious nations or to cover the terrible consequences to civilian populations trapped by war. Two days after the bombing of Hiroshima, new rules were set in place to define wars against peace, war crimes and crimes against humanity. The new laws became the basis for prosecuting the German and Japanese governments - the main aggressors in the war - at the
International Military Tribunals in Nuremberg and Tokyo.

August 8, 1945  Charter of the International Military Tribunal

(a) Crimes against peace:
   (i) Planning, preparation, initiation or waging of a war of aggression or a war in violation of international treaties, agreements or assurances;
   (ii) Participation in a common plan or conspiracy for the accomplishment of any of the acts mentioned under (i).

(b) War crimes:
Violations of the laws or customs of war include, but are not limited to, murder, ill-treatment or deportation to slave-labour or for any other purpose of civilian population of or in occupied territory, murder or ill-treatment of prisoners of war, of persons on the seas, killing of hostages, plunder of public or private property, wanton destruction of cities, towns, or villages, or devastation not justified by military necessity.

(c) Crimes against humanity:
Murder, extermination, enslavement, deportation and other inhuman acts done against any civilian population, or persecutions on political, racial or religious grounds, when such acts are done or such persecutions are carried on in execution of or in connection with any crime against peace or any war crime.

Formation of the United Nations

To further ensure that world peace would be preserved after World War II, the United Nations was formed. The Charter of United Nations held all member nations to a commitment to not act aggressively against another member and to settle their disagreements by peaceful means. Canada was one of the founding members of the UN.

June 26, 1945  Charter of the United Nations

Article 2(3) All Members shall settle their international disputes by peaceful means in such a manner that international peace and security, and justice, are not endangered.

Article 2(4) All Members shall refrain in their international relations from the threat or use of force against the territorial integrity or political independence of any state, or in any other manner inconsistent with the Purposes of the United Nations.
Stronger Rules Established

As the world came to terms with the terrible consequences of the Second World War II, the members of the United Nations committed themselves to stronger rules that would protect the rights of civilians both in times of war and of peace. The horrors of the Holocaust led to the Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide. This was followed by the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948 and the Geneva Convention Relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War.

December 9, 1948 Convention on the Prevention and Punishment of the Crime of Genocide

Article 27: Protected persons are entitled, in all circumstances, to respect for their persons, their honour, their family rights, their religious convictions and practices, and their manners and customs. They shall at all times be humanely treated, and shall be protected especially against all acts of violence or threats thereof and against insults and public curiosity.

Women shall be especially protected against any attack on their honour, in particular against rape, enforced prostitution, or any form of indecent assault.

Article 148: No High Contracting Party shall be allowed to absolve itself or any other High Contracting Party of any liability incurred by itself or by another High Contracting Party in respect of breaches referred to in the preceding Article.
Principles of International Law

In 1950, the International Law Commission of the United Nations adopted the Principles of International Law Recognized in the Charter of the Nuremberg Tribunal and in the Judgment of the Tribunal. These include the recognition (Principle VI) of the definitions of crimes against peace, war crimes, and crimes against humanity established by the Charter of the International Military Tribunal.

1950 Principles of International Law Recognized in the Charter of the Nuremberg Tribunal and in the Judgment of the Tribunal

*Principle II:* The fact that international law does not impose a penalty for an act which constitutes a crime under international law does not relieve the person who committed the act from responsibility under international law.

*Principle III:* The fact that a person who committed an act which constitutes a crime under international law acted as Head of State or responsible Government official does not relieve him from responsibility under international law.

*Principle IV:* The fact that a person acted pursuant to order of his Government or of a superior does not relieve him from responsibility under international law, provided a moral choice was in fact possible to him.

*Principle VII:* Complicity in the commission of a crime against peace, a war crime, or a crime against humanity as set forth in Principle VI is a crime under international law.

Non-Applicability of Statutory Limitations

In 1950, the International Law Commission of the United Nations adopted the Principles of International Law Recognized in the Charter of the Nuremberg Tribunal and in the Judgment of the Tribunal. These include the recognition (Principle VI) of the definitions of crimes against peace, war crimes, and crimes against humanity established by the Charter of the International Military Tribunal.

The United Nations adopted the Convention on the Non-Applicability of Statutory Limitations to War Crimes and Crimes against Humanity on 26 November 1968. This convention addresses the world’s concern about the application of domestic law relating to the period of limitation (legal expiry date) for ordinary crimes, since it prevents the prosecution and punishment of persons responsible for those crimes. This forms the legal basis for the claims of victims and survivors against the Japanese government for war crimes and crimes against humanity committed during the Asia-Pacific
Enforcement of the Rules of War

In spite of efforts to regulate warfare and promote peace since the end of World War II, millions of people have lost their lives to war, and millions have become victims of crimes against humanity. To halt such atrocities and for redress in regions such as the former Yugoslavia and Rwanda, ad hoc international tribunals for the prosecution of persons responsible for genocide and violations of international humanitarian law were set up in 1993 and 1994.

On July 17, 1998, nations gathered in Rome and adopted the Rome Statute of the International Criminal Court. This is an attempt by nations to enforce international laws of war and peace by setting up a permanent international criminal court to bring individual perpetrators of the most serious crimes to justice. (A Canadian, Philippe Kirsch, was elected the first President of this court in 2003.) Of course, the elimination of war remains the best safeguard against human rights violations. “The Preamble” of the Rome Statute speaks of the hope of the world for peace and its urge to stop any acts of inhumanity. It states that all states must constantly be:

**Conscious** that all peoples are united by common bonds, their cultures pieced together in a shared heritage, and concerned that this delicate mosaic may be shattered at any time,

**Mindful** that during this century millions of children, women and men have been victims of unimaginable atrocities that deeply shock the conscience of humanity, Recognizing that such grave crimes threaten the peace, security and well-being of the world,

**Affirming** that the most serious crimes of concern to the international community as a whole must not go unpunished and that their effective prosecution must be ensured by taking measures at the national level and by enhancing international cooperation,

**Determined** to put an end to impunity for the perpetrators of these crimes and thus to contribute to the prevention of such crimes,

**Recalling** that it is the duty of every State to exercise its criminal jurisdiction over those responsible for international crimes,

**Reaffirming** the Purposes and Principles of the Charter of the United Nations, and in particular that all States shall refrain from the threat or use of force against the territorial integrity or political independence of any State, or in any other manner inconsistent with the Purposes of the United Nations, ....

**Resolved** to guarantee lasting respect for and the enforcement of international justice...
Handout 2.1: Timeline of the Asian-Pacific War, 1894 - 1951

1894 The first Sino-Japanese War begins.

1895 Shimonoseki Treaty. After defeat in the Sino-Japanese War, China unwillingly cedes Taiwan to Japan and pays a financial indemnity.

1902 The Anglo-Japanese Alliance is signed. Japan and Great Britain agree to assist one another in safeguarding their respective interests in Asia. The Alliance is renewed in 1905 and 1911.

1905 Upon Russia’s defeat in the Russo-Japanese War of 1904-05, the US mediates the Treaty of Portsmouth. The treaty forces Russia to give up its concession in southern Manchuria to Japan and recognizes Japan as the dominant power in Korea.

China unwillingly signs another treaty with Japan, recognizing Japan’s imperialistic rights in southern Manchuria.

After the Treaty of Portsmouth, the Taft-Katsura memorandum is signed between Japan and the US. This agreement recognizes Japan’s rights in Korea, and in return, Japan recognizes US control of the Philippines.

1907 Some major conventions on the laws of war are made in the Hague Conference of 1907, including the Hague IV - Laws and Customs of War on Land.

1910 Japan's "official" annexation of Korea.

1914 World War I starts.

Japan as one of the Allied countries against Germany occupies Shantung Peninsula of China, and assumes the imperial rights of Germany in that region.

1926 Hirohito becomes Emperor of Japan.

1929 The Geneva Convention Relating to Prisoners of War is made.

1931 The Japanese army launches a full-scale attack on Manchuria.

1932 The Japanese army seizes Manchuria and establishes the puppet state of Manchukuo.

Japan establishes biological warfare units in Japan and China.
1933 The League of Nations declares that Manchukuo is not a legitimate state and calls for the withdrawal of Japanese troops.

Japan withdraws from the League in protest.

Expanding from Manchuria, the Japanese army gains control of much of north China.

1937 The “Marco Polo Bridge Incident” sets off Japan’s full-scale invasion of China.

Peking (now Beijing) and Shanghai are captured.

When Nanking (now Nanjing) the capital falls, the Japanese military commits the Nanking Massacre.

The military sexual slavery system for the Japanese military expands rapidly after the Nanking Massacre.

1939 World War II starts in Europe.

1940 Japan moves into northern Indo-China (now Vietnam, Laos and Cambodia).

Japan joins the Axis Alliance with Germany and Italy.

1941 Tojo Hideki becomes Prime Minister of Japan.

Japan raids Pearl Harbour on December 7. British Malaya and Hong Kong are simultaneously attacked. The Pacific phase of World War II begins.

Hong Kong falls on December 25. Of the 1,975 Canadian soldiers sent to defend Hong Kong, 290 are killed in action and 1,685 are captured and interned by the Japanese military. 267 die in internment.

1942 Forced relocation and internment of Japanese Americans in the United States and Japanese Canadians in Canada begin.

By May 1942, Japan has gained control over wide territories including Hong Kong, Philippines, Vietnam, Laos, Cambodia, Thailand, Burma (now Myanmar), Malaya, (now Malaysia), Singapore, Dutch East Indies (now Indonesia), and many other Pacific islands.

1945 The first atomic bomb is dropped on Hiroshima on August 6.
The Soviet Union declares war on Japan on August 8.

The second atomic bomb is dropped on Nagasaki on August 9.

Japan surrenders on August 15. World War II ends.

1946  The Charter of the International Military Tribunal for the Far East is formulated and the Tribunal is set up to prosecute instigators of the War.

1951  The San Francisco Peace Treaty is signed between Japan and 48 other nations. Some states are not parties to the Treaty, including Burma, China, India, Korea and the Soviet Union.
Handout 2.2: The Rape of Nanking and Other Atrocities

For the Nanking Massacre, refer to Handout 1.3 on pp.32-36 (under the Grade 10 section)

For Sexual Slavery, refer to Handout 1.4 on pp.37-38 (under the Grade 10 section)

Other Atrocities

Japan’s government sponsored experiments into biological and chemical warfare. Under the leadership of Ishii Shiro, Unit 731 and other similar units performed tests on living humans. For example, they injected victims with germs to see the effects and to test the effectiveness of vaccinations. They performed operations on living humans without the use of anaesthetic. To keep their activities secret, the victims of medical experiments were then killed. These units killed thousands of POWs and civilians, most of whom were from China. Germ-filled bombs produced by these units were dropped on Chinese cities. Chemical weapons were mass-produced in Japan and used widely. It is estimated that even today between 600,000 and 2,000,000 shells filled with poisonous chemicals remain buried in China.

Over 61,000 Allied POWs and 250,000 Asian civilians (mainly Chinese, Malay, Tamil and Burmese) were used as slave labourers to build the 415 kilometre-long Burma-Thailand Railway, the infamous “Death Railway”. It is estimated that half of the Asian labourers, and one-fifth of the Allied POWs, perished during construction of this railroad.

Japanese private corporations also relied on slave labourers during the War. An example is Kajima Corporation, a well-known Japanese company. In 1944, a group of 986 Chinese were taken to Japan and forced to work in Kajima’s mining
and construction sites at Hanaoka in northeast Honshu. More than 400 of them died from torture, starvation, and the horrifying conditions of Kajima's slave camps.

After Japanese Imperial forces captured Indonesia (the Dutch East Indies) in March 1942, over 40,000 Dutch soldiers and 100,000 Dutch civilians, including women and children, were interned. As many as 14,000 Dutch civilians died in captivity.
Handout 3.1: Canadian Prisoners of War

Adapted from the Valour and the Horror

It was August of 1945. Japan had just surrendered, ending the war in the Pacific. One job of the USS Wisconsin was to pick up a group of Canadian prisoners of war who were being released from the work camp at Niigata Japan.

The hollowed-eyed, jaundiced men that came aboard had barely enough flesh to hold their bones together. Among them were Bob Manchester, John Stroud, and Bob Clayton. At six feet, one inch, Bob Manchester weighed only 105 pounds. At five feet, eleven inches, John Stroud was reduced to 79 pounds. Bob Clayton was 5 feet, five inches tall and 95 pounds. Armand Bourbonniere was down from 200 pounds to 117. They were four of the survivors of the 1,975 Canadian soldiers sent to fight in Hong Kong. This is their story.

Canadian POWs in Japanese occupied Hong Kong
Canada Responds

By 1941 the Pacific theatre of war was about to take a turn for the worse. The allies were to experience the full brunt of the Imperial Japanese army. One especially vulnerable spot was the British Crown colony of Hong Kong.

The British government made a request of its independent Canadian ally: would Canada consider sending one or two battalions to bolster the garrison currently in Hong Kong? The British reassured the Canadians that the men would not be in great danger. Their only responsibility would be maintaining a garrison, a visible presence, in the face of the Japanese [Imperial forces], who were at war with neighbouring China. Even if the Japanese [forces] attacked, said the British general commanding Hong Kong, the enemy was merely 5,000 strong. He stated that the Japanese troops were ill-equipped and unaccustomed to night fighting; they had little artillery support; their aircraft were mostly obsolete; and their pilots were “mediocre, unable to do dive-bombing because of poor eyesight”.

The Canadian defence staff did not ask for an independent assessment of the situation in Hong Kong. They urged Prime Minister Mackenzie King to send the soldiers, and the decision was made. In the eyes of the Canadian government, they would now have the opportunity to take an active role in the war. If the Japanese [Imperial forces] decided to attack, Canadian soldiers would be there and ready for action.

The British request was met with about 2,000 troops from the Winnipeg Grenadiers and the Royal Rifles. These were young, untrained men who had recently been designated “not recommended for operational consideration”. Along with the others, Bob Manchester, John Stroud and Armand Bourbonniere were sealed aboard transcontinental trains, sent to Vancouver, and shipped out to Hong Kong. The man chosen to lead the Canadians was Colonel John Lawson - the man who had designated them as unfit for combat.

The Reality

Although Canadian military intelligence came exclusively from the British, who were selective in what they shared, in retrospect it is difficult to comprehend that the Canadian government did not know Japan was close to invading Hong Kong and that the situation would be very difficult when that happened.

In a memo by British Prime Minister Winston Churchill on January 7, 1941, he concluded that the tiny Asian outpost of Hong Kong was indefensible and should not be reinforced. “If Japan goes to war with us, there is not the slightest chance of holding Hong Kong or relieving it. It is most unwise to increase the loss of life we shall suffer there”. Churchill wrote this 10 months before the Canadians were shipped out. “Instead of increasing the garrison, it ought to be reduced to a
symbolic scale ... Japan will think long before declaring war on the British Empire, and whether there are two or six battalions in Hong Kong will make no difference to her choice. I wish we had fewer troops there”.

And the enemy was hardly the incompetent few depicted by the British command. They were in fact seasoned victors of the Sino-Japanese war: determined, dedicated, and disciplined soldiers. Within three weeks Japanese soldiers would overwhelm the garrison and claim the island of Hong Kong for their own.

**Japan Attacks**

The Japanese high command chose Sunday, December 7, 1941, to order its troops into action across the Pacific. Contrary to the earlier British estimation of 5,000 troops, there were at least 50,000 troops amassing along the border of Hong Kong. Superior weapons and training gave them confidence; the Emperor Hirohito was their cause. Hirohito had pledged to bring “peace” to the Far East, and these troops were there to enforce it.

On December 11, four days after the Japanese attack on Pearl Harbour, the British commander of Hong Kong ordered the Chinese mainland (Kowloon and New Territories of Hong Kong) evacuated in the face of the attack by Japanese imperial forces. Without mental or technical preparation, the two Canadian battalions designated unfit for combat were suddenly pitted against the Japanese forces at the peak of its power. The Commonwealth troops, along with hundreds of thousands of Chinese, desperately tried to find passage to Hong Kong Island. Most of them made it to the island; however, a few like John Gray did not. Tied to a lamppost at the Star Ferry Wharf in Kowloon and shot dead at 21, he became a footnote in history: the first Canadian soldier to be killed in the first wave of the Japanese invasion of Hong Kong.

Beginning December 12, 1941, the Japanese imperial forces began a week-long series of flying raids over the island of Hong Kong. Having demonstrated their military superiority, the Japanese dispatched a peace mission to the island, demanding that the British and their Commonwealth army surrender or be annihilated. Within 15 minutes, the ultimatum received a one-word reply: “No!” The Japanese met the Commonwealth defiance with a ferocious artillery barrage. For the next five days, the Japanese forces hit the island with everything they had, softening it up for the coming amphibious assault. The British reorganized their defences.
The Fall

On December 18, 1941, 3,500 Japanese soldiers swarmed onto the island. A second assault force of 4,000 men followed at midnight. Within hours of landing, the Japanese forces had taken control of the bluff on the island's northeast coast. Grenadiers, including the 100 men in Bob Manchester’s D Company, had been sent to Wong Nei Chong Gap. This remained the only way through the center of the island. To control Hong Kong, the Japanese would have to take the pass.

Two Japanese infantry regiments, about 2,000 men, were assigned to the task. Facing them were 100 Canadian Grenadiers. The Japanese outnumbered their defenders 20 to one but were taking four times the casualties. The Canadians hung on until they ran out of ammunition. Lawson led the last desperate stand of the Canadians at Wong Nei Chong Gap. After his death, the handful of men still alive surrendered. They had no food, no water and no ammunition. The bodies of their comrades lay bullet-ridden in the trenches.

At 3:15 p.m. on Christmas Day 1941, the British commander officially surrendered to the forces of the Emperor. The defenders, their backs to the sea, had been all but vanquished in a one-sided battle that lasted only 18 days. The corpses of 1,600 Commonwealth soldiers, including 303 Canadians, lay on the beaches and in the rugged mountains and valley passes of Hong Kong.

Prisoners of War

The 1,672 Canadian survivors of the Battle of Hong Kong were herded into prisoner-of-war camps at North Point on Hong Kong Island and at Sham Shui Po in Kowloon. They were exhausted by battle, and many were wounded. They didn’t know what they faced but were reasonably hopeful that the Japanese would follow the rules for humane treatment of prisoners set out in the Geneva Convention. Three and a half years of misery proved this to be a false hope.
Building the Airport

The conditions at Sham Shui Po were hard. Inside the vermin-infested huts, some slept on wood plank double bunks, others on cement floors. There was no heat. Despite the meager rations - too often, only a handful of rice - the POWs were soon forced into the service of the Empire of the Rising Sun as slave labour - against the rules of the Geneva Convention.

“They decided that there was no sense in wasting good manpower, that these lazy buggers had better find something to do”, recalls Bob Manchester. “They decided they were going to enlarge their international airport. And so, they shipped us over there in work details at seven in the morning. And we'd stay over there until six at night”.

“We chopped down bloody mountains with pick and shovel and a wheelbarrow. We had our breakfast before we went - some kind of punky rice and fish head soup or something. We’d have to take a goddamn can or anything we were able to accumulate to carry our lunch for our midday meal. An old bottle or whatever. And it was generally the rice and the soup all mixed together or seaweed. Then we’d get out there and have our lunch out there and then we’d have to come back. And we’d get the same old crap when we got back into camp”.

Compelled by the threat of starvation, the prisoners began to build the runway. But they sabotaged the construction by mixing too much sand in the concrete, which would make the tarmac weak. It worked. The first Japanese aircraft to use the runway, a large fighter escort filled with dignitaries, crashed on landing. The Japanese engineer in charge of the project was decapitated. It was a small, sad victory in a long defeat.

Niigata

Bob Manchester, John Stroud, and Armand Bourbonniere were among the 500 POWs sent to a work camp at Niigata, an industrial port 250 miles northwest of Tokyo.

“They said we would be better housed and better fed,” recalls Manchester. “We wouldn’t be worked as hard as when we were working on the airport runway. So we assumed, okay, this is what they’re saying, this must be true. But it was a shit of a camp. Because of the type of work we had to do and the brutality of the camp staff and the weather, we lost more men than all the rest of the work camps put together”.

Manchester loaded coal, while other Canadian and British prisoners worked old mines, reopened to feed the battleships and factories of the Japanese war machine. If Sham Shui Po was purgatory, this was hell. The work was dirty, dangerous, and often dragged on for 15 to 16 hours a day.
“The weather killed us more than anything,” reports Manchester. “When we arrived it was late September, early October. And then the winter set in, and in the middle of November, the snow came. We had seven feet of snow. The Japanese provided us with heavy matted grass capes to help ward off the cold and dampness on our backs. But they were more of a hindrance than help, because they became thoroughly soaked and they weighed you down. The snow was so heavy that it crushed one of our shacks. That’s where we lost 16 men on New Year’s Eve, 1944”.

There were also diseases: dysentery, thyroid infections, wet beriberi, dry beriberi (hot feet), diphtheria, plague, and pneumonia. Often, those suffering from hot feet would keep the men up at night with their un-comfortable moaning; so they were put in their own hut, nicknamed the “misery ward”.

And always, there was hunger. Armand Bourbonniere recalls one time when they decided to try the local rats. “We asked our medical officer if we could cook some rats. He kind of laughed and said if you boil them for three or four hours, you’ll boil the poison out of them. So me and my friends, we caught 22 rats. And they were big - just like cats. We stole a little wood at the foundry, a couple pieces at a time. And hid it in the camp. We asked our officer to ask the Japs if we could make a little fire, you know, at Christmas, the few days we were off. They granted us that much anyway”. (Note: “Japs” is a racist term, used in the context of war).

“So we cooked our rats. And then we took the meat, eating it and the juice, the fat. So we figure we got protein. We drink the juice - hey, vitamins. We were like a bunch of kids. So the next day we went to work, and we were sick! Every two minutes we got to go to the lavatory. We got diarrhea, you could not believe it. We never had any meat of any kind for two years. Nothing. And then drink the juice and that meat. We nearly died, the three of us. We couldn’t walk. But they were good, those rats. Just like chicken”.

Release

On August 6, 1945, and again on August 9, 1945, atomic bombs were dropped on Hiroshima and Nagasaki. The tremors reached the Canadian POWs, more than 500 miles away. Emperor Hirohito surrendered, and the POWs were brought from the work camps of Niigata to American ships anchored in Tokyo Bay. Their misery as POWs was over. But now there were new battles of a different sort to fight.

The Long-Term Effects

One recent study enumerates the many chronic illnesses intensified by the prison camp experience: 30 percent of Hong Kong veterans suffer from deteriorating eyesight or blindness, 46 percent from psychological problems ranging from anxiety-caused sleep disturbance to psychosis, 50 percent from gastro-intestinal illness, 50 percent from oral and dental ailments. Another study in 1965 concluded that due in large part to prolonged malnutrition and vitamin deficiency, the death rate of Hong Kong survivors is 24 percent higher than that of soldiers who fought in Europe.
Compensation and an Apology

The Hong Kong veterans have spent the decades since the war fighting for compensation for the work they did and an apology from the Japanese government. According to the Geneva Convention, Japan is required to pay POWs who they forced to work the same pay as civilians. Initially, following the war, Hong Kong Veterans got less than a penny a day from Japan for their time as captive slave labourers.

Since 1987 the War Amps organization has been arguing a claim for compensation for former Hong Kong POWs before the Human Rights Commission of the United Nations. Canada has continued to ignore this claim. Canada insists that the 1951 San Francisco Peace Treaty signed with Japan formally extinguished all claims. Under this treaty each prisoner received $1 a day for the time spent in captivity. In 1958, Canada kicked in another $.50 per day. The official government policy remains that the Canadian government will not be seeking reimbursement for the compensation payment from the Japanese government.

In December 1998 the Canadian government awarded the Hong Kong veterans nearly $24,000 per person. This figure was based on $18 a day for 44 months of captivity. Although grateful for the money received, the Hong Kong veterans are frustrated that it did not come from Japan. “Canadian taxpayers don’t owe us this money. Japan owes it to us,” say Lionel Speller, President of the BC Branch of the Hong Kong Veterans Association.

For many veterans, receiving compensation is less important than what they feel is their right to an apology from the Japanese government for their treatment.

For the aging veterans, time is of the essence. However, a letter to a student, Danny Albietz, from Fred Mifflin, Minister of Veteran’s Affairs, stated the following: “The Canadian government will not be seeking reimbursement for the compensation payment from the Japanese government” as government-to-government claims were settled by the 1952 peace treaty. Despite this official policy of the Canadian government, veterans continue to fight for compensation and an apology from the Japanese government and corporations who enslaved them - and to tell their story so that the service they and their comrades proudly and bravely gave their country will not be forgotten.

Handout 3.2: Response Guide for Canadian Prisoners of War

Use the materials provided to make notes on each of the following questions. Use your notes to prepare a written response on the topic, “Hong Kong, December 1941 to the present”. Include in your written response:

- information related to all questions listed below
- quotations from the text to support your responses
- accurate details and complete explanations to show that you understand the issues
- your own position and feelings on the issue to summarize your response

Focus Questions

1. What led to Canadian troops being sent to Hong Kong in 1941? Provide reasons why this seemed a good idea from the points of view of the British and Canadian governments.

2. What were living conditions like for those who went into POW camps? Include specific information about the numbers of those who were captured, killed and fell ill to various diseases. What international war crime laws in effect during this time did the Japanese treatment of prisoners violate?

3. What is your view of payment to the Canadian Hong Kong Veterans in 1998 by the Canadian government? What is your view of the Japanese government’s obligation to the veterans? What do you think of the veterans’ reaction?
Handout 4.1: Organizing a Mock Justice Tribunal

The Task

Imagine that you are part of an international tribunal that has been given the task of deciding how justice can be served for the victims of Japan’s war crimes and crimes against humanity during the Asia-Pacific War. The tribunal will hear arguments from victims' advocates (the prosecution) and from the government of Japan (the defence) on the following question:

“Has Japan settled its obligations with regard to war crimes and crimes against humanity committed by Japanese Imperial forces?”

The tribunal judges will then issue their judgment on the question and recommend any action they feel is necessary for the government of Japan to initiate in order to restore justice.

You will take part in the Recovery of Justice Tribunal in one of the following roles:

• as a member of the team representing victims and survivors (the prosecution)
• as a member of the team representing the government of Japan (the defence)
• as a member of the tribunal (the judges)

Preparing for the Tribunal Hearing

First meet with the other members of your group and read through the directions (below) that apply to your group. Then, based on those instructions, your group can begin researching the information needed for the hearing. 

Tribunal members: This group has a unique responsibility because they must stay completely neutral during the trial. Discuss how you will ensure a fair trial in which the evidence from both sides is considered and weighed. Then decide how you will reach a verdict (by majority vote? by reaching consensus? by secret ballot?)

To prepare for the arguments of the prosecution and defence teams:

• review Handout 1.1 (War Crimes and International Law) and Handout 4.3 (International Agreements Related to Compensation Claims) so that you are familiar with relevant international law
• review the other handouts in this resource to be familiar with the issues under discussion
• decide what other information you need to be prepared for the hearing and divide up the research tasks among the members of your group
• consider researching the work of real international tribunals and examining how other nations have dealt with issues of redress and reconciliation (for examples: the Canadian government’s settlements with Japanese Canadians
who were interned during the Second World War; the South African Truth and Reconciliation Commission; the German government’s agreements with Israel for compensation of the victims of the Nazi regime; the war crime tribunals related to the Balkans).

**Prosecution team:** This group needs to be familiar with the war crimes and crimes against humanity committed by the Japanese Imperial forces during the Asia-Pacific War.

To build a convincing case that Japan has not settled its obligations:

- Assign some members of your team as “witnesses” to present their testimonies directly to the tribunal. Use the details from the handouts for Lessons 2 and 3 to create eye-witness accounts.
- Be sure your team’s presentation addresses Japan’s obligations under international law (review Handout 1.1 (War Crimes and International Law) and Handout 4.3 (International Agreements Related to Compensation Claims) and does not rely on appealing to the judges’ sympathy.
- Read Handout 4.2 (What Victims and Survivors Want) to be clear about what you are asking for.

**Defence team:** As the defence, your task is to represent the interests of the government of Japan to the best of your ability. To do so convincingly:

- You must be familiar with what victims want, what the government of Japan has already done, and why the Japanese government refuses to do more.
- Review Handout 1.1 (War Crimes and International Law) and Handout 4.3 (International Agreements Related to Compensation Claims) so that you are familiar with the relevant international law. Then use Handout 4.4 (Japan’s Response) to help build your defence. Decide what additional research your team needs to do to make its case. Then divide the research tasks among your team members.
- As your presentation will follow the prosecution’s, you will need to anticipate their arguments and be well prepared to address the prosecution’s claims. It is necessary to do this ahead of time, as you will not have time to prepare arguments during the activity.
Conducting the Hearing

The tribunal process follows this order:

1. *Presentation of the prosecution's case against Japan (8 minutes)*: The prosecution addresses its argument to the tribunal and then answers questions from the tribunal members.

2. *Presentation of the defence (8 minutes)*: The defence presents its argument to the tribunal and then answers questions from tribunal members.

3. *Rebuttal by the prosecution (2 minutes)*: The prosecution has the opportunity to present to the tribunal its response to any points raised by the defence.

4. *Rebuttal by the defence (2 minutes)*: The defence responds to the prosecution’s rebuttal.

5. *Closing Statements (2 minutes each)*: Each side provides a clear and persuasive summary of: the evidence it presented; the weaknesses of the other side’s case; the application of the law to the case; and why it is entitled to the result it is seeking.

6. *Deliberation and verdict of the tribunal*: The tribunal recesses to deliberate their verdict and then returns to class to announce their decision and their reasons for it.

*The bench listens to testimony at the IMTFE – International Military Tribunal for the Far East.*
Handout 4.2: What Victims and Survivors Want

The following summarizes information from various publications and web pages about what the victims and survivors of the Japanese atrocities want.

1. Survivors want a full and sincere apology resolution to be passed by the Upper House and the Lower House of the Japanese parliament (the Diet).

2. They want compensation for the damages and suffering inflicted.

3. They want the Japanese government to follow the example of Germany and make commitments such as the following to ensure that such atrocities never happen again:
   • provide school education on humanity issues of the Asia-Pacific War
   • establish museums for public education on crimes against humanity in the Asia-Pacific War
   • legislate a national day of remembrance for victims of Japanese Imperial forces aggression and atrocities
   • public denial of war crimes committed by the Japanese imperial forces is to be outlawed
   • legislate domestic laws to prosecute, for crimes against humanity, the many Japanese war criminals who escaped war crime trials after the end of the war

The following are quotations from various organizations supporting victims and survivors.

“Although they expressed their regret and sorrow about what they did to Koreans whenever the Japanese Prime Ministers had diplomatic meetings in Korea, especially with respect to Korean women during the colonization period, this was challenged and denied by Japanese cabinet members”. (The Korean Council for the Women Drafted for Military Sexual Slavery by Japan)

“the Peace Treaty was a compromise between the principle that Japan was liable to pay compensation for violations of the law for which it was responsible and the recognition of the reality that the condition of Japan in the aftermath of the war was such that it could not be expected to pay full compensation at that time. The Allied States therefore waived most of their claims on the Inter-State level in order to assist Japanese recovery. It is entirely compatible with that approach that they intended to leave open the possibility of individuals bringing claims in the Japanese courts but based upon international law once that recovery had taken place”. (The Association of British Civilian Internees Far East Region)

“.... the individual human rights of the Hong Kong Veterans are not affected by the
Peace Treaty as the governmental representatives of the countries who were the signatories to the Treaty had no authority or mandate to release these basic legal rights.”. (The War Amputees of Canada in association with the Hong Kong Veterans Association of Canada)

“While my report [study report for UN Sub-Commission on Human Rights on systematic rape and sexual slavery during armed conflict] welcomes the expression of atonement and support from the people of Japan, it maintains that the Asian Women Fund does not satisfy the legal responsibility of the Government of Japan toward the survivors of Japan military sexual slavery. The Fund has been the focus of a great deal of divisiveness and controversy, and a majority of survivors have not accepted it. So long as it is seen as vehicle for Japan to avoid its legal obligation to pay compensation, all the good that the Asian Women Fund tries to do will be under a cloud of suspicion and resentment”. (Gay J. McDougall, Special Rapporteur of United Nations Commission on Human Rights)

“If Japan’s ‘Peace Exchange Fund’ is used to propagate Japanese culture, then it cannot be used as a means of atonement for Japanese war crimes”. (The Korean Council for the Women Drafted for the Military Sexual Slavery by Japan)
Handout 4.3: International Agreements related to Compensation Claims

San Francisco Peace Treaty of 1951

Article 14(a)
“It is recognized that Japan should pay reparations to the Allied Powers for the damage and suffering caused by it during the war. Nevertheless, it is also recognized that the resources of Japan are not presently sufficient if it is to maintain a viable economy to make complete reparation for all such damage and suffering and at the same time meet its other obligations”.

Article 14(b)
“Except as otherwise provided in the present treaty, the Allied Powers waive all reparation claims of the Allied Powers, other claims of the Allied Powers and their nationals arising out of any actions taken by Japan and its nationals in the course of the prosecution of the war, and claims of the Allied Powers for direct military costs of occupation”.

Convention on the Non-Applicability of Statutory Limitations to War Crimes and Crimes against Humanity
(Adopted and opened for signature, ratification and accession by General Assembly of the UN resolution 2391 (XXIII) of 26 November 1968, entry into force 11 November 1970).

Preamble of the convention states:
“Noting that the application to war crimes and crimes against humanity of the rules of municipal law relating to the period of limitation for ordinary crime is a matter of serious concern to world public opinion, since it prevents the prosecution and punishment of persons responsible for those crimes.

Recognizing that it is necessary and timely to affirm in international law through this convention the principle that there is no period of limitation for war crimes and crimes against humanity and to secure its universal application”.

Article 1 of the convention states:
“No statutory limitation shall apply to the following crimes, irrespective of the date of their commission:

(a) War crimes as they are defined in the Charter of the International Military Tribunal, Nuremberg, of 8 August 1945 ... for the protection of war victims;

(b) Crimes against humanity whether committed in time of war or in time of peace as they are defined in the Charter of the International Military Tribunal, Nuremberg, of 8 August 1945... even if such acts do not constitute a violation of the domestic law of the country in which they were committed”.
Handout 4.4: Japan’s Response

Japan’s Position on Compensation

The San Francisco Peace Treaty (1951) between Japan and 47 nations (including Canada) and other subsequent agreements have settled all compensation issues between states (Articles 14(a) and 14(b) of the Peace Treaty).

Japan paid compensation to the military and civilian prisoners of wars of the Allied Powers in accordance with treaties between countries. Examples of compensation paid out are:

- $1.50 for each imprisoned day to the former imprisoned Canadian Hong Kong veterans
- £76 to each British military prisoner of war and about £48.5 to each adult civilian internee
- $1 (US) for each day of internment for the United States military and civilian prisoners of war and $0.50 (US) for child internees

According to Japan’s laws, the legal expiry date (statutory limitation) is 15 years for legal responsibility of the most serious crimes. More than 50 years has passed since the end of the Asia-Pacific War, so Japan has no legal obligation to victims of atrocities that were committed prior to its statutory limitation.

The governments, including Canada, who signed the San Francisco Peace Treaty had agreed to waive their own citizens' right to make claims (Article 14(b) of the Peace Treaty). Since treaties govern relations between states, individual prisoners of war have no legal right to claim further compensation directly from the Japanese government.

In 1995 the Japanese government supported the establishment of the Asian Women’s Fund. Its primary aim is to settle compensation of the so-called “comfort women” issue. The fund gets donations from the Japanese public and distributes them to each former “comfort woman” – about $19,000 (US). With the financial support of the government, it extends welfare and medical services to victims.

In 1995 Japan established the Peace, Friendship and Exchange Initiative to support historical research into relations between Japan and other countries and also to support exchanges with those countries. Approximately $1 billion (US) over ten years would be allocated to this project.
Japan's Position on Apology

No War Resolution

A No War Resolution that expressed Japan’s apology was adopted by the Lower House of the Diet (Japanese Parliament) in 1995. This was to commemorate the 50th anniversary of the Asia-Pacific War.

In 1955, The House of Representatives resolves as follows:

On the occasion of the 50th anniversary of the end of World War II, this House offers its sincere condolences to those who fell in action of wars and similar actions all over the world.

Solemnly reflecting upon many instances of colonial rule and acts of aggression in the modern history of the world, and recognizing that Japan carried out those acts in the past, inflicting pain and suffering upon the peoples of other countries, especially in Asia, the Members of this House express a sense of deep remorse.
We must transcend differences over historical views of the past war and learn humbly the lessons of history so as to build a peaceful international society. This House expresses its resolve, under the banner of eternal peace enshrined in the Constitution of Japan, to join hands with other nations of the world and to pave the way to a future that allows all human beings to live together. (Translation by the Secretariat of the Lower House of the Japanese Parliament)

**Individual Apologies**

Dignitaries in Japan have offered their individual apologies to victims. The most acclaimed one is by Japan's Prime Minister Murayama Tomiichi. He issued the following statement on August 15, 1995, the 50th anniversary of the Asia-Pacific War, to express an apology to victims.

“Now that Japan has come to enjoy peace and abundance, we tend to overlook the pricelessness and blessings of peace. Our task is to convey to younger generations the horrors of war, so that we never repeat the errors in our history. I believe that, as we join hands, especially with the peoples of neighbouring countries, to ensure true peace in the Asia-Pacific region - indeed in the entire world - it is necessary, more than anything else, that we foster relations with all countries based on deep understanding and trust. Guided by this conviction, the Government has launched the Peace, Friendship and Exchange Initiative, which consists of two parts promoting: support for historical research into relations in the modern era between Japan and the neighbouring countries of Asia and elsewhere; and rapid expansion of exchanges with those countries. Furthermore, I will continue in all sincerity to do my utmost in efforts being made on the issues arisen from the war, in order to further strengthen the relations of trust between Japan and those countries.

... During a certain period in the not too distant past, Japan, following a mistaken national policy, advanced along the road to war, only to ensnare the Japanese people in a fateful crisis, and, through its colonial rule and aggression, caused tremendous damage and suffering to the people of many countries, particularly to those of Asian nations. In the hope that no such mistake be made in the future, I regard, in a spirit of humility, these irrefutable facts of history, and express here once again my feelings of deep remorse and state my heartfelt apology. Allow me also to express my feelings of profound mourning for all victims, both at home and abroad, of that history”.
**Handout 5.1: Unit Self-Assessment**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Making a Difference</th>
<th>Evidence from self and others</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>I try to make difference:</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I take action to help improve our community.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I speak up against racism and intolerance.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I support human rights and am willing to take action to help.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I have ideas about how to make the world a better place.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I take action to influence politicians or other decision-makers to make changes our community/world needs.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**OVERALL RATING.** Choose the overall description that best fits the evidence above.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Not yet within expectations</th>
<th>Meets expectations (minimal level)</th>
<th>Fully meets expectations</th>
<th>Exceeds expectations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tends to focus on self and own needs; shows little interest in helping others; often apathetic or negative.</td>
<td>Shows some sense of community; may support positive actions organized by others, but without much commitment.</td>
<td>Takes responsibility to work for an improved community and world; increasingly willing to speak out and take action.</td>
<td>Shows a strong sense of community and optimism that own actions can make the world a better place; finds opportunities to take action.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The assessment rubric is based on the British Columbia Standards for Social Responsibility.
Reference Lists

International Agreements related to Rules of War and Human Rights
  • “Comfort Women”
  • The Nanking Massacre
Unit 731: Chemical and Biological Warfare in Japanese Occupied Areas
  • Internment of Japanese Canadians during WWII
  • The Textbook Controversy in Japan: 1945 – Present

Mr. Jiang Gen Fu, became a war orphan during the Nanking Massacre; his sisters were raped and killed, and his one-month old baby brother was thrown to death by a Japanese Imperial Army soldier in 1937
I. International Agreements Related to Rules of War and Human Rights

(See www.aplconference.ca/resource.html for all international agreements listed below, except where a specific site follows name of agreement.)

Prior to World War II

1. The Hague Conventions of 1899 and 1907 (Laws and Customs of War on Land)

2. The Geneva Conventions of 1864 and 1929 (Relating to soldiers wounded in action and prisoners of war)

Following WWII


2. Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights, the United Nations
   • Universal Declaration of human rights, 1948
   • Convention on the prevention and punishment of the crime of genocide, 1951
   • International convention on the elimination of all forms of racial discrimination, 1965
   • Convention on the non-applicability of statutory limitations to war crimes and crimes against humanity, 1970
   • Declaration on the elimination of violence against women, 1967


Tribunals dealing with specific wars and conflicts
   • International Military Tribunal for the Far East (Tokyo, 1945)
     www.cnd.org/njmassacre/nj.html
     www.law.ou.edu/hist/japsurr.html
See also:


- Nuremberg Trial Proceedings (London, 1945)  
  [www.yale.edu/lawweb/avalon/imt/proc/imtchart.htm](http://www.yale.edu/lawweb/avalon/imt/proc/imtchart.htm)  
  [http://deoxy.org/wc/wc-nurem.htm](http://deoxy.org/wc/wc-nurem.htm)

- San Francisco Peace Treaty (1951)  
  [www.aplconference.ca/resource.html](http://www.aplconference.ca/resource.html)

- International Criminal Tribunal for the former Yugoslavia  

- International Criminal Tribunal for Rwanda  
  [www.ictr.org/contents.htm](http://www.ictr.org/contents.htm)

- War Crimes (Kimberly Jones, Model UN) Reviews war crime laws and judgments, including Nuremberg, Bosnia, and Rwanda, as well as problems of establishing tribunals, and includes critical review questions concerning international criminal laws.

- Procedural and evidentiary rules of the Post World War II Crimes Trials (Evan J. Wallach)  
  [http://lawofwar.org/Tokyo%20Nurembueg%20article.htm](http://lawofwar.org/Tokyo%20Nurembueg%20article.htm)
II. Comfort Women

Websites

www.vcn.bc.ca/alpha/learn/learn.htm
www.vcn.bc.ca/alpha/learn/KoreanWomen.htm
www.icasinc.org/lectures/soh3.html
www.aplconference.ca/resource.html
www.webcom.com/hrin/parker.html
www.webcom.com/hrin/parker/c95-11.html

Books


   See pp.80-81, a letter written by a former soldier describing the comfort women and their treatment in China.


   This book includes interviews with women who were forced to serve Japanese soldiers at “military comfort stations” throughout Asia. These women, the largest group of whom were Korean, were forced into sexual slavery and many of them were murdered.


   This collection includes details of the Women's International War Crimes Tribunal on Japan's Military Sexual Slavery, a landmark initiative to redress the Japanese military's sexual enslavement of women from nine Asian countries and recognize sexual slavery as a crime against humanity under international laws.


   The author, who has been a prominent activist in the effort to expose the responsibility of the Japanese government for sexual slavery during World War II, describes the system of “comfort stations” in detail, in each country in which they were established. He gives a great deal of information on how and why they were created, how they functioned, and with what results. His introduction includes a description of the response of Japanese people in the 1990s to these issues. (Also see reviews at www.bookfinder.us/review3/0231120338.html.)
III. The Nanking Massacre

Websites

www.wikipedia.org/wiki/Nanking_Massacre
www.geocities.com/nankingatrocities/Table/table/htm
www.princeton.edu/~nanking/html/body_nanking_gallery
www.columbia.edu/ccba/cer/issues/fall99/textonly/yoshida
www.cnd.org/njmassacre/nj.

Books

There are many books on this subject. The six listed below offer first-hand reports and/or analysis of what happened. All are available in paperback, in both new and used copies.


   This book has two parts. Part I includes records of what happened in the Nanking Safety Zone in December, 1937 to February, 1938. These records (diaries, letters, official messages to the Japanese authorities, etc.) were written by witnesses, all of them Europeans who were present and deeply involved in attempting to protect Chinese civilians.

   Part II is an abridged version of the judgment of the International Military Tribunal for the Far East after the war, giving its position on the Nanking Massacre, and sentencing war criminals. Also included, in full, is the dissenting opinion of one of the judges, R. Pal, who did not vote with the majority.


   This book has been immensely successful in exposing many more readers to the history of the Nanking Massacre. Some readers believe that the numbers reported killed in the Massacre are overestimated. The book describes the military antecedents of the Massacre, the event itself, the Nanking Safety Zone, the fate of the survivors, and what has happened since to the history of this period.


   The three chapters in this book discuss the Nanking Massacre and related topics such as the Tokyo Trial, the decades-long textbook controversy, and
others, and give concise descriptions and observations of the various points of view represented in China, Japan, and elsewhere. See, for example, pp.14-15 on the Massacre and pp.19-20 on the Tokyo Trials.


This is a collection of letters written in 1986 to the editor of the major Japanese national newspaper. The paper invited readers to write to them about their memories of World War II. The invitation resulted in 4,000 letters. This book includes 300 of these, organized by topic, with a brief but useful introduction to each. The topics include: the road to war; life in the military; the China war; the war in the Pacific; the bombing of Japan, and others. Only one refers directly to the Nanking Massacre (pp.75-6) and one to the “comfort women” (pp.80-1), but many of the letters refer to what soldiers believed, were told, expected, giving the reader some insight into the part played by ultra nationalism and brutality within the military establishment.


The author interviews survivors of the Japanese invasion of China. He organizes the topics chronologically, beginning with the Japanese landing at Hangzhou Bay in November 1937 and ending with Nanking in Dec./Jan., 1937/8. Most of the book is composed of the words of the interviewees, which are very detailed and descriptive, and give a vivid sense of what it was like to be present, the terror and the danger.

As well, the editor’s introduction is a very readable thirteen pages describing the background and causes of the brutality, and the controversy which continues in Japan today about what did or did not happen at Nanking and elsewhere.

The author’s preface includes the following: “It is an unfortunate fact that, throughout Japan’s history, it has never been possible for the people to alter the nation’s power structure on their own: all the important transformations have come about through gaiatsu or ‘outside pressure’”. He expresses his hope that “the mere fact of my reportage being widely read overseas will serve as gaiatsu and will bring about a change”.

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IV. Unit 731: Chemical and Biological Warfare in Japanese Occupied Areas

Websites

www.fas.org/nuke/guide/japan/bw
www.technologyartist.com/unit731
http://en.freepedia.org/Unit_731.html
www.wwpacific.com/unit731.1.html
http://english.people.com.cn/200410/05/eng20041005_159097.html
http://news.bbc.co.uk/2hi/asia-pacific/2218266.stm
http://news.bbc.co.uk/2/hi/programmes/correspondent/1796044.stm
www.webster-dictionary.org/definition/Unit%20731
www.japantimes.co.jp/cgi-bin/geted.p15?eo20010605al.htm
http://www.theglobeandmail.com/

Books


   See letter, pp. 69-70, attesting to meeting the director of Unit 731 in 1943 in China, and being shown by him a film attesting to the unit’s atrocities.

V. Internment of Japanese Canadians during WWII

Websites

- Canadian Concentration Camps (some photographs and a brief description of Canadian internment camp) - www.csuohio.edu/art_photos/Canada.html

- From Racism to Redress: the Japanese Canadian experience (includes movement for redress and compensation, history of anti-Japanese legislation in Canada in 20th century, and recommended resources, including books, videos, and websites) - www.crr.ca

- Group Backgrounds: Japanese - www.diversitywatch.ryerson.ca/backgrounds/japanese.html


- Japanese-American Internment (while this is an American document and does not cover the Canadian camps specifically, it is a useful teaching and learning resource, purpose – made for classroom activities, and with an extensive list of websites)

- JapaneseCanadianHistory.net - www.japanesecanadianhistory.net


- Japanese Canadian Timeline (1877-2000, with list of primary and secondary sources)

- Japanese Canadians in Canadian History (An annotated bibliography compiled by the Canadian Race Relations Foundation (CRRF), including books and films which deal with the internment; this is a very extensive list, including histories, art, memoirs, films, stories and books by survivors, and more. A few books described in this bibliography are listed below under “Books”.) - http://www.crr.ca/

- Japanese Internment Camps (description, including quotes from internees)

Books
Many books are listed in the above on-line materials. A few of interest, all of which are described in the CRRF annotated bibliography cited above:


VI. The Textbook Controversy in Japan: 1945 - Present

After the war, and especially beginning about 1970, the Japanese government made strenuous efforts to control what was said about World War II and Japan’s actions in the Asia and the Pacific. Books were censored to either eliminate all mention of such events as the Nanking Massacre and the existence of such wartime institutions as the “military comfort hostels” and Unit 731, or to minimize their significance. While within Japan there were many individuals who worked hard for truthful accounts in school texts, there were others who insisted that such information was either fabricated, highly exaggerated, or best forgotten.

A key figure in this controversy is Saburo Ienaga, a history professor who wrote textbooks which were censored, and who fought in the courts for fifty years for the right of students to read truthful accounts of the war. In 1997, the Japanese Supreme Court ruled that it was illegal for the government to screen out mention of the Nanking massacre from textbooks, or to refer to it as a fabrication. However, the debate continues over the accuracy and inclusiveness of the depictions of the Massacre as well as other events of the 1930s and 40s in current texts.

Much has been written about why post-war governments and much of the populace supported or did not object to censorship. Often, the contrast is made between Japan and Germany. In the latter country, there was no parallel suppression of truth in textbooks after the war. The German government - very unlike the Japanese - was quick, after the war, not only to admit the truth of the Holocaust, but also to officially apologize and to make reparations to families of those robbed and murdered.

The reasons for these international differences are complex, and include the distinction between a more internationalist country (Germany wished to be accepted as a key partner in a united Europe) and one more ambivalent about regional alliances as well as different pressures from other countries. For example, in the case of Japan, the U.S., which played a key role in Japan’s recovery and which looked to it for post-war political and trade alliances, did not wish to emphasize Japan’s past wrongdoing, especially in China, a cold war opponent.

The list below includes websites which are specific to the textbook controversy, as well as books which address the larger question of why the Japanese government has refused to apologize and offer individual reparations to victims of WWII.

As well, there is a website which lays out the way in which textbooks are approved for classroom use in Ontario, including the criteria which are applied in evaluat-
ing them, a process which presumably keeps the government at arm’s length in the
decision-making process for textbook adaptation.

Websites

www.skycitygallery.com/japan/japtext.html
www.gainfo.org/SFPT/Amnesia
www.ne.jp/asahi/kyokasho/net21e_yukou_seimei20001205.htm
www.godutch.com/windmill/newsItem.asp?id=323
www.jca.apc.org/JWRC/center/english/index-english.html

Ontario textbook adaptation guidelines:
www.edu.gov.on.ca/trilliumlist/guide.pdf

Agencies responsible for vetting and approving texts:
www.curriculum.org/csc/about.shtml

Books

Books which discuss the larger meaning of the textbook controversy in Japan, and
its underlying causes include:

1. Buruma, Ian. 1994. The Wages of Guilt: Memories of War in Germany and
   Japan. Canada: Harper Collins Canada Ltd.

   of California Press. See especially pp. 28-32 and 74-100.

   and Memory in Japan, Germany, and the United States. New York and
   London: M. E. Sharpe.

   This book includes comparisons to the treatment of the Vietnam War in U.S.
   textbooks, which the authors also find guilty of inculcating nationalism and
discouraging critical thinking.

4. Hicks, George. 1997. Japan’s War Memories: Amnesia or Concealment?

   Describes treatments of such topics as the Nanking Massacre, Unit 731, the
   “comfort women”, etc. in textbooks, and discusses the evolution of the debates
   and lawsuits concerning the representation of these topics in texts since the war.
The Mass Grave Site

By Jane Turner, Assistant Director, Professional and Social Issues Division of BC Teachers’ Federation

I wrote history with my bones.
Sacrificing my privacy so that countless generations will
Know the Nanjing massacre.
Not sacrificing my dignity.
That is mine alone.
Will my family find me?
Do they know I am here, silently giving testimony
To the six weeks of terror.
Rape, murder, massacre, atrocity
History now calls the Rape of Nanjing.
My sister, mother, grandmother raped repeatedly
Before my dying eyes.
My neighbor killed, bringing her baby with her into
The netherworld, another child crying, “take me, take me”.
Their skin, flesh, hair, eyes, fading into history along with mine.
But our bones are here. They can’t hide them in
The ground, or drown them in the river.
They can’t incinerate us into oblivion.
My bones write history and with them
I keep my humanity.
Concept Statement:

The use of colour in the cover signifies a transition from the intense solitude and isolation of the primary documents that portray images of the war. The transition to colour signifies the depth of the survivors' stories and the vibrancy of their will to bear witness to the next generation. The past and present hinge on the rainbow: a symbol of hope, peace and justice.

* William Ho and Elska Malek

Images* [clockwise from top left]:

- Nanjing: 7 layers of corpses, buried on the site of the Memorial Museum.
- Tang Xi: Ms. Li Mei Tou, a victim of biological warfare: anthrax, and a survivor of the incurable 60 year old leg disease that ravaged her village.
- Mr. Jiang Gen Fu became a war orphan during the Nanking Massacre; his sisters were raped and killed, and his one-month old baby brother was thrown to death by a Japanese Imperial Army soldier in 1937.
- Mr. Liu Qian (from Beijing Township), a survivor of the forced labour camps in Japan, shows where a supervisor’s axe broke his leg.
- Ms. Wan Ai Hua, the first Chinese victim of sexual slavery to come forward.
- Image representing helpless children at the Nanking Massacre, housed at the Museum of the Chinese People's Resistance Against Japanese Invasion
- Beijing: Museum of the Chinese People’s Resistance Against Japanese Invasion.
- Canadian POWs in Japanese occupied Hong Kong.

* Some of the photos were contributed by Andrew Cheung, photographer and long-time B.C. ALPHA volunteer.