



Princeton Diplomatic Invitational
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United States Army Military Government in Korea
Andrea Delgado, Chair

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LETTER FROM THE CONFERENCE DIRECTOR

Delegates,

It is with great joy that I welcome you to the first iteration of the Princeton Diplomatic Invitational! I hope that each and every one of you will walk away from our conference having enjoyed the debates you will have and the people you will meet.

Allow me to tell you the story of how we got here. For years, Princeton has hosted the Princeton International Crisis Simulation - better known as PICSim - which brought innovative approaches, like a conference-wide Joint Crisis Committee, to the college Model UN circuit. However, the past two years brought with them an unfortunate decline in the quality of PICSim.

We sought to change that. The decision to rebrand ourselves as the Princeton Diplomatic Invitational was one to begin a new era for Princeton's college conference. The changes were greater than just a new name; rather, we brought about a new conference schedule, a smaller Secretariat, improved communication with delegations, and, true to the original iteration of PICSim, a six-way Joint Crisis Committee that promises to be better staffed than ever before.

Here's to the first Princeton Diplomatic Invitational. Let us make it memorable.

Sincerely yours,

Elkhyn R. Rivas Rodriguez,

Director, Princeton Diplomatic Invitational I

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LETTER FROM THE CHAIR

Hello delegates!

Welcome to the Princeton Diplomatic Invitational! My name is Andrea Delgado, and I am beyond excited to work with you to make sure the first iteration of our college conference sets a standard that'll be hard to beat. I'm currently a junior pursuing a major in Public Policy and a minor in Statistics. When I'm not staffing conferences, I also compete with the Princeton Model UN team, volunteer as an ESL teacher, and run a graphic design business.

As the United States, we play an integral role in resolving the broader conflict of this conference. In real life, our country might not have the greatest track record of peacekeeping, but this is a Model United Nations conference - an opportunity to plan out a course of action and hope it is not foiled by angry crisis staffers. Let us work together (at least until the 4th committee session, please?) to achieve a prosperous and stable world.

I look forward to meeting you all in February! Prepare well, and be ready for serious discussion and lots of fun! If you have any questions, feel free to reach out to me at acrd@princeton.edu.

All the best,

Andrea Delgado,

Chair, United States Army Military Government in Korea

BACKGROUND INFORMATION

The Beginnings of the Cold War

The Second World War in Asia was brought to a dramatic end in August 1945 with the dropping of atomic bombs on Hiroshima and Nagasaki, the Soviet invasion of Japanese-controlled Manchuria, and finally the surrender of Japan. However, while the allies had, at least in theory, agreed to the post-war situation in Asia, it quickly became apparent in the three years following the end of the war that they had differing goals for Asia's geopolitical organization.

The aftermath of the war and the story of the changes in the relationships between the victors is complex and multifaceted. However, it is clear that the period saw increasing distrust between the United States and the Soviet Union. The Allies had agreed in a series of conferences on many of the aspects of the post-war peace, including such lasting arrangements as the United Nations. From these conferences, it seemed to the Americans that the Soviets would allow free and fair elections to take place in Eastern Europe. However, as Soviet forces continued their occupation of Eastern Europe and began a series of rigged elections that brought Communist governments to power, the American government became convinced that the Soviets sought to establish their power more broadly and beyond their own borders. During this time, the United States took steps to ensure the democratic and pro-American alignment of governments in Europe that were occupied by American, British, and French forces. It was clear to the Soviets that the Americans and their allies were willing to take whatever steps necessary to secure friendly governments in the areas they occupied. The culmination of this was the declaration of the Truman Doctrine in the spring of 1947. In this famous speech to Congress, Truman asked for \$400 million dollars to support the governments of Greece and Turkey, asserting the country's support of all "free peoples who are resisting attempted subjugation by armed minorities or by outside pressures," thus effectively announcing the United States' intent to support governments against communist forces.

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This was followed up with the announcement of the Marshall Plan in June of 1948 to rebuild the economies of Europe. The theory among American policymakers was that a strong economic recovery would decrease support for communist parties in the Western European countries, especially France and Italy. Fearing a loss of influence if Eastern Bloc countries accepted this aid, Stalin prevented them from participating in the plan. When the Western allies continued to go ahead with the economic normalization and political organization of West Germany, Stalin responded by consolidating control over East Germany. At the end of June 1948, when the Western allies intended to introduce a new Deutsch Mark, Stalin began the Berlin Blockade. The allies responded by launching the Berlin Airlift, and in July of 1948 it became clear that the geopolitical situation had changed from that of allies to that of rivals and adversaries.

While the events in Europe influenced and essentially defined the relationship between the two countries and their strategic perception of each other, events in East Asia continued apace. In the immediate aftermath of the war, American forces occupied Japan, the southern half of Korea, and the Philippines, and Soviet forces occupied Manchuria and the northern half of Korea. American Marines were also sent to assist in the handover of major ports by the Japanese, to ensure the handover went to the Nationalist government of the KMT rather than to the Communists. In the same manner, British and French troops were moved rapidly in Southeast Asia to Indochina, Malaya, and the East Indies to ensure that the handover of authority by the Japanese forces were to colonial authorities rather than to nationalists or communists. Thus, in the immediate aftermath of the war, it seemed that the Americans and their allies had been able to seize much of the strategic high ground.

Despite these advantages in the post-war strategic positions, the initial actions in 1945-1946 did not lead to outright conflict. The Nationalists and Communist reached an accord of sorts with the Double Tenth Agreement and the Chongqing conference, and the Soviets and Americans attempted to come to an understanding on the status of Korea with the Soviet-American Commission. At the

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same time, the American forces consolidated their occupation of Japan. These ongoing events led to a lull in tensions in East Asia.

However, things soon took a more interesting turn: the Communists in China had secured wide support among the populace and the Nationalist had borne the brunt of the war, anti-colonial movements in Southeast Asia gained momentum, the Soviets were able to transfer resources and equipment to the Communists in Manchuria, and the government set up in northern Korea was quite successful in consolidating power. In southern Korea, American attempts to set up a government were met with popular resistance and lacked legitimacy. This set the stage for further advances of the Communists, as post-war attempts to reach a negotiated settlement failed and the Nationalist attempt to consolidate control in Manchuria failed during the Communist offensives of 1947.

Thus, during the latter half of 1947 and first half of 1948, Communist forces were able to reverse the tide of battle and capture most of the countryside in northern China and Manchuria, and capture major cities in the critical center of the North China Plain. Importantly too, the Americans had become suspicious of the capability of the Nationalist government to form a legitimate democratic regime and began to draw down on their support of the regime. This was especially apparent as General Marshall's attempts to make peace between the Communists and Nationalists were thwarted by Nationalist intransigence. Marshall, by 1948 the Secretary of State, warned Congress that he thought efforts to support the Nationalists in an all-out war with Communists would be fruitless and a waste of resources. On the other side of things, however, it was important to note that Stalin still pressed for the Communists to maintain their alliance with the Nationalists, and remained intensely skeptical about the Chinese Communists.

American Occupation of Japan

The post-war plans for the occupation of Japan had initially called for a division of Japan into occupation zones. However, the actual surrender led to the entirety of the Japanese Home Islands

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being occupied by the United States. The decision by the Truman administration to occupy the islands entirely can be traced to the increase in tensions after the Yalta and Potsdam conferences, and the desire to keep more territory from falling into Soviet hands. Indeed, the Soviets intended to occupy the northernmost island of Hokkaido, but the Truman administration was able to move troops quickly enough to receive the surrender in Hokkaido. The lack of Soviet pressure to divide Japan also derived from their uncertainty about American atomic weapons that had been demonstrated in August 1945.

As troops moved into Japan, General Douglas MacArthur was appointed Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers. The first order of business after receiving the surrender was setting up food distribution services. The Government and Relief in Occupied Areas fund gave out nearly \$92 million in loans in 1946 to feed the Japanese public. At the same time, MacArthur met with Emperor Hirohito and won his support for the administration of the occupation. MacArthur also rejected claims that Hirohito should be tried as a war criminal and suggestions of others in the imperial family that Hirohito should step down. Hirohito would appear in public with MacArthur throughout the occupation, cementing the legitimacy of the role of the commander.

Soon, by the end of 1945, the US had 350,000 troops stationed throughout Japan. These included the 24th Infantry Division in Kyushu, the First Cavalry Division in Honshu, and the 11th Airborne Division in Hokkaido. They then quickly took on the task of disarming the Japanese Army and taking over their military equipment.

The other allies still took part in the occupation. The Soviets occupied South Sakhalin Island and the southern Kuril Islands. They and the other allies participated in the Allied Council for Japan. The British Commonwealth Occupation Force was set up to oversee the demilitarization of Japan's war industries, and was able to wind up its activities by 1947.

The Americans quickly formed a cabinet, appointing the notably pro-American former foreign minister Kijuro Shidehara as prime minister. His government began the process of drafting a new

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constitution. While this political process took place under American instruction, it only included politicians selected by them as well. Meanwhile, the SCAP, as the occupation administration was known, instituted strict control over Japanese society. This included a censorship effort that prevented criticism of the Allies. For example, criticism of the SCAP administration was prevented, as was the defense of war criminal or discussion of the atomic bomb. Many of these laws were accomplished via directives by the SCAP. Even as the SCAP kept tight control, it also sought to liberalize Japanese government and society. On October 4, 1945, the SCAP issued the Removal of Restrictions on Political, Civil, and Religious Liberties directive. This repealed imperial era laws such as the Peace Preservation Law and the Thought Control law that imprisoned political opposition members and prevented free speech and free practice of religion. By December, Shintoism was abolished as the state religion, and its militaristic teachings and rites were banned; this was followed by Hirohito renouncing divinity in his New Year's Address.

The government prepared for elections to be held in April, 1946. Under the directives of the SCAP, women were enfranchised to vote for the first time. The election brought large Liberal and Progressive delegations to the Diet of Japan. Although the liberal Ichiro Hatoyama was originally the leader of the coalition government under these two parties, he was purged from office by SCAP for working with the previous authoritarian regime. By May 22nd, the Foreign Minister Shigeru Yoshida was made Prime Minister. This allowed for a legitimate Diet to be in place that could adopt the constitution drafted in collaboration between MacArthur's staff and the Shidehara cabinet. The Japanese leaders Shidehara and Yoshida insisted on a pacifist clause being included in the new constitution, which became Article 9. This article renounced war as a tool of Japan's sovereignty. While MacArthur suggested a unicameral legislature, the Japanese rejected this in favor of a bicameral one. The draft constitution rested the sovereignty of the nation with the people, rather than the

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emperor, a change from the Meiji Constitution. It also incorporated a range of civil and political rights. The Constitution was adopted as an amendment to the Meiji Constitution.

During this time of political organization, the occupying forces went ahead with the International Military Tribunal for the Far East to try war criminals. Besides excusing the imperial family, General MacArthur also granted immunity to the biological warfare unit of the Japanese military, Unit 731, in exchange for the data they had gathered during their wartime experimentation. Indeed, the tribunal staff worked to make sure that testimony during these trials did not implicate the imperial family. The tribunal was a public affair that served to demonstrate the US's commitment to ending the right-wing military rule that had led to the war in the first place. However, it was far from a full-fledged purge of nationalists, many of whom were held imprisoned. The SCAP began releasing some of these political prisoners in 1948.

By 1947, it was clear that the SCAP had succeeded in maintaining military and political control of the country and the process of creating a stable political system was on its way to completion. Thus, the SCAP focused in on economic strengthening as it had also become obvious that the Soviets and the expansion of communism was a real threat in war-torn economies worldwide. Initially, the Americans had sought to break up the conglomerate-like zaibatsu. However, given these communist concerns, the disorganization of Japanese society in the aftermath of the war, and the lack of other strong economic actors, the SCAP soon relented, allowing the formation of less powerful keiretsu coalitions. This was because high inflation followed the breakup of the zaibatsu, with prices increasing over 12 times from 1946 to 1948.

Land reform was also a priority of the SCAP, which implemented a program to buy land from landlords and resold to farmers who worked those lands. This process, starting in 1947, led to the resale of almost 38% of Japanese cultivated land. This was largely the brainchild of Wolf Ladejinsky, and it successfully helped a huge portion of the Japanese population reach self-sufficiency. Labor laws were

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also adopted during this time in order to improve the status of workers. In April 1947, the Labor Standards Act was passed, which guaranteed humane working conditions. The SCAP also led the reorganization of the Japanese education system. The previous system had been based on a German model of schooling, which was highly centralized and controlled in its content. The SCAP created independently elected school boards and a decentralized hierarchy of school administrators.

Finally, the occupation forces employed an extensive counterintelligence organization to counter the Japan Communist Party. The operations of the counterintelligence organization were stepped up continuously in the period of 1945-1948 as the Americans became increasingly skeptical of communists.

By mid-1948, the economy had begun a tepid recovery and the political institutions had been re-established in an American mold of democracy. The Americans had even begun to draw down troops, with less than 200,000 remaining in the home islands. However, they still fully controlled Okinawa, as well as the former trust territories of modern Palau, Micronesia, the northern Marianas, and the Marshall Islands.

Other American and Allied Forces in Asia

In the former American colony of the Philippines, independence was declared on July 4, 1946. American forces had retaken the islands from the Japanese with the assistance of Philippine guerilla forces. The previous decade, the Americans had already promised Philippine independence, which they followed through with. However, they kept close relations with the Philippines by enacting the Bell Trade Act which kept tariffs low and tied the currency to the dollar, giving \$800 million in rebuilding funds, and by helping to actively suppress the Hukbalahap movement of communist insurgents in the country. The US also maintained military bases in the country. Currently, in 1948, the efforts to end the Hukbalahap rebellion have not been successful, although the rebels do not control large sections of the country.

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To the south, allied forces under the British and French retook Indochina, but a nascent communist insurgency in North Vietnam was able to successfully evade capture. Similar insurgencies emerged in Laos and Cambodia. To counter these movements, the French sought to set up pliant constitutional regimes within the greater French Empire. They were able to do so to an extent, with the Kingdom of Laos being founded in August of 1946, and a consultative assembly formed in Cambodia that in 1948 is currently negotiating an arrangement with the French government. In Vietnam, the French formed the State of Vietnam in the French Union headed by the emperor Bao Dai.

Despite British and French insistence on punishing the Thai government for cooperating with the Japanese in the war, the Americans did not insist on Thailand paying indemnities, and instead simply returned the border to the prewar status quo. In 1945, pro-communist parties were elected, but after the murder of the king Ananda Mahidol and the suspicion that the communists were involved, the military seized power. They restored Plaek Phibunsongkhram, the wartime fascist leader to power. Known as Phibun, he worked closely with the Americans to combat communism in Thailand and ruled the country with an iron fist.

Throughout the rest of Asia, communist insurgencies mounted in the post-war era. The Malayan Emergency involved a large communist rebellion in the highlands of the Malay peninsula. British forces faced a difficult battle in quelling the violence. Meanwhile, Dutch attempts to restore control over the Dutch East Indies after the proclamation of Indonesian independence were not supported by the Americans, who did not perceive the revolution to be a communist threat. Instead, the Americans saw the continuity of Dutch rule as an imperialist adventure and began to threaten to cut Marshall Plan funding for rebuilding the Netherlands itself. Still, the Americans watched closely as the Maduin rebellion arose in mid-1948, associated with the communists. In Burma, the British quickly acquiesced to independence in 1948, even as communist insurgencies bloomed in the

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countryside. And in India, independence in 1947 also brought the partition of Pakistan from India and the war in Kashmir. In 1948, the war had been fought to a standstill. The Pakistanis leaned towards the Americans and the Indians towards the Soviets. The left-leaning government in India depended on Soviet technical support, in exchange for which the Soviets pressured Communist groups in India to refrain from active rebellion. Finally, to bring the picture back to the Soviet borders on the opposite side from Japan and Korea, the monarchy of Afghanistan was able to stay out of World War II and remained free of any communist insurgency.

CHARACTER LIST

James Forrestal, Secretary of Defense

James Forrestal is President Harry Truman's Secretary of Defense. In that capacity, he has orchestrated the vast reorganization of the Department of Defense. As one of Truman's most trusted officials, he has successfully leveraged his influence to ensure that the United States government only allocate defense funding to whatever he deem appropriate. In addition to controlling the military's purse strings, Forrestal increasingly commands the support of interventionist Americans who support the Secretary's campaign to resist Truman's efforts to downsize the Defense Department.

General George C. Marshall, Secretary of State

General George Marshall is President Harry Truman's Secretary of State. He was sent to China to negotiate with Chiang Kai-Shek's Republic of China in the hopes of securing an agreement between the Nationalists and Communists as to the future of the country. President Truman has authorized Marshall alone to determine the value and recipients of American economic aid in China. An opponent of continued US intervention on Chiang's behalf in the Chinese conflict, Marshall seeks to use economic aid to stabilize the region as quickly as possible, believing that only economic development can truly abate Communist successes. Additionally, Marshall's role as the chief American diplomat ensures his control over the State Department's intelligence gathering capabilities.

Rear Admiral Roscoe Hillenkoetter, Director of Central Intelligence

Rear Admiral Roscoe Hillenkoetter is the Director of Central Intelligence, the inaugural head of the CIA. Despite its recent creation, the CIA has rapidly become the country's premier intelligence analysis

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instrument and rivals the State Department in its intelligence collection capabilities. Hillenkoetter is known for advocating caution and careful analysis with respect to American foreign policy.

General Douglas MacArthur, Supreme Allied Commander

After accepting the Japanese surrender that ended World War II, General Douglas MacArthur continued to be the official head of the American military forces in Japan as Supreme Allied Commander. To that end, he is responsible for furthering American goals in the region including the spread of liberal norms, democratic values and industrial modernization in post-war Japan. Because much of his role is political, his ability to lead American forces has largely been delegated to other generals within the region as he focuses on reform in the region. His control of Japanese policy is furthered by his influence over Emperor Hirohito, whose endorsement of American policies is critical for a successfully reformed Japan. MacArthur also is responsible for enforcing the conviction of war crimes handed down from the International Military Tribunal for the Far East. A man with vast political aspirations who one day hopes to leverage a successful military career into a presidential run, he is hugely popular with the American public and has used his public persona in the past to influence the direction of US policy in the area.

General John R. Hodge, Military Governor of South Korea

General John Hodge was military governor of South Korea. His troops arrived on the peninsula at the American behest, landing at Incheon in 1945. As governor, Hodge formally commands all troops in South Korea, he is responsible for enforcing martial law and ensuring the peace. In actuality, his only directly controls military police units operating in the country. Hodge is committed to ensuring de facto American control over Korea, promulgating the idea that his military governorship supersedes the formal republic. Hodge has also kept Japanese officials in charge of Korean civil affairs.

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General William F. Dean, Commander of US Forces in South Korea

General William Dean is the de facto commander of all US forces in South Korea as General John R. Hodge's deputy. He, like Hodge, is determined to maintain US political control over South Korea via the military administration.

General William L. Roberts, Commander Korean Military Advisory Group

General William L. Roberts is the commander of the Korean Military Advisory Group. As such, he is responsible for the training and modernization of the new South Korean armed forces. His ultimate goal is to maximize synergies between American and Korean forces during peacetime and, if necessary, wartime operations. Roberts commands all US military advisors in the country.

Vice Admiral Oscar Badger II, Commander of Naval Forces for the Far East

Vice Admiral Oscar Badger II is the Commander of Naval Forces in the Far East and Western Pacific. He exercises direct authority over American naval operations in the region and is tasked with ensuring the unabated flow of US trade through the Pacific. Badger has come into conflict with President Harry Truman's administration as of late, as the administration has pushed to mothball and scrap more than half of the Navy's ships, with many of the affected ships being those under Badger's command.

Senator Henry Cabot Lodge Jr., Leader of Republican Internationalists

Senator Henry Cabot Lodge, Jr. is the leader of the moderate Republican internationalists in the US Senate. He is also a Major General in the Army Reserve. For much of his life, he was an isolationist, but after Pearl Harbor, he determined that an internationalist orientation was necessary in order to

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deter the very threats to security that drove him to isolationism in the first place. An avowed anti-Communist, Lodge has frequently denounced Soviet actions across the globe, accusing them of deceit and brutality. Lodge commands the domestic support of like-minded Americans.

Senator Robert Taft, Leader of Republican Non-Interventionists

Son of William Taft, Robert Taft is the leader of the Republican non-interventionist wing. In the Senate, he is the Republicans' leading voice on domestic issues, having once humiliated President Harry Truman by overriding a presidential veto on Taft's anti-labor legislation. Generally speaking, he does not view the Soviet Union as an existential threat to the United States; rather, he believes the greatest threat to the American way of life is big government and its over-spending proclivities. He has often targeted US external security engagements and agreements - like its presence in Korea and its participation in NATO - as products of an overreaching government. Taft commands the domestic support of like-minded Americans.

Elpidio Quirino, President of the Philippines

Elpidio Quirino is the President of the Philippines. As strong, outgoing diplomat, Quirino's goals include attempting to foster the rebuilding of the post-war Philippines. His administration has been defined by postwar reconstruction, economic growth, and economic aid from the United States. In the hopes of boosting his political clout, Quirino became the only leader in East Asia to supplant American troops in South Korea with his own, sending military assistance in the form of the Filipino Tenth Battalion Combat Team to the region.

Shigeru Yoshida, Prime Minister of Japan

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Shigeru Yoshida is the Prime Minister of Japan and the leader of the Japanese Liberal Party. He has promulgated the Yoshida Doctrine, which emphasizes dependence on US aid for economic growth and American troops for security. A respected liberal, he commands the support - and sometimes the resources - of Japanese liberal elites.

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