

Military Sexual Slavery by Imperial Japan



Historical Realities and
Social Movements for Resolution

Chung Chinsung

Translated by Kim Yoo-suk

 **SNUPRESS**
Seoul National University Press

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A Note on the Text, Translation, and Transliteration

- This volume is an English translation of Chung Chinsung [鄭鎮星], *Military Sexual Slavery by Imperial Japan: Historical Realities and Social Movements for Resolution* [日本軍性奴隸制—日本軍慰安婦問題의 實像과 그 解決을 爲한 運動] (Seoul: Seoul National University Press [서울大學校出版文化院], 2016), which is a revised edition of the author's work of the same title published by the same publisher in 2004.
- For the sake of clarity and brevity, apostrophes have been omitted from plural forms of acronyms/initialisms and years, as in “NGOs” and “1940s,” respectively.
- Throughout this work, all translatable terms including the titles of publications, titles of posts, names of organizations, and concepts have been rendered into English, employing official or established translations when available, with transliterations provided only sparingly for the sake of brevity and convenience.
- In transliterating Korean, the Revised Romanization system used by the South Korean government has been adopted, as in “Seo-gu.” However, in the case of surnames such as 姜 (강), 吉 (길), 金 (김), 高 (고), and 具 (구), the spellings “Kang,” “Kil,” “Kim,” “Ko,” and “Ku” have been chosen instead of “Gang,” “Gil,” “Gim,” “Go,” and “Gu,” respectively, because they are more widespread and preclude unnecessary confusion with the English words *gang*, *kill*, *gym*, *go*, and *goo*. Another exception has been made for the names of places in and figures from what is North Korea today, in which case the modified McCune-Reischauer system used by the North Korean government up to 1992 has been adopted for convenience's sake, as it is still widely used in the international community.
- In transliterating Japanese, while the Revised Hepburn system has been adopted, the macron indicating long vowels has been omitted for the sake of simplicity, as in “*ochonin*.”
- In transliterating Mandarin Chinese, while the Hanyu Pinyin system has been adopted, all diacritical marks including tone marks and the umlaut over “u” in certain words have been omitted.
- For the sake of historical accuracy and consistency, the names of places in China have been transliterated using the Postal Map Romanization system when references to them date from before the establishment of the People's Republic of China, as in “Kiukiang.” The same principle has been applied to the names of former Western and Japanese colonies and occupied territories and locations in them, as in “Batavia.”
- All diacritical marks including tone marks have been omitted from the names of Vietnamese figures and places, as in “Tien Yen.” Also, as in this example, the Vietnamese custom of placing spaces between syllables in toponyms has been followed.
- As for the names of Korean, Japanese, Chinese, and Vietnamese figures, in accordance with the tradition common to these countries, the surname has been placed before the forename, omitting the comma separating the two throughout the main body (but not in the bibliography and the index) for the sake of brevity and convenience, as in “Manabe

Motoyuki.” An exception has been made for the names of Anglicized or Westernized figures, however, as in “Michael ‘Mike’ Makoto Honda.”

- To avoid possible confusion due to homophonous or identical surnames, full names have been provided for Asian figures at all times, even in parenthetical references, as in “(Chung Chinsung, 1995: 179).” An exception has been made for the names of Anglicized or Westernized figures, however, as in “(Chen, 1968: 71-90).”
- When a figure is known by two or more names including nicknames, all of them have been provided in the index, as in “Pillay, Navanethem ‘Navi.’”
- Except for cases of personal preference, all multisyllabic Chinese, Korean, and Japanese surnames and forenames have been written as single words without intervening hyphens, as in “Chungmoo.”
- Notwithstanding the virtual absence of grammatical gender in English, in keeping with the local custom, gender-inflected ethnonyms/demonyms have been used in references to people of or from the Philippines, as in “Lunas—Let’s Walk Hand in Hand with Filipina Former ‘Comfort Women.’”
- When necessary, important terms have been presented in the original languages alongside their English translations. This has been indispensable especially for disparate Asian terms that have the same English rendition, as in “prostitutes” for 賣淫婦, 賣春婦, 娼妓, and 娼婦. In such cases as well as in the index and the bibliography, Chinese characters in their traditional forms rather than the simplified forms used in China, Singapore, and Malaysia (*Jianhuazi*) and Japan (*Shinjítai*), respectively, have been provided for all applicable names or titles of figures, places, organizations, publications, and concepts when possible. This is because the traditional forms were universally used both before and during World War II and also to avoid the cumbersomeness of having to provide all variant forms for each term.
- Intervening spaces have not been used in Japanese- and Chinese-language entries as words are customarily run together in these languages. Likewise, the spacing between words has been minimized in Korean-language entries, as in “朝鮮新報.”
- When the names of historical events in or involving Asia, especially political and military ones, differ by country, only terms generally used in South Korea have been provided in addition to their common Western designators, with the corresponding Japanese and Chinese names given in the footnotes, as in “中日戰爭” (Korean) over both “日中戰爭” (Japanese) and “中國抗日戰爭” (Chinese) for the “Second Sino-Japanese War.”

Abbreviations

Because this volume covers considerable time and space and, in particular, alludes to a multitude of organizations, the bulk of which no longer exist, the use of acronyms and initialisms has been minimized in order to prevent confusion. In such cases, official or customary acronyms/initialisms, if existent, have been included in the first appearances of the full names of organizations but not used afterwards (excluded from this list). While non-acronymic abbreviations have been used more often, many of their full forms have been repeated in each new section or chapter, notwithstanding established editorial practices, in order to aid readers who may be unfamiliar with Asian history.

4th Geneva Convention	Convention Relative to the Protection of Civilian Persons in Time of War; Geneva Convention of 1949 [1949]
4th Hague Convention	Convention Respecting the Laws and Customs of War on Land; 4th Hague Convention of 1907 [1907]
2000 Women's Tribunal	Women's International War Crimes Tribunal on Japan's Military Sexual Slavery in 2000 [2000]
Asian Solidarity Conference	Asian Solidarity Conference for the Issue of Military Sexual Slavery by Japan; 日本軍「慰安婦」問題解決을 위한 아시아連帶會議; 日本軍「慰安婦」問題 아시아連帶會議; 아시아連帶會議; 日本軍「慰安婦」問題解決のためのアジア連帶會議; 日本軍「慰安婦」問題アジア連帶會議; アジア連帶會議 [1992-]
Asian Women's Fund	Asian Peace and People's Fund for Women; AWF 女性のためのアジア平和國民基金; アジア女性基金; 國民基金 [1995-2007]
ATIS	Allied Translator and Interpreter Section [1942-1945]
Batavia War Criminal Court	Temporary Court Martial Tribunal of Batavia [1946-1948]
Geneva Convention on Slavery	Convention to Suppress the Slave Trade and Slavery; 1926 Slavery Convention [1926]
GHQ/SCAP	General Headquarters, Supreme Commander for the Allied Powers [1945-1952]
ILO	International Labour Organization [1919-]

ILO Committee of Experts	International Labour Organization Committee of Experts on the Application of Conventions and Recommendations; CEACR
ILO Conference Committee	International Labour Organization Conference Committee on the Application of Standards; CAS
ILO Forced Labour Convention	International Labour Organization Convention Concerning Forced or Compulsory Labour; ILO Convention No. 29 [1930]
International Criminal Tribunal for the Former Yugoslavia	International Tribunal for the Prosecution of Persons Responsible for Serious Violations of International Humanitarian Law Committed in the Territory of the Former Yugoslavia since 1991; ICTY [1993-2017]
Jichiro	All-Japan Prefectural and Municipal Workers Union; AJPMWU 全日本自治團體勞動組合; 自治勞 [1954-]
Kono Statement	Statement by Chief Cabinet Secretary Kono Yohei on the Result of the Study on the Issue of “Comfort Women” 慰安婦關係調查結果發表に関する河野内閣官房長官談話; 河野談話 [1993]
Korean Council	Korean Council for the Women Drafted for Military Sexual Slavery by Japan 韓國挺身隊問題對策協議會; 挺對協 [1990-2018]
Korean Organizing Committee	Korean Organizing Committee for the 2000 Women’s Tribunal [1998-2000]
Korean Research Group	Korean Chongshindae Research Group 韓國挺身隊研究會 [1990-1997]
Korean Research Institute	Korean Research Institute for the Women Drafted for Military Sexual Slavery by Japan 韓國挺身隊研究所 [1997-]
Meiji Constitution	Constitution of the Empire of Japan 大日本帝國憲法 [1889-1947]
NEFIS	Netherlands Forces Intelligence Service [1941-1948]
NGOs	non-governmental organizations
OFSET Union	Osaka Fu Special English Teachers’ Union 大阪府特別英語教員組合
Public Hearing	Public Hearing on Crimes against Women in Recent Wars and Conflicts [2000]

Rengo	Japanese Trade Union Confederation; JTUC; JTUC-Rengo 日本労働組合總聯合會; 聯合 [1989-]
Russell Tribunal on Vietnam	International War Crimes Tribunal on Vietnam [1967]
San Francisco Treaty	Treaty of Peace with Japan [1951]
SEATIC	South East Asia Translation and Interrogation Center [1943 or 1944-1946?]
South Korean-Japanese Claims Agreement	Agreement on the Settlement of Problem Concerning Property and Claims and the Economic Cooperation between the Republic of Korea and Japan; Agreement between Japan and the Republic of Korea Concerning the Settlement of Problems in Regard to Property and Claims and Economic Cooperation 大韓民國과 日本國間の 財産 및 請求權에 관한 問題의 解決과 經濟協力에 관한 協定; 韓日請求權協定; 財産及び請求權に関する問題の解決並びに經濟協力に関する日本國と大韓民國との間の協定; 日韓請求權並びに經濟協力協定 [1965]
South Seas Mandate	Japanese Mandate for the Governance of the South Seas Islands 日本委任統治領南洋群島; 南洋群島; 南洋諸島; 內南洋 [1920-1945]
STDs; VD s	sexually transmitted diseases; venereal diseases
Students' Tribunal	Students' Tribunal on Japan's Military Sexual Slavery in 2000 2000年日本軍性奴隸戰犯學生法廷 [2000]
Tokyo Chihyo	Tokyo Regional Council of Trade Unions 東京地方労働組合評議會; 東京地評 [1951-]
Treaty of Versailles	Treaty of Peace between the Allied and Associated Powers and Germany [1919]
UN	United Nations [1945-]
UN Commission on Human Rights	United Nations Commission on Human Rights; UNCHR [1946-2006]
UN Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women	United Nations Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women; CEDAW [1981-]
UN Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination	United Nations Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination; CERD [1970-]

UN Human Rights Committee	United Nations Human Rights Committee; UNHRC [1976-]
UN Human Rights Council	United Nations Human Rights Council; UNHRC [2006-]
UN Human Rights Council Advisory Committee	United Nations Human Rights Council Advisory Committee; UNHRCAC [2007-]
UN Special Rapporteur on Systematic Rape, Sexual Slavery and Slavery-like Practices during Armed Conflict	United Nations Special Rapporteur on the Situation of Systematic Rape, Sexual Slavery and Slavery-like Practices during Periods of Armed Conflict [1993-1995 or 1997]; United Nations Special Rapporteur on Systematic Rape, Sexual Slavery and Slavery-like Practices during Armed Conflict [1995 or 1997-2000]
UN Special Rapporteur on the Right to Reparation	United Nations Special Rapporteur on the Right to Restitution, Compensation and Rehabilitation for Victims of Gross Violations of Human Rights and Fundamental Freedoms [1989-1993]
UN Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women	United Nations Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women and Girls, Its Causes and Consequences [1994-]
UN Sub-Commission on Human Rights	United Nations Sub-Commission on the Promotion and Protection of Human Rights [1999-2006]
VAWW-Net Japan	Violence against Women in War Network Japan 「戦争と女性への暴力」日本ネットワーク; パウネット・ジャパン [1998-2011]
VAWW RAC	Violence against Women in War Research Action Center 「戦争と女性への暴力」リサーチ・アクション・センター; パウラック [2011-2021]
Zenroren	National Confederation of Trade Unions; NCTU 全国労働組合総連合; 全労連 [1989-]
Zenzosen	All Japan Shipbuilding and Engineering Union; AJSEU; SEU; Zenzosen Kikai 全日本造船機械労働組合; 全造船機械; 全造船 [1946-2016]

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Preface

Although it is an utterly unconscionable violation of the most basic human rights, females of diverse ages have been subjected to violence, especially of the sexual kind, by soldiers and militiamen during armed conflicts worldwide since time immemorial. It would be safe to say that awareness of the sheer gravity of the issue—and, indeed, of human rights themselves—has become strong enough to lead to the creation of various relevant laws and agencies, both domestic and international, only in the 20th century, which witnessed the destruction and carnage wreaked by no fewer than two world wars.

In relation to the last world war, one instance of such wartime sexual violation of women's human rights stands out in particular: Japanese military sexual slavery. This was the Japanese armed forces' uniquely systematic and coercive sexual enslavement of a vast number of girls and women for the "morale" of the soldiers during the nation's prolonged military expansion overseas encompassing the Second Sino-Japanese War 中日戰爭¹ (1937-1945) and the Pacific War (1941-1945). Consisting mainly of lower-class women from the Japanese empire's colonies and occupied territories in Asia, these victims of sexual exploitation were mobilized through diverse means including employment fraud and forced taking 強制連行 by civilians, police officers, and soldiers.

Euphemistically called the military "comfort women" system by the Japanese government, the very fact lay dormant for decades following

1 [Translator's note (henceforth "TN")] This is the customary Korean name for this war. Common designators for the historical event in Japanese and Chinese are 日中戦争 and 中國抗日戰爭, respectively.

World War II due to: Japan's intentional destruction and concealment of official documents both toward and since the end of the war and postwar denial of its legal responsibility for the creation and maintenance of the institution per se and forced transfer of women; the failure of the Allied Powers, especially the United States, fully to indict the former empire for its crimes immediately after the war and subsequently during the Cold War, thus raising the issue of impunity; and a patriarchal social climate that shamed and silenced the survivors, especially in the victim nations. Though the war itself had ended long before, Japanese military sexual slavery thus remained an unfinished ordeal, still all too real and raw for the survivors and their families.

It was only in 1991, when South Korean survivor Kim Hak-Soon 金學順 came forward and spoke up about her long-buried past, that the issue truly became public, notwithstanding a rather tenuous postwar current of social activism, studies, press coverage, memoirs, and artistic recreations in South Korea, Japan, and elsewhere. This courageous revelation was partly a fruit of continued efforts by South Korean women's movements working on violence against women, which discovered a commonality between the use of rape as a tool in the "ethnic cleansing" that was committed in Europe in the 1990s and Japanese military sexual slavery. In the fact that violence against women was not only an outcome but also an instrument of armed conflicts throughout the world including civil wars, they discovered the fundamental meaning of the Japanese empire's wartime sexual enslavement of women. Kim Hak-Soon's disclosure prompted other survivors around the globe to come forth as well, thus leading to the expansion of and cooperation within the movement to resolve the issue to Japan, other Asian victim nations, and the world.

Thanks to the endeavors of women's organizations, in the 1990s, the United Nations (UN) Sub-Commission on the Promotion and Protection of Human Rights (henceforth "Sub-Commission on Human Rights"; reformed as the UN Human Rights Council Advisory Committee (UNHRCAC) in 2007) started to discuss Japanese military sexual slavery in depth under the more general title of "systematic rape, sexual slavery and slavery-like practices during armed conflict," and the UN Commission on Human Rights (UNCHR; reformed as the

UN Human Rights Council (UNHRC) in 2006), too, dealt with this issue through the Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women and Girls, Its Causes and Consequences (henceforth “Special Rapporteur on Violence against Women”). The International Labour Organization (ILO) likewise discussed Japanese military sexual slavery as a violation of the Convention Concerning Forced or Compulsory Labour (ILO Convention No. 29; henceforth “Forced Labour Convention”), and, later, major UN treaty bodies including the UN Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (CEDAW; henceforth “Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women”), UN Human Rights Committee, and UN Committee on the Elimination of All Forms of Racial Discrimination (CERD; henceforth “Committee on the Elimination of Racial Discrimination”) also addressed the issue as a violation of their respective conventions. Having been horrified by the genocide of the Jewish people at the hands of the Nazis during World War II, the international community was greatly shocked by the fact that the issue of sexual slavery, a human rights violation on a comparable level, had occurred and, moreover, that it had been disclosed to the world only after 60 years. The global community agreed that the continued violation of women’s human rights in wartime stemmed from the failure strictly to convict such a tremendous human rights violation.

While it is increasingly common knowledge around the globe, Japanese military sexual slavery nevertheless remains an unresolved issue, and the historical fact itself has yet to be thoroughly elucidated. Many documents were destroyed, remaining ones have not been fully disclosed, and the Japanese government refuses to admit legal responsibility. Some say that we should stop holding onto this history after so many decades and move forward instead. However, the present and the future cannot stand firmly on a distorted past. Moreover, true reconciliation is possible only when the victims—with their honor restored and their hearts set at ease at last based on the Japanese government’s full disclosure of relevant materials, heartfelt official apology, material compensation, and inclusion of the history in public education—willingly hold out their hands first. In this respect, I am very happy to publish this volume, which is the English translation of *Military Sexual Slavery by Imperial Japan: Historical Realities and Social Movements for Resolution*

日本軍性奴隸制—日本軍慰安婦問題의 實像과 그 解決을 爲한 運動, a study that I published in Korean in 2004 and 2016 (both Seoul National University Press, with the latter a revision) and in Japanese, with updates, in 2008 (日本軍の性奴隸制—日本軍慰安婦問題の實像とその解決の爲の運動; Ronsosha Publishing Co., Ltd.), respectively. The continued, multilingual publication of this work reflects all the more the fact that Japanese military sexual slavery has come to be perceived as a human rights issue of not only Asia but also the world.

By training, I am a social scientist, who must endeavor to conduct objective analysis based on accurate materials. At the same time, I am an activist, who makes appeals to the international community including the UN regarding this issue, visiting other countries when necessary. Although I have striven to perform objective analysis in this book based on all documentary evidence obtainable and the testimonies of both victims and experiencers of the military comfort station system, a strong desire for human rights and peace will be evident at times. I hope and believe that readers who are pained by this issue will understand and empathize with glimpses of such a passion.

Since the publication of the original Korean edition in 2004, there have been many changes to the issue of Japanese military sexual slavery. A large number of materials such as military documents, photographs, and video recordings illuminating historical facts have been discovered, and, following the passing of a resolution on Japanese military sexual slavery in the US House of Representatives, legislatures in diverse countries and regions including the European Union (EU) have adopted similar resolutions. In nations such as Japan, South Korea, and United States, academic works and collections of commentaries on Japanese military sexual slavery have been published. In publishing this English translation, I have endeavored to reflect such changes.

A word of caution regarding the terminology is necessary here. The expression “comfort women 慰安婦,” first coined and consistently used by the Japanese to this day, is deeply problematic for numerous reasons. First, with the word “comfort 慰安” this euphemism simultaneously degrades women with its inherent sexism and phallocentrism and conceals the grim reality of sexual services forced on women, of both Japanese and foreign origins, by the Japanese military and private corporations for the

“morale” and “productivity” of their personnel until the end of World War II. In other words, in both presupposing and perpetuating exploitation on multiple levels—i.e., of women by men; of individual citizens by powerful collective bodies such as the government and private corporations; of civilians by the military; and of colonized/occupied peoples by colonizers/occupiers—the comfort women system was profoundly dehumanizing, which makes it all the more unjustifiable. In consideration of the historical reality and ideological implications, terms such as “sex slaves,” “sexual slavery,” “sexual slavery policies,” and “sexual slavery facilities” have been used together with “comfort women,” “comfort women system,” “comfort women policies,” and “comfort facilities” throughout this volume. Due to its cumbersome and rare use in English-language media, however, the expression “sexual slavery stations” has been dropped in favor of “comfort stations.” Nevertheless, all terms that include the word “comfort” should eventually be replaced by more accurate designators such as “sexual slavery” and “sex slaves.”

This work consists of three parts: historical facts, social movements, and theoretical discussions. Based on the latest, revised Korean, edition, this volume includes additional information in new subheadings and footnotes to reflect more recent developments regarding Japanese military sexual slavery and the movements to redress it both in South Korea and around the world. In the process, I have enlisted the help of Mr. Kim Yoo-suk, who studied English literature in the United States, as the translator. Working with a sense of personal dedication to the causes of peace and human rights, he has created the explanatory note on the translation and transliteration, translator’s notes, and list of abbreviations and updated the author’s notes and the index in addition to translating the entire book, all of which I have reviewed and approved. Providing partial support for the translation, Seoul National University Press has decided to publish this version. I would like to thank all of them.

Chung Chinsung

Part I

The Reality of the Issue of Japanese Military Sexual Slavery

 Chapter 1

The Concept of Japanese Military Sex Slaves

1. The Many Names for Japanese Military Sex Slaves

As the issue of Japanese military sexual slavery began to gain public attention in South Korean society at the end of the 1980s, the term “comfort women 慰安婦” led to considerable confusion. With public discussions on the fact that the Japanese authorities had forcibly taken innumerable Korean women during the Japanese colonial era (1910-1945) yet to begin and with the confused coexistence of concepts in the minds of the public such as the Volunteer Corps 挺身隊, supply of unmarried women to the government 處女供出, and Patriotic Corps 報國隊, this issue suddenly surfaced as that of the “Volunteer Corps.” Not only the press and the media including newspapers but also organizations created specifically to address the issue—for example, the Korean Chongshindae Research Group 韓國挺身隊研究會 (henceforth “Korean Research Group”; renamed the Korean Research Institute for the Women Drafted for Military Sexual Slavery by Japan 韓國挺身隊研究所 (henceforth “Korean Research Institute”) in 1997), Korean Council for the Women Drafted for Military Sexual Slavery by Japan 韓國挺身隊問題對策協議會¹ (挺對協; henceforth

1 [TN] In 2018, the Korean Council merged with the Foundation for Justice and Remembrance for the Issue of Military Sexual Slavery by Japan 日本軍性奴隸制問題解決을 爲한 正義記憶財團, which it had established in 2016 for the struggle to annul the 2015 agreement between Seoul and Tokyo on Japanese military sexual slavery, and was renamed the Korean Council for Justice and Remembrance for the Issue of Military Sexual Slavery by Japan 日本軍性奴隸制問題解決을 爲한 正義記憶連帶 (正義連).

“Korean Council”), etc.—alike used the term “Volunteer Corps” in Korean. At the same time in Japan, however, this issue began to attract public attention as that of “comfort women accompanying the military 從軍慰安婦.” The Women’s Labor Volunteer Corps 女子勤勞挺身隊² system, whereby unmarried women had been mobilized as munitions factory laborers, and the military comfort women system, whereby women had been mobilized as soldiers’ sex slaves, had been clearly separate in Japan in the 1940s. As a result, when this issue became a social one, the Japanese criticized the South Koreans for “ignorantly” failing to distinguish between the concepts of the Volunteer Corps and military comfort women. However, this, in fact, was ignorant criticism unaware of what had actually happened in colonial Korea during the period. Nevertheless, daunted by such criticism, members of South Korean society—most of whom probably were hearing the term “comfort women accompanying the military” for the first time—including even organizations created specifically to address this issue suddenly began to waver between the concepts of the Volunteer Corps and “comfort women accompanying the military,” finally settling on the term “Japanese military comfort women 日本軍慰安婦.”

The Japanese armed forces’ comfort women system thus led to confusion in the terminology because this system had been implemented clandestinely without being discussed officially, mentioned only surreptitiously. Moreover, “military comfort women 軍慰安婦” had not been an official term used in proclaimed laws such as the Ordinance on Women’s Voluntary Labor 女子挺身勤勞令³ but had been a term used sporadically in Japanese military documents together with others such as “shameful female workers 醜業婦,” “female workers 從業婦,” and “bar

In order to avoid confusion, however, all future references to the organization will use its older name.

- 2 [TN] Though this was the official designation, the institution has been known also as 女子挺身勤勞隊, or “Women’s Volunteer Labor Corps.” Both the erroneous but widespread Japanese name and its English translation—and, by extension, the terms 挺身勤勞隊 and “Volunteer Labor Corps”—are included in the index to aid readers of this volume.
- 3 [TN] Though this was the official designation, the law has been known also as 女子勤勞挺身令, or “Ordinance on Women’s Labor Volunteering.” Both the erroneous but widespread Japanese name and its English translation are included in the index to aid readers.

This book addresses both the historical reality of Japanese military sexual slavery and the social movements to resolve the issue. On the basis mainly of Japanese military documents and survivors' testimonies, it reconstructs the concept of military sexual slavery, the process through which military "comfort stations" were established, and the social structural background and reality of the institution. In addition, this volume examines the process through which the movement to resolve Japanese military sexual slavery, begun by women's movements in South Korea, spread to Japan, Asia, and civil society organizations in the West, the raising of the issue at international organs such as the UN and the ILO, cooperation with North Korea, and the responses of the Japanese government and NGOs to this issue. It also deals with the overall reality of corporate sexual slavery, which Japan implemented from the late 1930s, and the Women's Labor Volunteer Corps in the context of Japanese military sexual slavery. As elucidated in the first, Korean-language, edition of this work, facts and materials regarding the issue continue to be unearthed even today so that its resolution likewise remains incomplete. With official resolution including legal compensations and apologies to the victims and the punishment of the liable parties still utterly unfulfilled, the restoration of the victims' honor and dignity has progressed on the psychological and mental level through the efforts of civil society. This book must be ceaselessly revised and supplemented in accordance with the discovery of new facts and the development of social movements and, as such, is still in the making.



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