

Background Guide

The Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference

**GatorMUN XVII**

Honorable Delegates,

I would like to personally welcome you to GatorMUN XVII, The Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference Specialized Assembly. My name is Devin Ritter, I am a senior (4th year) studying both Materials Science/Engineering and International Studies: Europe track here at the University of Florida. This is my fourth year with GatorMUN and the University of Florida Model United Nations club. Last year, I was one of the first specialized assembly directors, directing "Der Zwölfte Deutsche Bundestag" (The 12th German Federal Parliament). I am very excited to be back directing again this year.

My interest in this topic comes from my area of study, but also from the intrigue of the institution itself. The Commonwealth of Nations exists still to this day, which I find a very peculiar, but nevertheless interesting existence. Comprised of former colony states and the colonizer, the United Kingdom, it is an altogether odd assortment, especially when you consider how much land the United Kingdom used to hold and how different these lands were from the United Kingdom.

The committee takes place in January of 1969, the last of the Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference (the Commonwealth still exists, and they still meet; they just decided to change the name and who comes to it). It was the largest Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference to take place and featured discussions over topics mostly pertaining to the African continent such as the Biafra crisis, the rogue colony of Rhodesia, and the discrimination against South Asian communities in Africa. It is also a time in which the former colonies began to demand more from the United Kingdom and from the Commonwealth power structure itself.

I look forward to working with all of you and I hope that everyone comes prepared to every day of committee, so that we can have an intelligent, enthusiastic, and fair debate. If you have any questions or concerns, do not hesitate to contact me at GatorMUN@gmail.com. I wish you luck in your research, I hope you find everything you need to be successful in committee, and I am excited to meet all of you and have a great GatorMUN XVII.

Sincerely,

Devin Ritter

Director

The Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference

Quorum

A majority of voting members answering to the roll at each session shall constitute a quorum for that session. This means that half plus one of all voting members are present. Quorum will be assumed consistent unless questioned through a Point of Order. Delegates may request to be noted as "Present" or "Present and Voting."

Motion to Open Debate

This opens the floor for debate, allowing other points or motions.

Motion to Set the Agenda

This motion determines the order in which the topics of a committee will be debated. Permission to speak will be accorded to one speaker for and one speaker against, and a two-thirds majority is required for the motion to pass.

Motion to Open the Speaker's List

Opening the Speaker's List requires a simple majority to pass. A delegate may only be present on the Speaker's List once, but may re-enter after he/she has spoken. If the Speaker's List expires, debate then closes.

Motion to Set Speaking Time

Speaking Time must be indicated by this motion from the floor before any members of the body may speak on the Speaker's List. This motion must also accompany any motion for a Moderated Caucus. In a Motion to Set Speaking Time for the formal Speaker's List, a delegate may also specify a number of questions or comments to automatically affix to the Speaking Time. These designated questions or comments may also have Speaking Time or Response Time (in the case of a question) limits, but these are not required. The Director may rule any Motion to Set Speaking Time dilatory. This motion requires a simple majority. Any delegate may make this motion between formal speakers in an effort to change the Speaking Time.

Motion to Close the Speaker's List

The Speaker's List may be closed upon a motion from the floor. Permission to speak will be accorded to one speaker for and one speaker against, and a two-thirds majority is required for the motion to pass.

Motion to Suspend the Rules for the Purpose of a Moderated Caucus

This motion must include three specifications:

- a. Length of the Caucus
- b. Speaking time, and
- c. Reason for the Caucus.

During a moderated caucus, delegates will be called on to speak by the Committee Director. Delegates will raise their placards to be recognized. Delegates must maintain the same degree of decorum throughout a Moderated Caucus as in formal debate. This motion requires a simple majority to pass.

Motion to Suspend the Rules for the Purpose of an Unmoderated Caucus

This motion must include the length of the Caucus. During an unmoderated caucus, delegates may get up from their seats and talk amongst themselves. This motion requires a simple majority to pass. The length of an unmoderated caucus should never exceed twenty minutes.

Motion to Suspend the Meeting

This motion is in order if there is a scheduled break in debate to be observed. (ie. Lunch!) This motion requires a simple majority vote. The Committee Director may refuse to entertain this motion at their discretion.

Motion to Adjourn the Meeting

This motion is in order at the end of the last committee session. It signifies the closing of the committee until next year's conference.

Motion to Table the Topic

If a delegate believes that the flow of debate has become stagnant, he/she may make this motion. To Table the Topic is to halt debate on the present Topic, save the speakers' list and all draft resolutions, and move on to the next Topic on the Agenda. The delegate making this motion may also choose to specify a previously tabled Topic. This motion requires a two-thirds vote to pass. The Topic may be returned to at any time by tabling the present Topic and adding the phrase "for the purpose of returning to Tabled Topic _____," to this motion. If no Topics have been previously tabled, debate must follow the established Agenda. This motion is to be used sparingly.

Points of Order

Points of Order will only be recognized for the following items:

- a) To recognize errors in voting, tabulation, or procedure,
- b) To question relevance of debate to the current Topic or
- c) To question a quorum.

A Point of Order may interrupt a speaker if necessary and it is to be used sparingly.

Points of Inquiry

When there is no discussion on the floor, a delegate may direct a question to the Committee Director. Any question directed to another delegate may only be asked immediately after the delegate has finished speaking on a substantive matter. A delegate that declines to respond to a question after a formal speech forfeits any further questioning time. The question must conform to the following format:

Delegate from Country A raises placard to be recognized by the Committee Director.

Committee Director: "To what point do you rise?"

Country A: "Point of Inquiry."

Committee Director: "State your Point."

Country A: "Will the delegate from Country B (who must have just concluded a substantive speech) yield to a question?"

Committee Director: "Will the Delegate Yield?"

Country B: "I will" or "I will not" (if not, return to the next business item)

Country A asks their question (it must not be a rhetorical question.)

Country B may choose to respond or to decline.
If the Delegate from Country B does not yield to or chooses not to answer a question from Country A, then he/she yields all remaining questioning time to the Committee Director.

Points of Personal Privilege

Points of personal privilege are used to request information or clarification and conduct all other business of the body except Motions or Points specifically mentioned in the Rules of Procedure.

Please note: The Director may refuse to recognize Points of Order, Points of Inquiry or Points of Personal Privilege if the Committee Director believes the decorum and restraint inherent in the exercise has been violated, or if the point is deemed dilatory in nature.

Rights of Reply

At the Committee Director's discretion, any member nation or observer may be granted a Right of Reply to answer serious insults directed at the dignity of the delegate present. The Director has the ABSOLUTE AUTHORITY to accept or reject Rights of Reply, and the decision IS NOT SUBJECT TO APPEAL. Delegates who feel they are being treated unfairly may take their complaint to any member of the Secretariat.

Friendly Amendments

Friendly Amendments are any changes to a formally introduced Directive that *all* Sponsors agree to in writing. The Committee Director must approve the Friendly Amendment and confirm each Sponsor's agreement both verbally and in writing.

Unfriendly Amendments

Unfriendly Amendments are any substantive changes to a formally introduced Directive that are not agreed to by all of the Sponsors of the Directive. In order to introduce an Unfriendly Amendment, the Unfriendly Amendment must have the number equivalent to 1/3 of Quorum confirmed signatories. The Committee Director has the authority to discern between substantive and nonsubstantive Unfriendly amendment proposals.

Plagiarism

GatorMUN maintains a zero-tolerance policy in regards to plagiarism. Delegates found to have used the ideas of others without properly citing those individuals, organizations, or documents will have their credentials revoked for the duration of the GatorMUN conference. This is a very serious offense.

Motion to Close Debate and Voting Procedures

A motion to close debate may only pass with a two-thirds majority. Once this motion passes, and the committee enters Voting Procedure, no occupants of the committee room may exit the Committee Room, and no individual may enter the Committee Room from the outside. A member of the Dias will secure all doors.

Once moving into voting procedures chair can only accept these motions:

- A point of order to correct an error in procedure
- An appeal of the decision of the chair
- A motion for division

- A motion for roll call vote
- A motion for adoption by acclamation
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No talking, passing notes, or communicating of any kind will be tolerated during voting procedures.

Each Draft Resolution will be read to the body and voted upon in the order which they were introduced. Any Proposed Unfriendly Amendments to each Draft Resolution will be read to the body and voted upon before the main body of the Draft Resolution as a whole is put to a vote. The Committee will adopt Directives and Unfriendly Amendments to Directives if these documents pass with a simple majority. Specialized committees should refer to their background guides or Committee Directors for information concerning specific voting procedures. Unless otherwise specified by the Secretariat, each Committee may pass as many resolutions as it agrees are necessary to efficiently address the Topic

Delegates who requested to be noted as "Present and Voting" are unable to abstain during voting procedure. Abstentions will not be counted in the tallying of a majority. For example, 5 yes votes, 4 no votes, and 7 abstentions means that the Directive passes.

Roll Call Voting

A counted placard vote will be considered sufficient unless any delegate to the committee motions for a Roll Call Vote. If a Roll Call Vote is requested, the committee must comply. All delegates must vote: "For," "Against," "Abstain," or "Pass."

During a Roll Call vote, any delegate who answers, "Pass," reserves his/her vote until the Committee Director has exhausted the Roll. However, once the Committee Director returns to "Passing" Delegates, they must vote: "For" or "Against."

Voting with Rights

During a Roll Call vote delegates may vote "For with Rights" or "Against with Rights." Delegates will be granted 30 seconds to explain their reasons for voting for or against a draft resolution. This time will come after the tabulation of votes.

Delegates should use this option sparingly. It is meant for delegates who feel that their vote may seem off policy, despite it being correct. The acceptance of rights is up to the director's discretion. If a speaker goes off topic during their allotted time the director will rule their speech dilatory and move to the next motion in order.

Accepting by Acclamation

This motion may be stated when the Committee Director asks for points or motions. If a Roll Call Vote is requested, the motion to Accept by Acclamation is voided. If a delegate believes a Directive will pass without opposition, he or she may move to accept the Directive by acclamation. The motion passes unless a single delegate shows opposition. An abstention is not considered opposition. Should the motion fail, the committee will move directly into a Roll Call Vote.

Changes to Parliamentary Procedures

Communiqués

In this committee, communiqués shall serve in place of resolutions or directives

1. Communiqués may include the body's opinion on certain topics, advice for the rest of the world, pledges to utilize resources, requests of other nations, or any matter of subjects
2. Communiqués may not include any action or words which were not in the agreement of all those who are signed to a communiqué
3. There shall be no voting on communiqués in the body as a whole, as no country in the Commonwealth holds sovereignty or power over another
 - As such, those in agreement with a communiqué shall sign off on a communiqué as a signatory
 - Those who have written the communiqué shall be regarded as sponsors
4. There may be no more than 3 sponsors on a single communiqué
5. Sponsors may make changes to a communiqué when all sponsors agree, but there shall be no formal amendment process to communiqués otherwise. A changed communiqué will be regarded as a new communiqué
 - Although there is not voting on communiqués, they must be introduced prior to being sent off, as the information on the communiqué must surely have come from the open forum of the Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference
 - In order to submit a communiqué, a motion to submit a communiqué must be made
 1. A motion to submit a communiqué shall be considered more disruptive than a moderated caucus, but less disruptive than an unmoderated caucus
 2. All those who have their names signed to a communiqué, be it sponsor or signatory, must agree to pass the communiqué
 3. Once a motion to submit a communiqué has passed by a simple majority of the room, there shall be time for a maximum of 5 speakers to give a 30 second speech airing their grievances with the communiqué
 4. Once the 5 or less speakers have spoken, the chair shall ask if there are any signatories or sponsors who then disagree with the communiqué
 - If there are none, the communiqué shall be submitted to the press
 - If there are any, the communiqué shall be returned to a sponsor and must be submitted again in the form of a new communiqué

Resources

In this committee, delegates are acting heads of states for their respective nations, and as such have the ability to pledge manpower, resources, wealth, or other things under their purview towards a cause

1. Resources are limited and specific to the delegate. Once a resource has been pledged in a communiqué, that resource will act as if it is no longer in the possession of the delegate, so choose your causes wisely
 - Resources pledged in communiqués can be pledged by either sponsor or signatory
 - Any resources pledged in a communiqué must be attributed to an individual and said individual must be present on either the sponsor or signatory list
2. In the event that a delegate runs out of resources, a delegate may attempt to write a request for resources to their home government and, at their home government's discretion, be granted additional resources
 - These requests should be detailed, persuasive, and passionate
 - These requests are a last case scenario for world leaders

- These requests should be directed towards the delegate's respective legislature or oversight body of their home nation
3. Resources may not be stolen, traded, or gifted between delegates, but informal agreements with regards to communiques is allowed

General Assembly Parliamentary Procedures

1. Aside from the changes to the Resolution Process (replacing it with communiques and removal of the voting process), all General Assembly parliamentary procedures shall be followed
2. Normal debate may be interrupted for updates from the press, public opinion, or other events
3. There shall be no crisis notes utilized in committee aside from a request for resources

Introduction to the Commonwealth of Nations

The Commonwealth of Nations is a voluntary association of countries that either share a similar culture, history, or language, but these are not requirements to join the Commonwealth. Proof of this exists in the newest members to the Commonwealth, Rwanda and Mozambique, neither of which have ties to the British empire. The word “voluntary” is very important in Commonwealth language, as it is a key point that the Commonwealth does not have power over the individual members states. It may pressure them to act in one way or another, but it cannot tell them what to do. The modern-day Commonwealth of Nations consists of 53 sovereign nations, with a majority of these states being small island nations. The primary existence of the commonwealth is to bring about cooperation between the member states in order to benefit each of the members, especially the smaller nations, with things such as development, democratization, infrastructure, financial development, and much more.



Figure : Her Majesty Queen Elizabeth II

The Commonwealth itself is headed by Queen Elizabeth II and has an additional head in the form of the Commonwealth Secretary General. All states within the Commonwealth must recognize Queen Elizabeth II as the head of the Commonwealth, but it is not a requirement for each nation to recognize her as their monarch. As such, Queen Elizabeth II is the monarch of only 16 of the 53 Commonwealth nations. Aside from these two figures, the Commonwealth has multiple intergovernmental organizations that lead action and resources. The Commonwealth also has organizations that are accredited and associated with the Commonwealth that may not be present throughout all Commonwealth nations. For example, the African Centre for Democracy and Human Rights Studies operates exclusively within the continent of Africa, but it is accredited by and associated with the Commonwealth of Nations.

In many ways, the Commonwealth is similar to the United Nations, although without the ability to make similar binding agreements. For instance, the United Nations Security Council may decide that they must send peacekeepers into a member state and if they agree, this action happens regardless of the member state agreeing to it or not. For the Commonwealth of Nations, this cannot happen. If a member of the Commonwealth violates the principles or politics of the Commonwealth, the nation must first be removed from the Commonwealth before any action can be taken such as sending in ground troops. However, the Commonwealth may make suggestions and attempt to persuade the dissenting state, as long as they are not directly infringing upon their sovereignty.

Although this is all representative of the Commonwealth of Nations in the modern day, the actual operation of the Commonwealth has changed significantly over time. From its conception to today, the Commonwealth has shifted its power dynamics, its focus, and its goals in order to suit the current environment. Today, the Commonwealth recognizes equal power between all nations within the organization, but that was not always the case. Additionally, the current Commonwealth goals focus around the environment, development, democratization, young people, and financial development, but this is not what the Commonwealth has always stood for.

Background to the 1969 Conference

History of the Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference

The Commonwealth of Nations was founded in 1949 by the London Declaration, recognizing then-leader of the United Kingdom, King George VI. Although this was the official founding of the Commonwealth of Nations, it existed in a similar capacity as the Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference starting in 1944. The British government held meetings even earlier than this, known as the colonial and imperial conferences, but the Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference started the treatment of other nations as equal, sovereign states. The origins of the 1944 Prime Ministers' Conference are mostly within the context of World War II.

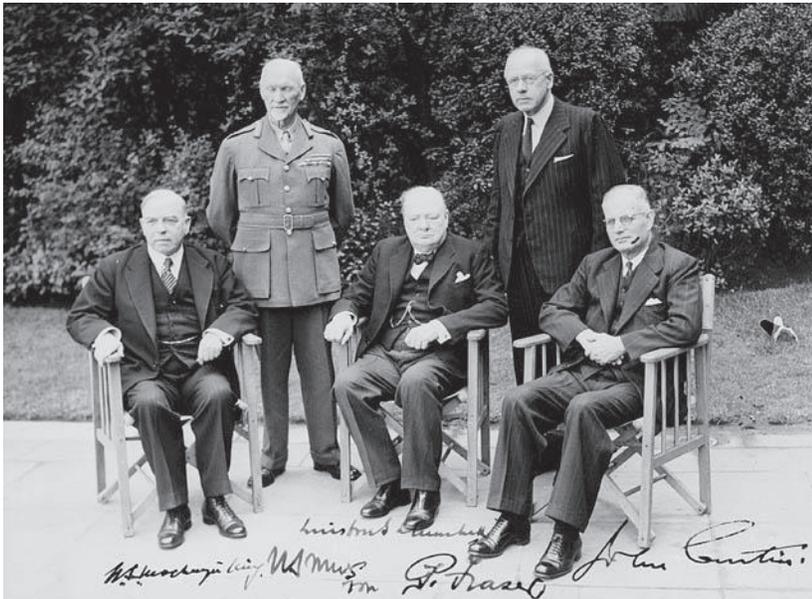


Figure : 1944 Leaders of Australia, Britain, Canada, New Zealand, and South Africa

In May of 1944, World War II was about one year from ending, but the end was not entirely certain with D-Day (Invasion of France at Normandy) set to happen in one month's time. As such, the United Kingdom called upon the first Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference to coordinate the resources of the current and previous British imperial nations towards the war.

The first Prime Ministers' Conference saw only 7 member nations: The United Kingdom, Australia, Canada, India, New Zealand, South Africa, and Southern Rhodesia. Even with the 7 nations in attendance, the conference was dominated by British politicians, leaders, and generals, with the United

Kingdom having 24 of the 39 delegates in attendance. Although the Conference did not provide as much recognition for the other nations of the British Commonwealth as some of the states may have liked, it did begin the semi-regular meetings of the heads of states of these nations to speak on world affairs, collective action, and forcing the United Kingdom to further recognize the sovereignty, power, and legitimacy of the Commonwealth nations, including more small and non-Western states.

As time went on, the Commonwealth prime ministers would convene a total of 17 times, with the last meeting being the 1969 Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference. Each conference saw a rise in more members, from a starting point of 7 nations, to the 1969 member number of 28 nations. The 1969 Conference was not the end of the Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference, but rather a transition to a more equal representation for the member states in the form of the Commonwealth Secretariat and associated governing Commonwealth bodies.

Lead Up to the 1969 Conference



Figure : Heads of State at the 1969 Conference

The previous years' Prime Ministers' Conferences saw a rise in recognition of non-Western states in the Commonwealth and as such, it was expected that the 1969 Conference would give way to groundbreaking levels of equality between states as the number of participants exploded from just 10 years prior. In fact, the 1969 Conference was set to be the largest collection of heads of state from across the globe since the signing of the United Nations Charter.

There were numerous issues arising leading into this specific Conference, which was a strong change from previous years' Conferences. In the past, a Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference was dominated by a singular issue, usually pertaining to the interests of the United Kingdom. In 1969, however, issues focused outside of just the United Kingdom and involved a greater number of Commonwealth members. Some of the issues included the rogue colony of Rhodesia, the Biafran Civil War, and the recognition of Commonwealth members as states equal to the United Kingdom. There were many more issues covered in the duration of the Conference and these will be covered in the topics section.

The Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference covers a wide variety of topics and has no real limitations on what is allowed to be discussed. As such, a list of all topics that were covered historically by the 1969 Conference shall be given with several of the largest topics covered in full detail. Additionally, delegates may bring forth any pertinent topics for discussion that they find in their research as long as the room agrees to discuss said topic.

Several of the smaller topics include: the effectiveness of international organizations and associations, the Commonwealth and regional cooperation, the Guyana-Venezuela territory dispute, the recent independence of small States, the Eighteen Nation Disarmament Committee, nuclear disarmament, resources and resource utilization with regards to the sea bed, South Africa, Portugal and its colonies, migration between commonwealth countries, worldwide economic trends, and the International Monetary Fund. Again, these are topics that were historically covered by the Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference, but any topics that are pertinent to the Commonwealth may be addressed.

Rhodesia Crisis



Figure : A Map of Africa Including Northern Rhodesia, Southern Rhodesia, and Nyasaland

Origins of Rhodesia:

Rhodesia originated as a British colony in south-central Africa in the 1880's, exploited for gold, copper, and coal resources. It was originally ruled by the British South Africa Company, controlled by Cecil Rhodes (of whom the colony is named after). The colony was ruled through the import of British settlers to Rhodesia in a similar fashion as Canada or Australia. This created a white minority ruling class in Rhodesia, which relied on special treatment for the white inhabitants of Rhodesia. In 1911, the colony was divided into Northern Rhodesia and Southern Rhodesia, though they eventually became Zambia and Zimbabwe respectively. Southern Rhodesia would then see itself invited to the Imperial and Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conferences.

Out of a desire to reduce the costs of administration, Britain pushed for three colonies to form a federation within south-central Africa. These three colonies were Nyasaland, Northern Rhodesia, and Southern Rhodesia.

Although the three were eventually joined together to form the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, Northern Rhodesia and Nyasaland had strong apprehensions for forming a federation including Southern Rhodesia because of the strict racial segregation present in Southern Rhodesia. This federation did not last long however, and following the independence of Ghana, the three states within the federation demanded their independence from Britain.

Of the three, only two were granted independence. In 1964, Northern Rhodesia achieved in-

dependence and became the modern-day country of Zambia, while Nyasaland became the modern-day country of Malawi. This ended the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, leaving Southern Rhodesia as the only dependent colony left. Britain cited the unwillingness of Southern Rhodesia to accept majority rule as the basis for its denial of independence of Southern Rhodesia. At the time, Southern Rhodesia was still ruled by a minority group of white, previously British colonists and they refused to relinquish control of the colony over to the majority of Southern Rhodesia's inhabitants. Southern Rhodesia remained a dependent colony for only one year under the new name of Rhodesia before the crisis occurred.

Independence (The Crisis):

On November 11th, 1965, the prime minister of Rhodesia Ian Smith declared independence from Britain. The action was done without the consent of the British government, following failed negotiations for the black majority population of Rhodesia to be given a fair share of power within the state. Ian Smith cited defense against Afro-Asian communists as a reason for declaring independence, however the independence movement amongst the white minority ruling class was littered with racist sentiments and the nearly explicit goal of maintaining the subjugation of nearly 96% of the population of the country. Immediately following the declaration of independence, Rhodesia was denounced by both Britain and the United Nations.



Ian Smith's government presented the Unilateral Declaration of Independence, an article based largely off of the United States' Declaration of Independence. However, several crucial pieces were missing from this document: that all men were created equal and that government required the consent of the governed. Ian Smith's government

also declared Queen Elizabeth II the monarch of Rhodesia and although they were no longer a direct colony of Britain, they still viewed themselves as a member of the Commonwealth. Following this declaration, Britain attempted to have the then governor of Rhodesia, Sir Humphrey Gibbs, dismiss Ian Smith from power and declare that all citizens of Rhodesia ignore the illegitimate authority of Smith's cabinet, calling upon the military to maintain order within Rhodesia under British control. This went unheeded however, as strict media censorship kept the message from getting to the Rhodesian public in time.

The aftermath of the independence declaration was extreme economic sanctions placed on Rhodesia as well as several embargoes primarily enforced by the Royal Navy. Rhodesia was removed from the Sterling Zone, defaulted on its debts to Britain, and had its assets seized. Additionally, the next day, the United Nations adopted Resolution 216, condemning the Rhodesian independence, encouraging nations to not recognize the state and engage in any political or economic agreements, essentially putting economic sanctions on the apartheid state. Ian Smith effectively removed all the powers afforded to the failsafe that was supposed to be Sir Humphrey Gibbs who remains at his post in Rhodesia despite having been stripped of power.

From 1965 to Today (1969):

One of the largest developments in the situation with Rhodesia is the United Nations Security Council imposing mandatory economic sanctions on Rhodesia. Taking effect in 1966 and being expanded in 1968, this marked the first time the United Nations would act against a state. The sanctions themselves were only partially successful, as some strategic resources such as chromium were able to be exported to buyers in Europe and North America.



Figure : Robert Mugabe and Joshua Nkomo

Another development in Rhodesia is the ongoing Rhodesian Bush War. Until 1964, there had been mostly civil disobedience movements attempting to gain power in Rhodesia. Then in 1964, the Smith government detained Joshua Nkomo, leader of the Zimbabwe African People's Union (ZAPU), and Robert Mugabe, a leader of the Zimbabwe African National Union (ZANU). Following the Unilateral Declaration of Independence, hostilities in Rhodesia intensified with the first major engagement occurring in 1966.

There are three major belligerents in the conflict located within Rhodesia. The first is the Rhodesian government's security forces, supporting the minority government of Rhodesia in the war. Although they are economically cut off from a majority of the globe, they receive aid and assistance from the apartheid South African government, including assistance from the para-military British South Africa Police. The second major belligerent is the Zimbabwe African National Liberation Army (ZANLA), which is the armed portion of ZANU. ZANLA receives support from the People's Republic of China and North Korea, as well as small support and housing from Tanzania. ZANLA operates on direct confrontation with the Rhodesian security forces and with as much aid as they receive from the People's Republic of China, they tend to fall in line with Maoist ideologies. The third major belligerent is the Zimbabwe People's Revolutionary Army (ZIPRA), which is the armed portion of ZAPU. ZAPU receives support from the Soviet Union and Eastern Germany as well as being based in or along Zambia. ZAPU is also supported by the Communist Party of Great Britain.

At this point in the war, all three factions are competing for dominance, with the Rhodesian security forces supporting the minority government and currently keeping it in charge of the entire state. Both ZANLA and ZIPRA are fighting to overthrow the minority government, but they are not always working in conjunction, occasionally fighting each other in an attempt to ensure dominance once the minority government is overthrown.

Biafran War

The Biafran War, also known as the Nigerian Civil War or the Nigeria-Biafra War, is an ongoing conflict that began in October of 1967, when the Igbo people of Eastern Nigeria declared independence and created the state of Biafra against the wishes of the Nigerian government, which sought to create a unified Nigeria free of ethnic divides.

Background to Independence:



Figure : The Republic of Biafra (Light Tan)

The state of Biafra was suggested to have existed prior to European colonialism in Africa, but during the colonial era of Africa, the British rulers combined multiple regions, groups, and a number of differing ethnicities into one region to ease their administration of the area. This area became known as Nigeria and gained its independence from Britain in 1960. The original Biafra consisted primarily of the Igbo ethnicity which had since spread out over the entirety of the area now known as Nigeria, but still had a large stronghold in Eastern Nigeria, the site of the previous Biafra state.

In 1966, a small group of primarily Igbo Nigerian military officers attempted a failed military coup, which resulted in the death of

several politicians in Northern Nigeria. Following this failed coup, fears over the Igbo people attempting to seize control of all of Nigeria resulted in a counter coup that targeted Igbo people throughout Northern Nigeria. This indiscriminate killing of Igbo people caused many of the Igbo throughout the North, West, and South to flee to Eastern Nigeria where they still held a majority of the population. The extent of the involvement of the Nigerian government and military in these killings is up for dispute. Shortly after this migration, Igbo military general Emeka Ojukwu declared independence for Eastern Nigeria, creating the Republic of Biafra.

From 1967 to Today (1969):

Immediately following the independence of Biafra, the Nigerian government began a blockade of the entire region, which had led to massive famines and a severe reduction of living conditions in Biafra. Biafran leaders have been very good so far as gathering international humanitarian support due to the actions of the Nigerian government forces, but both sides have their support. Nigeria is supported by Egypt, the Soviet Union, the United States, Israel, Bulgaria, Ethiopia, Senegal, Somalia, Cameroon, Niger, Algeria, Syria, and Saudi Arabia. Biafra is supported by France, China, West Germany, also Israel, Portugal, Spain, the Holy See, South Africa, Rhodesia, Haiti, Gabon, and the Ivory Coast. Although Biafra receives support in many different forms from quite a few nations, it is currently only recognized by Gabon, Haiti, the Ivory Coast, Tanzania, and Zambia.

For the past year, the war has been primarily a stalemate between the Nigerian and Biafran forces after the Biafrans had lost a significant amount of land in the initial offensives by the Nigerian forces. Going forward, it appears that Nigeria is posed to make another offensive against the Republic of Biafra. The actions of the Nigerian forces have constituted genocide in the eyes of the Igbo people, helping to fuel their drive to have the independent state of Biafra and encourage international organizations and nations to give humanitarian aid and support to Biafra.

State Enfranchisement

As time goes on, more of Britain's former colonies are gaining formal independence and make

the decision to take part in the Commonwealth of Nations. As stated before, the original purpose of the Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference was to help Britain coordinate resources for the war effort during World War II, but that vision has changed and evolved as time has passed and more states gain their independence and join the Commonwealth. Now, the goals of the Commonwealth focus on the Commonwealth as a whole, advancing their collective interests and working to develop recently independent nations. The Commonwealth has recently developed the Commonwealth Secretariat to handle governmental relations of the Commonwealth and the Commonwealth Foundation to handle non-governmental relations of the Commonwealth. Although these creations reduce the power of Britain over the entirety of the Commonwealth, they succeeded in their creation.

The creation of these two institutions and the growth of Commonwealth nations throughout the 1950's and 1960's has decentralized the power within the Commonwealth. The addition of new members has also caused many members to think of how to reform the Commonwealth and its meetings in order to bring more equality to all of the members, weakening the control of certain members over others, and promoting an environment of cooperation between many different states with a shared history. Members of the Commonwealth have to ask themselves, is this the best solution for the Commonwealth's operations or is there something better? Will there be a Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference in London in the following years, or will there be something entirely different?

Questions for Delegates to Consider

1. How does your nation and position feel about civil conflicts in other states?
2. What level of international involvement is desired by your country?
3. What does your country desire out of the Commonwealth of Nations? Are they looking for a trade network, development funds, international recognition, legitimacy?
4. Where does your position stand on common dichotomies such as nationalist vs. globalist, capitalist vs. communist, authoritarian vs. democratic?
5. How does your position want the power balance of the Commonwealth of Nations to change?

Prime Minister John Gorton (Australia)

John Gorton is the 19th Australian prime minister. He was educated at Oxford University and is the leader of the Australian Liberal Party. He also served as a fighter pilot in the Australian Air Force during World War II.

Economic Resources: 17,577.6 million pounds

Military Personnel: 47,900

Prime Minister Errol Barrow (Barbados)

Errol Barrow is the first prime minister of Barbados. He served as a navigator in the Royal Air Force during World War II and studied Law and Economics at the Inns of Court and the London School of Economics respectively.

Economic Resources: 73.9 million pounds

Military Personnel: 0

President Seretse Khama (Botswana)

Seretse Khama is the first president of Botswana. He founded the Botswana Democratic Party and led their independence movement. He was also educated in both South Africa and the United Kingdom and took a British wife.

Economic Resources: 37.1 million pounds

Military Personnel: 920

Prime Minister Harold Wilson (Britain)

Harold Wilson is the prime minister under Queen Elizabeth II and a leader in the Labour Party. He was a moderate socialist and during World War II served in the civil service rather than military service.

Economic Resources: 54,084.9 million pounds

Military Personnel: 273,300

Prime Minister Pierre Trudeau (Canada)

Pierre Trudeau is the 15th prime minister of Canada and the leader of the Canadian Liberal Party. He studied Law in Canada and served in the Canadian army during World War II, although he was a stark anti-conscriptionist and viewed the war as settling scores between superpowers.

Economic Resources: 37,386.2 million pounds

Military Personnel: 92,500

Prime Minister Dudley Senanayake (Ceylon)

Dudley Senanayake is the second prime minister of Ceylon and a democratic socialist. He had a pro-western alignment and focused on agricultural and education reform. He was educated in both Ceylon and at Cambridge in Britain.

Economic Resources: 943.9 million pounds

Military Personnel: 9,900

President Makarios III (Cyprus)

Makarios III is both the first president of Cyprus and the Archbishop and Primate of the Church of Cyprus. He did not serve in World War II, choosing instead to study theology in Athens, Greece and Boston, United States. He survived four assassination attempts and a coup d'état.

Economic Resources: 287.3 million pounds

Military Personnel: 775

Prime Minister Dawda Jawara (The Gambia)

Dawda Jawara is the first prime minister of The Gambia and a veterinarian surgeon. He studied in both Ghana and Britain. He is also the leader of The Gambia's People's Progressive Party and led the independence movement in The Gambia.

Economic Resources: 21.6 million pounds

Military Personnel: 153

Deputy Chairman of the National Liberation Council Joseph Arthur Ankrah (Ghana)

Joseph Arthur Ankrah is the second president of Ghana and first commander of the Army of Ghana. He was at first dismissed from the army on suspicion of involvement in a coup plot but was later reinstated and given high authority after a successful coup d'état.

Economic Resources: 941.8 million pounds

Military Personnel: 21,000

Prime Minister Forbes Burnham (Guyana)

Forbes Burnham is the first prime minister of Guyana and a strong nationalist. He is one of the leaders of the People's Progressive Party in Guyana and was educated in Economics in London. He is regarded as a strongman.

Economic Resources: 119.5 million pounds

Military Personnel: 1,200

Prime Minister Indira Gandhi (India)

Indira Gandhi is the first and only female prime minister of India. She was educated in a variety of locations, most notably the International School of Geneva, the University of Mumbai, and Oxford University. She was a strong proponent for the centralization of Indian power and took a strong military stance against Pakistan.

Economic Resources: 27,680.6 million pounds

Military Personnel: 1,300,000

Prime Minister Hugh Shearer (Jamaica)

Hugh Shearer is the third prime minister of Jamaica. He studied Law and worked as a journalist. He tried to keep the peace with the general working population of Jamaica as leader of the Jamaica Labour Party, but sometimes came into conflict with them, such as when he banned Walter Rodney from reentering the country.

Economic Resources: 571.7 million pounds

Military Personnel: 1,700

Minister of Finance James Gichuru (Kenya)

James Gichuru is a minister for Kenya in several regards such as Finance and Defense. He was a founder of the Kenya African National Union Party and acted as chairman for the party when Jomo Kenyatta was jailed.

Economic Resources: 699.8 million pounds

Military Personnel: 11,800

Prime Minister Leabua Jonathan (Lesotho)

Leabua Jonathan is the second prime minister of Lesotho. He was a minor chief in Lesotho and founded the Basotho National Party. He took a completely neutral stance towards South Africa as the country of Lesotho was completely surrounded by South Africa.

Economic Resources: 31.7 million pounds

Military Personnel: 1,600

President Hastings Banda (Malawi)

Hastings Banda was the first president of Malawi and led the country to independence. He is a leader of anti-communist sentiment in Africa and a supporter of women's rights. He was educated in both the United States and the United Kingdom. He has also been accused of attempting to become an autocrat and seems on track to become Malawi's President for Life.

Economic Resources: 127.7 million pounds

Military Personnel: 2,970

Prime Minister Tunku Abdul Rahman (Malaysia)

Tunku Abdul Rahman is the first prime minister of Malaysia. He studied at Cambridge University. During World War II, he was recalled to Malay to prepare for civil defense. Following the war, he worked with the British for independence for Malay and subsequently Malaysia.

Economic Resources: 1,759.2 million pounds

Military Personnel: 41,300

Prime Minister Giorgio Borg Olivier (Malta)

Giorgio Borg Olivier is the prime minister of Malta and leader of the Nationalist Party. He was educated in Malta and as World War II broke out, many of his party were removed from the state as national leadership tended to side with fascist Italy. After the war, he and his party retook power and he began working towards decoupling Malta from the British.

Economic Resources: 115.3 million pounds

Military Personnel: 400

Prime Minister Seewoosagar Ramgoolam (Mauritius)

Seewoosagar Ramgoolam is the prime minister of Mauritius and an English knight. He was initially a pro-British supporter, but eventually sided with the independence movement of Mauritius and became leader of the Labour Party of Mauritius.

Economic Resources: 58.5 million pounds

Military Personnel: 200

Prime Minister Keith Holyoake (New Zealand)

Keith Holyoake is the 26th prime minister of New Zealand. He was a politician in the Reform party and later became instrumental in the formation of the New Zealand National Party. He is a very reformed-minded politician.

Economic Resources: 2,765.8 million pounds

Military Personnel: 7,100

Vice-Chairman of the Federal Executive Council Joseph Edet Akinwale Wey (Nigeria)

Joseph Edet Akinwale Wey is the Nigerian representative to the Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference as the Biafran Civil War is underway. He has served various military positions but has mostly been in the Navy.

Economic Resources: 3,184.3 million pounds

Military Personnel: 126,000

Minister for Foreign Affairs Mian Arshad Hussain (Pakistan)

Mian Arshad Hussain is the Pakistani representative to the Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference. Additionally, he is appointed as ambassador to Sweden, Russia Moscow, and High Commissioner to India.

Economic Resources: 4,143.8 million pounds

Military Personnel: 311,900

Prime Minister Sir Milton Margai (Sierra Leone)

Sir Milton Margai is the first prime minister of Sierra Leone. He was trained in medicine in England, became a doctor there, and returned to Sierra Leone to campaign for public health. Although he was pro-British and a conservative, he supported an independent Sierra Leone.

Economic Resources: 196.3 million pounds

Military Personnel: 2,300

Prime Minister Lee Kuan Yew (Singapore)

Lee Kuan Yew is the first prime minister of Singapore. He studied Economics in London and then Law at Cambridge. He fought for independence for Singapore from British rule and led his territory to form with other territories to form Malaysia but ended up separating into the city-state of Singapore.

Economic Resources: 796.3 million pounds

Military Personnel: 11,000

Prime Minister Makhosini Dlamini (Swaziland)

Makhosini Dlamini is the prime minister and the foreign minister of Swaziland. He is also a prince in the country and is representing Swaziland at the Commonwealth Prime Ministers' Conference.

Economic Resources: 50.4 million pounds

Military Personnel: 800

President Julius Nyerere (Tanzania)

Julius Nyerere is the first president of Tanzania. He founded the Tanganyika African National Union Party and is a supporter of African nationalism and African socialism. He studied in both Uganda and Scotland and campaigned for the independence of Tanganyika, which was succeeded by the state of Tanzania.

Economic Resources: 1,168.8 million pounds

Military Personnel: 22,810

Prime Minister Eric Williams (Trinidad and Tobago)

Eric Williams is the first prime minister of Trinidad and Tobago. He is also a notable Caribbean historian. He founded the political party, the People's National Movement, which led Trinidad and Tobago into independence. With the rise of the black power movement in Trinidad and Tobago, he began aligning his aims with theirs.

Economic Resources: 373.9 million pounds

Military Personnel: 700

President Milton Obote (Uganda)

Milton Obote is the second prime minister of Uganda and was a leader of the Ugandan independence movement. He is a part of the Uganda People's Congress. Obote has made several questionable moves politically and has been implicated in a gold smuggling plot.

Economic Resources: 561.1 million pounds

Military Personnel: 16,600

President Kenneth Kaunda (Zambia)

Kenneth Kaunda is the first president of Zambia. He is also the head of the United National Independence Party. He is a major proponent for free education in Zambia in an attempt to boost the education rate and has decided to undergo a planned economy in Zambia.

Economic Resources: 943.7 million pounds

Military Personnel: 12,100

President Hammer DeRoburt (Nauru)

Hammer DeRoburt is the founding president of the Republic of Nauru and thus the first to hold the title. He was educated at the Gordon Institute of Technology in Australia. During World War II, he was deported to Truk by the Japanese. After the war, he returned and began his political career working in the Department of Education.

Economic Resources: 2.3 million pounds

Military Personnel: 600

Prime Minister Fiame Mata'afa Faumuina Mulinu'u II (Western Samoa)

Fiame Mata'afa Faumuina Mulinu'u II is the second prime minister of Western Samoa. He was a framer of Constitution of Samoa and held critical roles in Western Samoa's independence from New Zealand. He holds three different chief titles: Mata'afa, Fiame, and Faumuina.

Economic Resources: 10.1 million pounds

Military Personnel: 1,400

King Tupou IV (Tonga)

After the death of Queen Salote Topou III in 1965, Taufa'ahau Topou IV obtained the title of King of Tonga. He was both a sportsman and preacher, first attending college at Newington College and then studying law at Sydney University. He is also the heaviest monarch in the world.

Economic Resources: 4.4 million pounds

Military Personnel: 800

Premier Vere Bird (Antigua and Barbuda)

Vere Bird is was the first and only chief minister of Antigua and Barbuda as well as the first Premier for the island group. He had little formal education, but he became the president of the Antigua Trades and Labour Union and followed that up by forming the Antigua Labour Party.

Economic Resources: 8.6 million pounds

Military Personnel: 600

Premier Edward Oliver LeBlanc (Dominica)

Edward LeBlanc is the first premier of Dominica. He is a member of the Dominica Labour Party and has repeatedly tried to implement socialist policies in Dominica with the larger amount of self-governing granted to Dominica by the United Kingdom. He is very popular with his voters.

Economic Resources: 5.7 million pounds

Military Personnel: 700

Premier Eric Gairy (Grenada)

Eric Gairy is the second premier of Grenada and a relatively radical political figure from the British point of view. He was deeply involved in union strikes that led to him being arrested by British authorities, then forming the Grenada United Labour Party, then being banned from politics from 1957-1961, being dismissed by the British colonial Governor in 1962 for questionable use of state funds, and then finally winning an election to be premier in 1967.

Economic Resources: 4.9 million pounds

Military Personnel: 900

Premier Robert Llewellyn Bradshaw (Saint Christopher-Nevis-Anguilla)

Robert Bradshaw is the first premier of Saint Christopher-Nevis-Anguilla. He became a member of the St. Kitts-Nevis-Anguilla Labour Party. Following the shortly lived West Indies Federation, Bradshaw took power and had the government purchase all sugar lands and productions in the island's domain, which began to raise opposition to him now.

Economic Resources: 4.1 million pounds

Military Personnel: 400

Premier John Compton (Saint Lucia)

John Compton is the first premier of Saint Lucia. He studied at the University College of Wales and the London School of Economics. He became a member of the Saint Lucia Labour Party and once in office, worked for Saint Lucia's independence, which eventually earned him the title of premier.

Economic Resources: 8.6 million pounds Military Personnel: 1,100

Chief Minister Milton Cato (Saint Vincent and the Grenadines)

Milton Cato is the first Chief Minister of Saint Vincent and the Grenadines. He began his career by studying law in Kingstown. In 1945, he joined the First Canadian Army and fought in Europe. On his return, he founded the Saint Vincent and the Grenadines Labour Party and since taking power has done much to improve the economic status of the region.

Economic Resources: 4.5 million pounds Military Personnel: 900

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