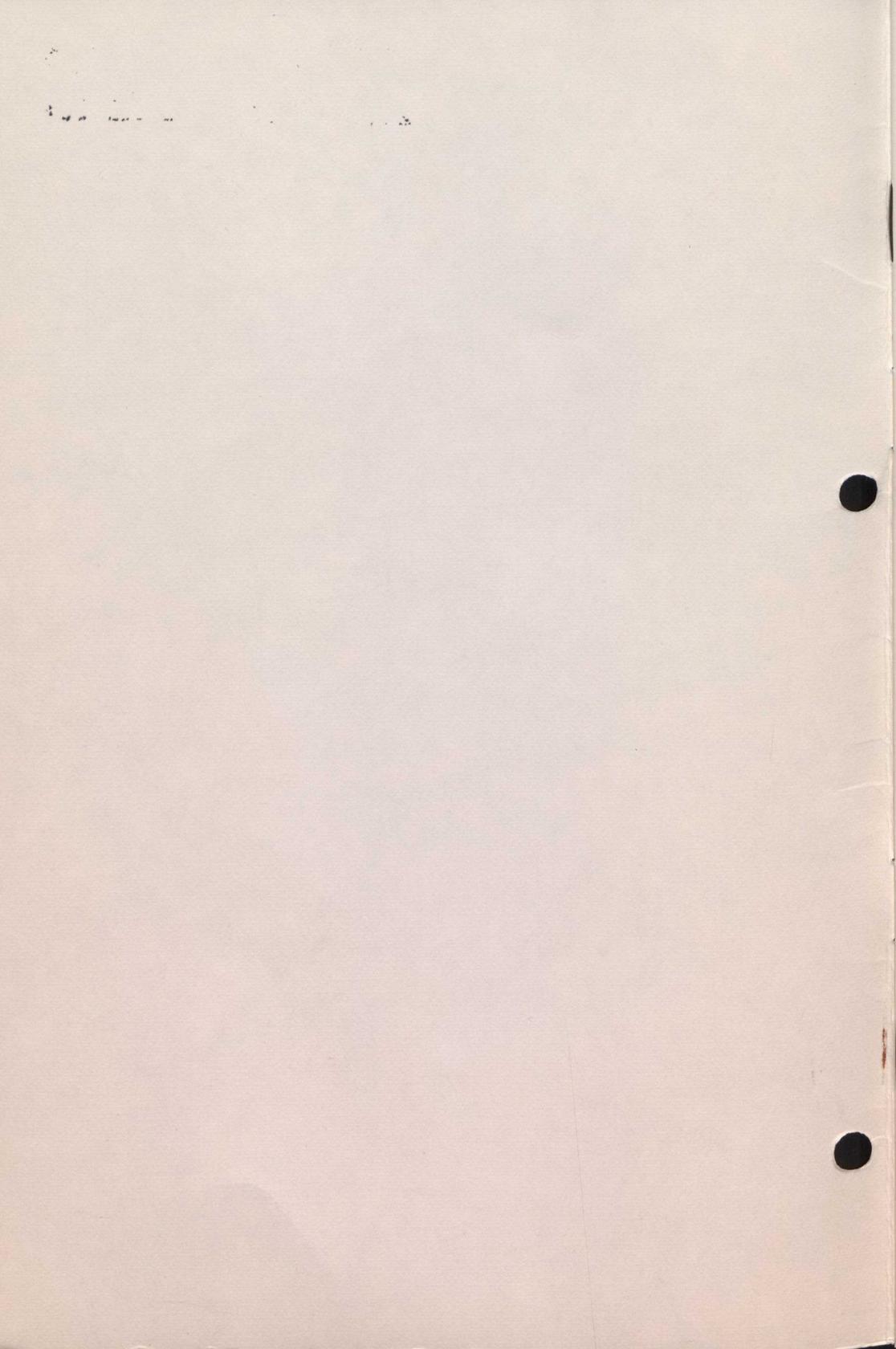


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The Commonwealth



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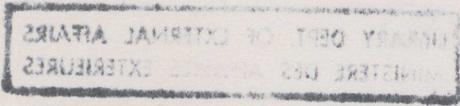


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The Commonwealth

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The
Commonwealth

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As the colonies within the British Empire assumed self-government and independence, similarities of language, habits, institutional traditions and working methods convinced many national leaders of the value of maintaining some form of association in its place. The fruit of that belief is the modern Commonwealth. The Commonwealth (or Commonwealth of Nations, as it is also called) is a voluntary association of 36 independent countries from six continents and five oceans¹. The two most recent members to join the association on achieving independence are Papua New Guinea (September 16, 1975) and Seychelles (June 28, 1976). Nauru, an independent republic, is a special member, which may take part in functional meetings and activities but does not participate in Heads of Government Meetings.

The Commonwealth, which embraces a rich variety of races, languages, religions and cultures, is a unique association in which leaders in various fields may, on a level of informality and intimacy, meet to exchange views on a multitude of questions and try to determine what may usefully be done together. In a world that seems in danger of splitting into antagonistic groups based on sectional interests such as ideology, race, region, economic level of development, and religion, the Commonwealth is able to transcend such interests, and so bring a global perspective to bear on matters of concern to all members.

The principles of the association were most clearly expressed in the Commonwealth Declaration, issued at the Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting in Singapore in January 1971². This statement of common principles affirmed the belief of Commonwealth members in: the United Nations and its efforts to promote international peace and order; the liberty of the individual and each citizen's inalienable right to participate in creating his society; the evil nature of racial prejudice and discrimination; the principles of human dignity and equality, and the iniquity of colonial domination; the need for the progressive removal of disparities in wealth between different sections of mankind; and the value of the Commonwealth as a means to promote international co-operation. In pursuing these principles, the members of the Commonwealth believe that they can

¹A list of members appears as Appendix A.

²The text of the Declaration appears as Appendix D.

provide a constructive example of the multinational approach, which is vital to peace and progress in the modern world.

In its widest sense, the Commonwealth is understood to include: member states and self-governing states associated with a Commonwealth member for the purpose of foreign policy and defence; protected states; trust territories administered by a member on behalf of the United Nations; and territories still dependent on a member. Including dependencies, the Commonwealth covers one-fifth of the world's land surface and embraces well over 860 million people.

Of the 36 full members, 16 have retained a monarchical form of government. Queen Elizabeth II is head of state of Canada and 11 other members. Malaysia has a monarch as head of state who is elected for a five-year term from among themselves by the nine hereditary Malay rulers of West Malaysia. On attaining independence, two members of the Commonwealth, Lesotho and Swaziland, had their paramount chiefs declared king and head of state. The Kingdom of Tonga remained a monarchy after Britain relinquished responsibility for the external affairs of this country in 1970. Twenty members of the Commonwealth have adopted a republican form of government, but all members recognize Queen Elizabeth as the symbol of their free association and, as such, the head of the Commonwealth.

Associated states within the Commonwealth

The term "associated state" means a country that has attained full internal self-government while Britain retains ultimate responsibility for its external affairs and defence. The association is a free and voluntary one; an associated state may choose independence at any time. In the Caribbean region, Antigua, St. Christopher-Nevis-Anguilla, Dominica, St. Lucia and St. Vincent are known as the West Indies Associated States (WIAS) and, by agreement with Britain, exercise delegated authority over a wide area of external relations. Britain is also responsible for the external affairs of Brunei, a sultanate on the northwest coast of Borneo, and co-operates in arrangements for its defence. Brunei has been protected by Britain since 1888. Southern Rhodesia, before its unilateral declaration of independence on November 11, 1965, was a self-governing colony of Britain. Following the illegal declaration of independence, the

British Government passed the Southern Rhodesia Act 1965, which declares that Southern Rhodesia continues to be a part of Her Majesty's dominions and that the Government and Parliament of Britain continue to have responsibility and jurisdiction for and in respect of it. The Cook Islands in the South Pacific are a self-governing territory associated with New Zealand; on October 19, 1974, the island of Niue assumed a similar status. The inhabitants of both territories are New Zealand citizens³.

Dependent territories

In Commonwealth terminology, the phrase "dependent territories" designates some 25 remaining colonies and trust territories exercising self-government to a greater or lesser degree. Most of these are dependencies of Australia and New Zealand. New members are drawn from associated states and dependencies that may on independence apply to heads of Commonwealth member governments for full membership in the association⁴.

Evolution of the Commonwealth

The Commonwealth evolved from the British Empire through a gradual process that began in the nineteenth century. Many important developments first occurred in relation to what is now Canada. While there are many possible starting-points, a convenient one is *Lord Durham's Report*, published in 1839 following an inquiry into the causes of rebellions in Upper and Lower Canada in 1836-37. One of Durham's key recommendations was that full self-government should be granted to the governments in the Canadian colonies in all matters of concern to them. Under the recommendations of the report, authority was reserved to the Imperial Government only in those fields considered necessary to maintain imperial unity; these included control of foreign relations, the regulation of commerce, the determination of the constitution and the disposal of public lands. All other powers and functions, including the expenditure of public funds, were to be transferred to the colonial governments, to be exercised by executive councils responsible to elected legislative assemblies,

³A list of associated states and self-governing territories appears as Appendix B.

⁴A list of dependencies, showing their relations to a metropolitan power, appears as Appendix C.

and exercised only so long as they retained the support of the majorities in these assemblies. Following the Union of Upper and Lower Canada in 1840, this recommendation was implemented by stages, the testing-point being the acceptance by the Governor-General, Lord Elgin, and the British Government of the Rebellion Losses Bill of 1849. This effectively established the practice of full responsible self-government over the very wide range of matters within the control of colonial governments. Subsequently, the conception of responsible government with a wide area of local autonomy was extensively applied throughout the British Empire, and the changes flowing from its general application have been immense. In 1867, Canada became, by virtue of the British North America Act, the first self-governing dominion; Australia achieved dominion status in 1901, New Zealand in 1907, and South Africa in 1909. The emergence of the British Commonwealth, as distinct from the British Empire, may be said to have begun with the Colonial Conference of 1897 in London, which was restricted to representatives from Britain and those colonies that possessed responsible government. The Colonial Conference of 1907 decided that in future these meetings would be called imperial conferences, to reflect the new status of the dominions⁵.

Major developments occurred during the period 1914-1939 as Canada and other self-governing dominions assumed more and more responsibility for their relations with other countries. After the First World War, Canada, supported on occasion by the other dominions, succeeded in asserting its independence from the imperial power by a series of agreements and precedents that in turn became the basis for further political developments. Beginning with Versailles in 1919, the dominions successfully asserted their claim to separate representation at international conferences and then, in the 1920s, to diplomatic representation in foreign countries. This new relationship was set out in a communique from the Imperial Conference of 1926. Drawing upon the recommendations of the *Balfour Report*, the communique defined Britain and the dominions as "autonomous Communities within the British Empire, equal in status, in no way subordinate one to another in any aspect of their domestic and external affairs, though united by a common allegiance to the Crown,

⁵Appendix E consists of a list of conferences.

and freely associated as members of the British Commonwealth of Nations". The Statute of Westminster of 1931 gave legal effect to the substance of the decisions reached in 1926 and established the legislative equality of the dominion parliaments with the British Parliament.

The decision of the Imperial Conference of 1926 also gave rise to another significant development in the character of relations between the dominions. Even before the First World War, the dominions had maintained high commissioners in London to deal directly with the British authorities⁶. When the 1926 conference decided that the governor-general in each of the dominions should cease to be the representative of the British Government and become the representative of the monarch, the British Government appointed high commissioners to the dominions. High commissioners gradually assumed a diplomatic identity and functioned as the usual channels of communication between the dominions and British Government; eventually, the dominions exchanged high commissioners among themselves. A significant aspect of the high commissioner's function, which differentiates it from that of an ambassador, is that high commissioners are accredited to the head of government rather than to the head of state. This practice has been maintained despite the decision of many Commonwealth countries not to retain the British monarch as their common head of state. Today it is valued as a reflection of the special relations between members of the association. Most Commonwealth countries have now exchanged high commissioners among themselves as well as with Britain.

In part as a result of developments during the Second World War, the movement towards independence in the colonial areas of South and Southeast Asia became irresistible. On August 15, 1947, the Indian subcontinent was divided, to create the two sovereign countries of India and Pakistan. A year later, Ceylon (since 1972, Sri Lanka) achieved complete independence.

An important step in the evolution of the modern Commonwealth was taken soon after these countries attained independence. When India decided to become a republic yet opted to remain within the Commonwealth, it became clear that common allegiance to the

⁶Canada appointed the first high commissioner to London in 1880.

Crown was no longer a suitable criterion for membership in the association. The communique of the April 1949 prime ministers' meeting expressed the new conception of the role of the British monarch within the Commonwealth — that of a symbol of the free association of its independent member nations and, as such, head of the Commonwealth. This new definition enabled countries to join or to continue as members of the Commonwealth without any strict uniformity of constitutions.

During the 1960s, membership in the Commonwealth increased tremendously as practically all Africa became independent, and all except three of the British African territories (Sudan, British Cameroons, Southern Togoland) decided to remain within the association. This development was crucial to the evolution of the Commonwealth, as it reinforced its multiracial character — a point perhaps most significantly registered at the prime ministers' meeting in London in March 1961, when Commonwealth representatives discussed, with the assent of the South African leader, racial policies within that country. So great a number of representatives expressed their disapproval of the principles of *apartheid* contained in the new constitution of South Africa that the South African Prime Minister decided to reassess his Government's desire to remain within the Commonwealth, and later withdrew from the association.

The issue of white minority rule in Rhodesia has also been a prominent concern of the association. The Commonwealth Sanctions Committee was established by heads of government at their meeting in Lagos in January 1966, among other things to review regularly the working of United Nations sanctions against the Rhodesian Government and also the special needs that might, from time to time, arise in honouring the Commonwealth's undertaking to come to the support of Zambia when its economy was adversely affected as a result of its applying sanctions. In 1976, the Commonwealth extended similar assistance to Mozambique, even though that country was not a member of the Commonwealth. The Committee meets at least once a year. The principle of racial equality was reaffirmed in numerous communiqués from the prime ministers' meetings, and it assumed a conspicuous place in the Commonwealth Declaration issued by heads of government in Singapore.

Throughout this metamorphosis of the Commonwealth, a number of countries have either withdrawn from the association or chosen

not to assume a place within it. The most recent member of the Commonwealth to withdraw is Pakistan, which severed its connection on January 30, 1972, because of the recognition of Bangladesh (formerly East Pakistan) by a number of Commonwealth countries. South Africa withdrew on May 31, 1961, after choosing to disassociate itself from the Commonwealth as it was then emerging. Ireland left the Commonwealth on April 18, 1949, owing to strained relations with Britain during the previous two decades. The Japanese conquest of Burma during the Second World War accelerated the growing desire within that country to attain complete independence from Britain. Unwilling to remain within the Commonwealth association as it then was under the terms of the *Balfour Report*, Burma chose to become an independent republic outside the association on January 4, 1948.

Nature of Commonwealth association

The essential functions of the Commonwealth can be put in two words: consultation and co-operation. As stated in the opening paragraph of the Commonwealth Declaration, Commonwealth governments consult and co-operate in the common interest of their peoples and in the promotion of international understanding and world peace. Members have, however, complete freedom to belong to any grouping, association or alliance, or, of course, to remain non-aligned. Membership carries no obligation to come to the assistance of another member that may be attacked, though, not unnaturally, Commonwealth countries would be seriously concerned about such a decision. At an earlier stage, commerce was an important cohesive factor within the association. With the economic growth and the liberalization of trade on a multilateral basis following the Second World War, the Commonwealth preference system became less significant as a unifying element. The value of the Commonwealth preference system with regard to trade with Britain was, of course, affected by Britain's entry into the European Economic Community on January 1, 1973⁷. On a broader scale, Com-

⁷Britain's entry required the termination of the Canada/United Kingdom Trade Agreement and the removal of Canadian preferential access to the British market. Canada, however, still accords preferential access to the Canadian market to many goods from Britain and other Commonwealth countries. Preferential treatment has been exchanged with Australia and New Zealand, and goods from Caribbean Commonwealth countries have preferential access to Canadian markets.

monwealth trade links remain important, particularly for the developing countries, and Britain has made efforts to help them negotiate terms of association with the EEC that might contribute to an increase in their economic prosperity.

The Commonwealth, it should be remembered, is an international association and not, like the United Nations or the Organization of American States, an international organization. It was not created at any particular time as a result of the desire of its members to pursue a particular policy or to work towards the resolution of specific problems. Instead, the Commonwealth has changed slowly in response to individual stimuli and initiatives and has, at the request of member governments, undertaken a variety of activities and programs in many areas of its operations. Since it is not an international organization, the Commonwealth has no charter outlining jurisdictions and responsibilities, nor has it a structured hierarchy of councils and committees that reach decisions on political and other international issues by formal debate and majority vote. It does not have a continuing executive structure.

Commonwealth Secretariat

However, in 1975, Commonwealth heads of government decided to establish the Commonwealth Secretariat to facilitate communication between member governments and to administer programs of co-operation. The Secretariat exemplifies "the spirit of co-operation which animates the Commonwealth", and is staffed by officers from 20 Commonwealth countries. Its budget is financed by assessments from all member governments. The Secretariat, responsible to Commonwealth governments collectively, is headed by a Secretary-General, who has direct access to heads of government. It works to ensure conditions for the exchange of opinions in a friendly, informal and intimate atmosphere, and, since its establishment, has become the centre for multilateral communication between Commonwealth governments. The Secretariat also serves as the focal-point and link for many of the Commonwealth's functional institutions. Its responsibilities include the following: facilitating and promoting consultation, both bilaterally and multilaterally, among members; preparing and circulating factual papers on international questions of special concern to Commonwealth governments; acting as a focal-point and

a link for various specialized Commonwealth institutions; undertaking studies on various subjects in the economic, social, administrative and cultural fields; and organizing and servicing the many Commonwealth governmental meetings.

The first Secretary-General of the Commonwealth was Arnold Smith, a Canadian diplomat who relinquished this post in July 1975 after ten years service. His successor, Shridath S. Ramphal, who was formerly Foreign Minister and Justice Minister of Guyana, has already shown his dedication to an outward-looking, active Commonwealth.

Commonwealth meetings

The Commonwealth has become an increasingly useful vehicle for intergovernmental consultation at all levels. At the topmost level are the Commonwealth Heads of Government Meetings, now held at two-year intervals, which rotate among the capitals of member countries. The last such meeting was in Kingston, Jamaica, in 1975. Other recent meetings have been in Lagos, Nigeria, in 1966, London in 1969, Singapore in 1971, and Ottawa in 1973. The next will be held in London from June 8 to 16, 1977, the heads of government having decided at their 1975 gathering to meet there in the year of the twenty-fifth anniversary of Queen Elizabeth's accession as head of the Commonwealth. The fact that this will be the first time in eight years that the Heads of Government Meeting has taken place in London is an indication of the decentralized and non-Anglocentric nature of the modern Commonwealth. These are private and confidential meetings of individual government leaders (as opposed to delegations), and are intended primarily to provide opportunity for discussing current international economic and political issues and other questions of interest to the leaders, such as comparative techniques of government. The informal and intimate atmosphere of these discussions encourages a forthright exchange of views, without posturing or unprofitable debate. For a time, there were doubts that this frankness and intimacy could be maintained; the tremendous growth in membership, the reduced familiarity, the disparities in economic development, and the growing importance of regional and other groupings might, it was thought, lead to acrimonious debate, with few constructive results. However, the Ottawa Heads of Government Meeting in

1973 successfully restored any flexibility and informality that might have been lost.

This meeting was unique in one respect: it was the first time the Queen, as the symbol and head of the Commonwealth, had attended a Heads of Government Meeting outside Britain. Her presence did much to focus Canadian and international attention on the meeting and on her role in the decentralized Commonwealth.

As a follow-up to the work of heads of government, senior officials (usually cabinet secretaries or the equivalent) meet in the intervening years to consider proposals referred to them and to plan for the next Heads of Government Meeting. At the first senior officials meeting, held in Ottawa in 1972, delegates drafted a report to governments on procedures and agenda for Heads of Government Meetings and had a first "run" at a new item suggested by the Prime Minister of Canada — comparative techniques of government, a topic that engaged the attention of government leaders in their 1973 and 1975 consultations. The most recent meeting of senior officials took place in Canberra, Australia, between 26 and 28 May, 1976. At this meeting senior officials discussed the establishment of a Commonwealth group of specialists on industrial co-operation. It was the opinion of the meeting that such a group should have a practical orientation, and the senior officials believed that the establishment of this group could nudge forward a program of importance to the international community as a whole. Heads of government also frequently refer projects to more specialized Commonwealth meetings. At their 1975 meeting, the heads of government invited a small group of experts from member countries, chaired by Alistair McIntyre, Secretary-General of the Caribbean Community, to propose practical measures for closing the gap between rich and poor countries. This group presented its interim report, entitled *Towards a New International Economic Order*, to the meeting of Commonwealth finance ministers in Georgetown, Guyana, in August 1975, and a second report was circulated before UNCTAD IV met at Nairobi in May 1976. The establishment of the group of specialists in industrial co-operation is a result of the recommendations of the McIntyre group. Both groups are examples of the way the new, outward-looking Commonwealth is acting in areas of concern to the entire international community.

At the ministerial level, there are a number of Commonwealth meetings held on a regular basis. Finance ministers, for example, confer every year, immediately before the meeting of the World Bank, in order to review and discuss recent developments in the international economy. The Secretary of State for External Affairs attended the 1975 Commonwealth finance ministers' meeting, where the "new international economic order" was discussed. In addition, there are regular meetings of ministers of law, health and education, as well as meetings of other ministers when circumstances warrant them, such as the 1974 meeting of Commonwealth delegates to the World Food Conference in Rome and a subsequent ministerial meeting in London in March 1975, which led to the establishment of the Food Production and Rural Development Division of the Commonwealth Secretariat. Officials of Commonwealth governments also confer regularly on technical matters.

Commonwealth functional co-operation

Co-operative ventures constitute an expanding area of Commonwealth activity. Economic assistance for developing members has long been a matter of concern — the Colombo Plan was a Commonwealth initiative arising from consideration of the political and economic problems of South Asia by Commonwealth foreign ministers meeting at Colombo in January 1950. As the scheme for assistance emerged in the first few months of 1950, a decision was taken to invite non-Commonwealth countries in the area to participate in the Plan. This was done to ensure economic progress throughout the whole of South and Southeast Asia. A further step towards practical co-operation for development was taken by heads of government at Singapore in 1971, when they agreed to change the Commonwealth Program for Technical Co-operation. Developing as well as developed members make voluntary contributions to the CFTC to support its activities in technical assistance, export development, training and education. Between June 1974 and June 1975, the CFTC had completed, begun or approved some 700 projects in Asia, Africa, the Caribbean, the Mediterranean and the South Pacific. The operation of the Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan is a practical result of Commonwealth co-operation in education. Between 1970 and 1975, 2,083 Commonwealth scholarships have been taken up in 15 countries; in 1975-76, the plan made 1,114 awards. The 1973 Heads of

Government Meeting in Ottawa approved the establishment of the Commonwealth Youth Program. This program, administered by the Commonwealth Secretariat, provides for bursary and fellowship schemes, youth service awards and an information centre, in addition to the establishment of regional training centres in Guyana, Zambia and India.

In 1965, the Commonwealth heads of government, meeting in London, approved the establishment of the Commonwealth Foundation to administer a fund for fostering and increasing exchanges between professional organizations and societies in Commonwealth countries. The Foundation, financed by Commonwealth governments and managed by an independent board of trustees and a small staff in London, provides financial assistance to encourage representation at conferences, to facilitate the exchange of visits among professional people, and to assist in organizing professional conferences and centres. More recently, the Foundation has directed its attention to encouraging the development of non-governmental associations in a number of professional fields. During its 11 years of operation, its activities have been very successful. Besides giving financial support to the non-governmental associations already mentioned and other such organizations, the Foundation has been instrumental in creating professional centres in a number of Commonwealth capitals, has made available a number of bursaries and has given financial support to various professional journals. Professional persons and associations in both developed and developing countries benefit from the fund administered by the Commonwealth Foundation.

In addition to official Commonwealth institutions and the joint programs of member governments, there are more than 200 constructively active⁸ non-governmental Commonwealth organizations.

Canadian commitment to the Commonwealth

The Canadian commitment to multilateral Commonwealth programs and institutions is reflected in the Government's contribution to them of some \$9,272,458 in 1975-76. This includes Canada's contribution of 40 per cent of the budget for the Youth Program and up to \$4 million annually to the CFTC for the Commonwealth Foundation.

⁸A partial list of these appears as Appendix G.

The Canadian Government has more than doubled its contribution (to 32 per cent of the budget) from 1976. In addition, Canada provides more than \$300 million in bilateral aid to Commonwealth countries as an area of concentration in its development assistance.

The Canadian Government has taken its turn as host to a number of recent Commonwealth conferences: the senior officials meeting and the Ministerial Telecommunications Conference in 1972, the Heads of Government Meeting in 1973 and the finance ministers' meeting in 1974. In 1975, the Commonwealth Air Transport Council met in Ottawa from September 29 to October 4. Canada was also the meeting-place in 1974 of a non-governmental conference, the Tenth Commonwealth Mining and Metallurgical Conference. In June 1976, the Commonwealth Human Ecology Council and the Commonwealth *ad hoc* group for "Habitat" met in Vancouver prior to the United Nations Conference on Human Settlements. The twenty-third Commonwealth Parliamentary Conference is to be held in Ottawa in September and the meeting of Commonwealth law ministers will be held in Winnipeg in August 1977. In 1978, the Eleventh Commonwealth Games and the fourth meeting of the Commonwealth Youth Affairs Council will be held in Edmonton, and Vancouver will be the host city for the Second General Conference of the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration and the Twelfth Congress of Commonwealth Universities. Other events of interest have been the initial meeting of the Commonwealth Education Broadcasting Conference in Sydney, Australia, from October 7 to 16, 1975, and the Sixth Commonwealth Educational Conference, held in Jamaica in 1974.

In spite of fears voiced on numerous occasions that the Commonwealth was dead, or on the verge of collapse, the association has grown more meaningful and useful. It has grown in several respects: its membership has increased from a mere half-dozen independent countries to 36; its functional programs have multiplied at an impressive rate, covering a wide variety of activities; and its orientation has changed from an Anglocentric one to a truly multi-lateral one, with no predominant member. If the recent past is an indication, then the future will see the maintenance and expansion of those activities in which the Commonwealth has proved itself so useful — consultation and functional co-operation. Government

leaders looked ahead from the watershed of their 1973 meeting in this belief: "Heads of Government were convinced that the association had once again demonstrated its vitality and flexibility. They intend to make maximum use of the Commonwealth machinery to put the principles of the Commonwealth Declaration in practice and to accelerate the pace of social and economic development among the less affluent members."⁹ As Prime Minister Trudeau said at the 1973 meeting in Ottawa:

"The Commonwealth is for many of us our window on the world To contemporary observers and, I am confident, to future historians, the word Commonwealth will be irrevocably associated with the desire of free men and women representing more than a quarter of the world's population to gather, to discuss and to understand"

This "Spirit of Ottawa" was reaffirmed at the 1975 meeting in Jamaica, described by the host prime minister as the "Concord of Kingston". The initiatives of both meetings are currently being carried forward in an outward-looking way, apart from political consultation among themselves and practical programs of mutual assistance. As Arnold Smith told the heads of government at their meeting in 1975, "the Commonwealth has changed greatly over the years and has become increasingly relevant to the problems of World politics . . .". "We have not been growing old: we have been growing up," he declared.

⁹Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting, Ottawa, 1973: excerpts from the final communique.

Appendix A

Commonwealth Countries

Note: Members of the Commonwealth (or Commonwealth of Nations) include Britain and those independent countries formerly governed by Britain that have chosen to become members. Dependent territories such as colonies, protectorates and trust territories of Britain and other member countries may be described as within the Commonwealth in that they are territories of member countries, but they are not "members" of the Commonwealth, for only sovereign independent states are accepted as members. Nauru, which became independent in January 1968, is associated with the Commonwealth as a special member entitled to participate in all functional meetings and activities and is eligible for Commonwealth technical assistance but does not take part in meetings of Commonwealth heads of government. The prefix "British" before "Commonwealth" is no longer used. (* Denotes the date on which dominion status was acquired.)

Member Countries	Area (sq. miles)	Population	Date of membership	Capital	Constitutional (Monarchy or republic)	Accredited Canadian post (H.C. — High commission (Emb. — Embassy))
Australia	2,967,909	13,574,000	1 Jan. 1901*	Canberra	M (Br.)	H.C. — Canberra
Bahamas	5,380	205,000	10 July 1973	Nassau	M (Br.)	H.C. — Kingston
Bangladesh	55,126	73,746,000	18 Apr. 1972	Dacca	R	H.C. — Dacca
Barbados	166	239,000	30 Nov. 1966	Bridgetown	M (Br.)	H.C. — Bridgetown
Botswana	220,000	677,000	30 Sept. 1966	Gaborone	R	Emb. — Pretoria
Britain	94,215	56,102,000		London	M (Br.)	H.C. — London
Canada	3,851,809	22,781,000	1 July 1867*	Ottawa	M (Br.)	Emb. — Tel Aviv
Cyprus	3,572	650,000	13 Mar. 1961	Nicosia	R	H.C. — Canberra
Fiji	7,055	572,000	10 Oct. 1970	Suva	M (Br.)	Emb. — Dakar
Gambia	4,003	523,000	18 Feb. 1965	Banjul (Bathurst)	R	
Ghana	91,843	9,810,000	6 Mar. 1957	Accra	R	H.C. — Accra
Grenada	120	98,000	7 Feb. 1974	St. George's	M (Br.)	H.C. — Bridgetown
Guyana	83,000	811,000	26 May 1966	Georgetown	R	H.C. — Georgetown
India	1,262,547	600,297,000	15 Aug. 1947	New Delhi	R	H.C. — New Delhi
Jamaica	4,411	2,053,000	6 Aug. 1962	Kingston	M (Br.)	H.C. — Kingston
Kenya	224,960	13,357,000	12 Dec. 1963	Nairobi	R	H.C. — Nairobi
Lesotho	11,716	1,038,000	4 Oct. 1966	Maseru	M (Nat'l)	Emb. — Pretoria

Member Countries	Area (sq. miles)	Population	Date of membership	Capital	Constitutional (Monarchy or republic)	Accredited Canadian post (H.C. — High commission)
Malawi	45,411	5,042,000	6 July 1964	Lilongwe	R	H.C. — Lusaka
Malaysia	128,308	11,860,000	31 Aug. 1957	Kuala Lumpur	M (Nat'l)	H.C. — Kuala Lumpur
Malta	121.4	322,300	21 Sept. 1964	Valetta	R	Emb. — Rome
Mauritius	760	885,000	12 Mar. 1968	Port Louis	M (Br.)	H.C. — Dar-es-Salaam
New Zealand	103,736	3,092,000	26 Sept. 1907*	Wellington	M (Br.)	H.C. — Wellington
Nigeria	356,669	63,022,000	1 Oct. 1960	Lagos	R	H.C. — Lagos
Papua New Guinea	183,540	2,805,000	16 Sept. 1976	Port Moresby	M (Br.)	H.C. — Canberra
Seychelles	156	59,000	28 June 1976	Victoria	R	H.C. — Dar-es-Salaam
Sierra Leone	27,927	2,748,000	27 Apr. 1961	Freetown	R	H.C. — Lagos
Singapore	224.5	2,254,000	15 Oct. 1965	Singapore	R	H.C. — Singapore
Sri Lanka (Ceylon)	25,332	13,763,000	4 Feb. 1948	Colombo	R	H.C. — Colombo
Swaziland	2,000	494,000	6 Sept. 1968	Mbabane	M (Nat'l)	Emb. — Pretoria
Tanzania	363,708	15,149,000	9 Dec. 1961	Dar-es-Salaam	R	H.C. — Dar-es-Salaam
Tonga	270	97,000	4 June 1970	Nuku'alofa	M (Nat'l)	H.C. — Wellington
Trinidad and Tobago	1,980	1,013,000	31 Aug. 1962	Port of Spain	R	H.C. — Port of Spain
Uganda	91,076	11,549,000	9 Oct. 1962	Kampala	R	H.C. — Nairobi
Western Samoa	1,097	159,000	28 Aug. 1970	Apia	R	H.C. — Wellington
Zambia	290,600	4,870,000	24 Oct. 1964	Lusaka	R	H.C. — Lusaka
Nauru (special member)	8	7,000	31 Jan. 1968	Nauru	R	
Total		10,327,059.9				

Appendix B

Associated States and Self-governing Territories

<u>Associated states</u>	<u>Area (sq. miles)</u>	<u>Population</u>	<u>Date of status</u>
Antigua	108	80,000	1967
Dominica	290	76,000	1967
St. Christopher- Nevis-Anguilla	136	68,000	1967
St. Lucia	238	110,000	1967
St. Vincent	150	94,000	1969
British protected state			
Brunei	2,226	155,000	1888
New Zealand self-governing territories			
Cook Islands	89	21,000	1965
Niue	100	5,183	1974
Total	<u>3,337</u>	<u>554,183</u>	

Appendix C

Dependent Territories

<u>Dependent territories</u>	<u>Dependency of</u>	<u>Area (sq. miles)</u>	<u>Population</u>
Ascension	Britain	34	1,232
Australian Antarctic Territory	Australia	2,333,624	
Belize (British Honduras)	Britain	8,866	138,000
Bermuda	Britain	20.59	56,000
British Antarctic Territory	Britain	(approx.) 500,000	100
British Indian Ocean Territory	Britain	21,000	110
British Solomon Islands Protectorate	Britain	11,500	189,000
British Virgin Islands	Britain	59	10,484
Cayman Islands	Britain	100	10,249
Christmas Island	Australia	52	3,524
Cocos (Keeling) Islands	Australia	5.5	622
Falkland Islands and dependencies	Britain	4,700	2,066
Gibraltar	Britain	2.25	26,833
Gilbert and Ellice Islands	Britain	283	53,517
Hong Kong	Britain	398.5	3,950,802
Montserrat	Britain	39.5	12,300
New Hebrides	Administered as Anglo-French condominium	5,700	81,000
Norfolk Island	Australia	13.35	1,509
Pitcairn Island	Britain	1.75	100
Ross Dependency (Antarctic)	New Zealand	160,000	
St. Helena	Britain	47	4,952
Tokelau Islands	New Zealand	3.9	1,687
Tristan da Cunha	Britain	38	280
Turks and Caicos	Britain	166	5,675
Total		<u>3,225,021.34</u>	<u>6,852,422</u>

Appendix D

Commonwealth Declaration

The Commonwealth of Nations is a voluntary association of independent sovereign states, each responsible for its own policies, consulting and co-operating in the common interests of their peoples and in the promotion of international understanding and world peace.

Members of the Commonwealth come from territories in the six continents and five oceans, include peoples of different races, languages and religions, and display every stage of economic development from poor developing nations to wealthy industrialized nations. They encompass a rich variety of cultures, traditions and institutions. Membership of the Commonwealth is compatible with the freedom of member governments to be non-aligned or to belong to any other grouping, association or alliance.

Within this diversity all members of the Commonwealth hold certain principles in common. It is by pursuing these principles that the Commonwealth can continue to influence international society for the benefit of mankind.

WE BELIEVE that international peace and order are essential to the security and prosperity of mankind; we therefore support the United Nations and seek to strengthen its influence for peace in the world, and its efforts to remove the causes of tension between nations.

WE BELIEVE in the liberty of the individual, in equal rights for all citizens regardless of race, colour, creed or political belief, and in their inalienable right to participate by means of free and democratic political processes in framing the society in which they live. We therefore strive to promote in each of our countries those representative institutions and guarantees for personal freedom under the law that are our common heritage.

WE RECOGNIZE racial prejudice as a dangerous sickness threatening the healthy development of the human race and racial discrimination as an unmitigated evil of society. Each of us will vigorously combat this evil within our own nation. No country will afford to regimes which practise racial discrimination

assistance which in its own judgment directly contributes to the pursuit or consolidation of this evil policy. We oppose all forms of colonial domination and racial oppression and are committed to the principles of human dignity and equality. We will therefore use all our efforts to foster human equality and dignity everywhere and to further the principles of self-determination and non-racialism.

WE BELIEVE that the wide disparities in wealth now existing between different sections of mankind are too great to be tolerated; they also create world tensions; our aim is their progressive removal; we therefore seek to use our efforts to overcome poverty, ignorance and disease, in raising standards of life and achieving a more equitable international society. To this end our aim is to achieve the freest possible flow of international trade on terms fair and equitable to all, taking into account the special requirements of the developing countries, and to encourage the flow of adequate resources, including governmental and private resources, to the developing countries, bearing in mind the importance of doing this in a true spirit of partnership and of establishing for this purpose in the developing countries conditions which are conducive to sustained investment and growth.

WE BELIEVE that international co-operation is essential to remove the causes of war, promote tolerance, combat injustice and secure development amongst the peoples of the world; we are convinced that the Commonwealth is one of the most fruitful associations for these purposes.

In pursuing these principles the members of the Commonwealth believe that they can provide a constructive example of the multi-national approach which is vital to peace and progress in the modern world. The association is based on consultation, discussion and co-operation. In rejecting coercion as an instrument of policy they recognize that the security of each member state from external aggression is a matter of concern to all members. It provides many channels for continuing exchanges of knowledge and views on professional, cultural, economic, legal and political issues among member states. These relationships we intend to foster and extend for we believe that our multinational association can expand human under-

standing and understanding among nations, assist in the elimination of discrimination based on differences of race, colour or creed, maintain and strengthen personal liberty, contribute to the enrichment of life for all, and provide a powerful influence for peace among nations.

Appendix E

Commonwealth Conferences

The Evolution of the Heads of Government Meeting

Colonial Conferences

1887	London	April 4 - May 9
1894	Ottawa	June 28 - July 9
1897	London	June 24 - July 31
1902	London	June 30 - August 11
1907	London	April 15 - May 14

Imperial Conferences

1911	London	May 23 - June 20 (did not take place)
1917	London	April 21 - April 27
1921	London	June 20 - August 5
1923	London	October 1 - November 8
1926	London	October 19 - November 23
1930	London	October 1 - November 14
1932	Ottawa	July 21 - August 20 (Imperial Economic Conference)
1937	London	May 14 - June 15

Prime Ministers' Meetings

1944	London	May 1 - May 17
1946	London	May 1 - May 23
1948	London	October 10 - October 22
1949	London	April 21 - April 27
1951	London	January 4 - January 12
1953	London	June 3 - June 9
1955	London	January 31 - February 8
1956	London	June 27 - July 6
1957	London	June 26 - July 5
1960	London	May 3 - May 13
1961	London	March 8 - March 17
1962	London	September 10 - September 19
1964	London	July 8 - July 15
1965	London	June 17 - June 21
1966	Lagos	January 11 - January 12
1966	London	September 6 - September 15
1969	London	January 7 - January 15

Heads of Government Meetings

1971	Singapore	January 14 - January 22
1973	Ottawa	August 2 - August 10
1975	Kingston (Jamaica)	April 29 - May 5
1977	London	June 8 - June 16

Appendix F

Some Commonwealth Consultative and Co-operative Mechanisms

Commonwealth Heads of Government Meeting (biennial)
Senior officials meeting (biennial)
Commonwealth finance ministers' meeting (annual)
Commonwealth law ministers' meeting (biennial)
Commonwealth Conference of Education Ministers (triennial)
Commonwealth Medical Conference (triennial)
Commonwealth Forestry Conference (every five years)
Conference of Commonwealth Postal Administrations (biennial)
Commonwealth Educational Liaison Committee
Commonwealth Broadcasting Conference (biennial)
Commonwealth Consultative Space Research Committee
Commonwealth Liaison Committee

Non-governmental

Commonwealth Parliamentary Association (annual)
Commonwealth Magistrates' Conference (biennial)
Quinquennial Commonwealth Press Union Conference (every five years)
Commonwealth Engineering Conference (every four years)
Quinquennial Conference of Commonwealth Universities (every five years)

Some government-funded institutions (etc.)

Commonwealth Secretariat
Commonwealth Advisory Aeronautical Research Council
Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux
Commonwealth Air Transport Council
Commonwealth Book Development Program
Commonwealth Defence Science Organization
Commonwealth Forestry Institute
Commonwealth Foundation
Commonwealth Institute
Commonwealth Legal Advisory Service
Commonwealth Committee on Mineral Processing
Commonwealth Committee on Mineral Resources and Geology
Commonwealth Program for Assisting in the Education of
Rhodesian Africans
Canadian Trust Fund for the Training of Rhodesian Refugees
Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan
Commonwealth Scientific Council
Commonwealth Fund for Technical Co-operation
Commonwealth Telecommunications Council
Commonwealth War Graves Commission
Commonwealth Youth Program

Appendix G

Some Non-Governmental Associations and Organizations

Association of Commonwealth Architects
Association for Commonwealth Literature and Language Studies
Association of Commonwealth Students
Association of Commonwealth Universities
Commonwealth Association of Museums
Commonwealth Association of Planners
Commonwealth Association of Surveying and Land Economy
Commonwealth Society for the Deaf
Commonwealth Council of Education Administration
Commonwealth Engineers Council
Commonwealth Federation of Nurses
Commonwealth Geographic Bureau
Commonwealth Legal Bureau
Commonwealth Library Association
Commonwealth Magistrates' Association
Commonwealth Medical Association
Commonwealth Parliamentary Association
Commonwealth Pharmaceutical Association
Commonwealth Press Union
Commonwealth Veterinary Association
Council of Commonwealth Mining and Metallurgical Institutions
English-Speaking Union of the Commonwealth
Federation of Commonwealth Chambers of Commerce
Royal Commonwealth Society
Royal Overseas League

Appendix H

Canadian Payments to Commonwealth Bodies

(1) Commonwealth Secretariat

All members of the association are assessed on the basis of the UN assessment schedule. The highest assessment is 30 per cent for Britain, while 14 members are assessed at the lowest rate of .75 per cent. For 1975-76, Canada's assessed share is 20.45 per cent, or £331,807, out of a budget of £1,622,735. (External Affairs funds)

(2) Commonwealth Fund for Technical Co-operation

Contributions to this program are voluntary, and are made by all member countries of the Commonwealth. Canada agreed to pay an amount equal to 200 per cent of the pledges made by less-developed members (with a ceiling of \$3 million *per annum*) for a three-year period that began in 1973. This ceiling was passed in 1974-75, and an upward revision to \$4 million was announced at the 1975 Heads of Government Meeting.

For 1975-76, Canada contributed \$4 million out of a budget of £5.5 million. This represents a 35 percent share of the 1975-76 budget. (CIDA funds)

(3) Commonwealth Foundation

Contributions to this program are voluntary and are made by 34 Commonwealth countries. For 1975-76, Canada contributed £66,375, representing 14.75 per cent of a total budget of £450,000. For the fiscal years 1976-79, Canada has agreed to contribute 32 per cent of the Foundation's budget of £700,000, which amounts to £216,000. (External Affairs funds)

(4) Commonwealth Youth Program

Contributions to this program are voluntary and are made by 27 Commonwealth countries. Canada has agreed to contribute between 30 per cent and 40 per cent of the program's expenditures for the fiscal years 1973-76. We are suggesting a Canadian contribution for this three-year period of £360,000, representing 33.3 per cent of total estimated CYP expenditures of £1,081,466, or 30 per cent of the established budget of £1,200,000. (External Affairs funds)

(5) Commonwealth Institute

Contributions are voluntary. For 1975-76, Canada contributed £1,800 towards the maintenance of the Canadian exhibit and £26,000 towards the Teacher Attachment Program sponsored by the Commonwealth Institute. (External Affairs funds)

(6) Commonwealth Scholarship and Fellowship Plan

Awards are granted on a voluntary basis by 15 Commonwealth countries. For the fiscal year 1975-76, Canada will contribute \$2.2 million (representing 281 awards out of a total of 1,114). (CIDA funds)

- (7) Commonwealth Rhodesian Scholarship Program
Contributions to the program are voluntary. Canada will make a contribution of \$75,000 for the fiscal year 1975-76. (CIDA funds)
- (8) Commonwealth Agricultural Bureaux
For the fiscal year 1975-76, Canada has agreed to contribute £316,400, representing 20 per cent of a total budget of £1,582,000. Voluntary contributions are made by 27 Commonwealth countries. (Department of Agriculture funds)
- (9) Commonwealth Legal Advisory Service
Contributions are voluntary. Canada will contribute £3,196 for the fiscal year 1975-76. (CIDA funds)
- (10) Commonwealth Forestry Institute
Contributions are voluntary. Canada has agreed to contribute a total of \$8,000 for the five-year period 1974-79. (Department of the Environment funds)
- (11) Commonwealth Science Council
Contributions are voluntary and are made by 22 Commonwealth countries, Canada will contribute £12,647 for the fiscal year 1975-76, representing 17.8 per cent of a total budget of £72,140. (Ministry of State for Science and Technology funds)
- (12) Commonwealth Air Transport Council
Canada contributed £12,545 in 1975-76, representing 20.46 per cent of a total budget of £61,314. Members are assessed for payments on the same scale as for payments to the Commonwealth Secretariat. Thirty-two members of the Commonwealth contribute. (External Affairs funds)
- (13) Commonwealth Advisory Aeronautical Research Council
Canada will contribute, for the fiscal year 1975-76, £2,000, representing 26 per cent of a total budget of £7,700. Eight Commonwealth countries contribute. (National Research Council funds)
- (14) The Royal Life-Saving Fund
Canada will contribute £500 in 1975-76. (Department of National Health and Welfare funds)
- (15) Commonwealth War Graves Commission
Canada will contribute £404,984 in the fiscal year 1976-77, representing 9.77 per cent of a total budget of £4,145,128. Contributions are assessed on the basis of the number of graves to a member. (Department of Veterans Affairs funds)

N.B.:

For the fiscal year 1975-76, the Canadian Government, whether through the Department of External Affairs or others, contributed approximately \$9,272,458 to the above Commonwealth bodies. This is exclusive of the Canadian contributions of over \$300 million in bilateral aid disbursements to Commonwealth countries in the 1974-75 fiscal year and of Canada's contribution to the African, Asian and Caribbean Development Banks.

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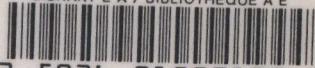
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