

UNISMUNC X



Committee: South Vietnam 1968

Topic: The Fight for a Unified
Vietnam

Committee Type: Joint
Crisis Committee (JCC)

December 8, 2024



Crisis Director: Jayden Link

Chair: Julie Mannhardt

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Conference Schedule:

<i>Opening Ceremonies</i>	<i>8:00 am - 9:15 am</i>
<i>Committee Session I</i>	<i>9:15 am - 1:00 pm</i>
<i>Lunch Break*</i>	<i>1:00 pm - 2:00 pm</i>
<i>Committee Session II</i>	<i>2:00 pm - 5:30 pm</i>
<i>Closing Ceremonies</i>	<i>5:30 pm - 6:15 pm</i>

All times are in EST.

**Lunch may be staggered*

Conference Policies:

UNISMUNC X aims to foster debate, bringing students the opportunity to explore a range of topics and encourage collaboration and teamwork between delegates. Be that as it may, UNIS stresses the importance of respectful language as UNISMUNC X will see delegates debating topics that, at times, may be heated or passionate. MUNEX encourages you to remember to stay respectful and mindful of the other students around you. We are so excited about this conference and trust that no issues will arise. The following expectations and policies are designed so that every delegate gets the most out of UNISMUNC.

Attire:

The Dress Code for UNISMUNC is formal Western business attire, and all delegates are expected to comply with this. Exceptions can be made for character purposes in crisis committees at the discretion of the chair. If you have an idea for an outfit for a crisis committee that does not fall into the parameters of traditional Western business attire, please ask your chair for permission before wearing the outfit.

Committee Assignments:

Committee assignments will be made on a first-come-first-served basis based on preference as communicated by the delegation's advisors (or individual delegates in the case of independent delegates), in order of receipt of preference. Before being assigned to a committee, payment must be received. If payment is not submitted in a timely manner, delegations face the risk of not receiving committee assignments of their choice.

Expectations in Committee:

As you engage in debates, we ask that delegates maintain politeness and respect at all times. While we recognize that you are representing your country's views, it is essential to express these perspectives without crossing the line into disrespectful or confrontational behavior.

Please respect one another when delegates are giving speeches. Only one delegate may speak at a time during moderated caucuses. To speak during a moderated caucus, you must raise your placard and wait to be recognized by the chair. During speeches, no ad hominem attacks will be allowed, should they occur, the subject will have the right to reply. Remember to be cognizant of your words and actions, and to listen to everyone's views and positions.

The Committee Chairs and Secretariat members are responsible for determining disruptive behavior.

Examples of disrespectful behavior may include but are not limited to:

- Speaking without being recognized,
- Use of cell phones,
- Note-passing unrelated to the committee,
- Use of technology when not allowed,
- Verbal, physical, or sexual harassment of other delegates.

The pre-writing of any resolution/directive clauses, crisis notes, or speeches is strictly forbidden and will be penalized. This does not include opening remarks. This does not include any writing during the lunch break, as UNISMUNC committees standardly operate with 'working lunches'.

UNISMUNC has a zero-tolerance policy for any plagiarism. This includes position papers, speeches, and resolutions. Improper citation of quotes and references may result in disqualification from awards or further disciplinary action at the discretion of the chairs.

Pricing:

Please see the registration section for more information. Details on committee assignments are below.

Spectators:

Please be aware that UNISMUNC X does not allow unregistered spectators. Student spectators are strictly prohibited. All advisors and delegates must be registered and pay the required fee(s). Non-compliance with this policy will result in exclusion from future invitations. We expect all

participating delegations to respect this policy. The Secretariat reserves the right to have any unregistered spectators removed from committee chambers and escorted off of the premises if necessary, as they see fit.

Technology:

All crisis committees are strictly no-tech. Neither laptops nor cell phones will be permitted during committee sessions in crisis committees.

General Assembly (GA) committees allow technology exclusively for the purpose of resolution writing. Delegates will be permitted to use their laptops to work on resolutions during unmoderated caucuses and outside of the committee chamber when allowed by the chair. It is, however, not permitted to use technology when a fellow delegate is speaking or during committee chambers during moderated caucuses. This includes your own speeches, so please write any notes by hand or have your opening remarks printed before the conference.

Awards Criteria:

UNISMUNC Chairs, Diases, and, in the case of crisis committees, Crisis Directors will work together to holistically evaluate delegates based on their performance throughout the entire day of debate. This includes:

- speeches given during moderated caucuses,
- performance during unmoderated caucuses (not only making one's voice heard but also including everyone in the discussion),
- writing/presenting resolutions/directions, especially those that pass,
- in crisis committees, as well as the detail and sophistication of crisis arcs.

Statement on Sustainability:

At UNIS Model UN, we greatly value the spirit of the Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) and hope to illuminate their ideas through debate. We strongly encourage you to take this into account when thinking about possible solutions you will discuss in debate. Sustainability in the context of historical conflicts, such as the Vietnam War, offers a powerful lens through which we can reflect of the SDGs. The war had profound implications on SDG 16 (Peace, Justice, and Strong Institutions). By considering this delegates have the opportunity to explore how peacebuilding efforts and the construction of governmental systems might have been approached differently. Delegates should reflect on how addressing the root causes of conflict and incorporating long-term sustainability into post-conflict recovery can prevent future wars and build more resilient societies.

Letter from the Director:

Greetings Delegates,

Welcome to UNISMUNC X! We are thrilled to be hosting yet another Joint Crisis Committee and have been working hard to ensure that this will be an incredible MUN experience for you all. This year, we have taken a very particular route with the topic of the JCC, combining the historically significant Vietnam War with the ever-so-hectic MUN world. We hope to immerse you into Debate and draw you into the realm of Cold War-era espionage and drama with all the secrecy and aggression of this communist vs. capitalist proxy war.

My name is Jayden, and I will be your Crisis Director. I'm a junior, and this is my third year doing MUN at UNIS, but I originally started doing MUN in Fifth Grade. I am the Under-Secretary-General of Public Relations, and I'm looking forward to seeing what ideas you come up with. I'm an IB History student, and I've always been fascinated with the Cold War and shows like *The Americans*. I think understanding the Cold War is incredibly important to understanding current events, and the Vietnam War is a great way to explore the motivations and power dynamics of the Cold War through the actions of a hot proxy war. I hope this committee serves as an opportunity not only for you to have fun and debate (which I promise you will) but also to learn something that will help you better understand the world we all currently live in. This is my second time running a Crisis committee and my first time directing a JCC! I hope to make this a great experience for you all.

The South Vietnam Chair will be my close friend Julie Mannhardt. This is her first year doing MUN, and she could not be more excited to see what you come up with. She is the president of the UNIS Finance Club and an avid volleyball player. Hoping to be a future economist, she would like to remind you: "The freer the market, the freer the people," and hopes you remember to consider the global economic impacts of your actions as you, South Vietnam Delegates, work towards defeating the communists!

The North Vietnam Chair will be Graham Chow. This is his third year participating in UNIS MUN and his fifth year doing MUN. He grew up in Hong Kong and is also interested in

history. He finds the ideas behind and workings of communist governments not only fascinating but also thinks it's an excellent foundation for an incredibly fun debate experience. He hopes you bring creative ideas to the table, and hopes that this rendition of the Vietnam War will not end in a boring way, like the original.

UNISMUNC X will not be requiring position papers to win awards but I highly encourage you to write one and send it to me at 26jlink@unis.org. Position papers are a great starting point for research and considering your character's crisis arc. Best Delegate has great advice on how to draft one, and I can give you feedback and some advice to start off committee if you reach out :).

Please keep in mind that international involvement was the key accelerator of the Vietnam War. Though some of you represent Vietnamese interests and some of you represent foreign interests, you all have connections to powers and groups outside of South Vietnam, whom you will need to contact through crisis notes to propel committee forward in your desired direction.

If you have any questions or concerns surrounding anything please feel free to reach out. We are looking forward to seeing all of you in committee and cannot wait to hear all of the exciting and unique solutions that are put forth and debated!

Sincerely,

Jayden Link
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Graham Chow
26gchow@unis.org

Julie Mannhardt
26jmannhardt@unis.org

A Brief Overview of the Committee:

The Vietnam War, deeply entwined with Cold War dynamics, escalated significantly by 1968, a pivotal year marked by the Tet Offensive. This major North Vietnamese and Viet Cong assault on South Vietnam during the Tet holiday shocked U.S. and allied forces. Despite initial successes by the communist forces, the offensive ultimately failed to achieve its strategic goals of sparking a widespread uprising or delivering a decisive military defeat to U.S. and ARVN forces. However, the intense fighting, particularly in cities like Hue and around the Marine base at Khe Sanh, exposed the vulnerability of U.S. and South Vietnamese positions, profoundly affecting U.S. public opinion.

In response to the Tet Offensive, U.S. military efforts intensified, with over 500,000 American troops deployed in Vietnam by 1968. The U.S. focused on search-and-destroy missions and extensive bombing campaigns targeting North Vietnamese supply lines, including the Ho Chi Minh Trail. Despite these efforts, the conflict remained unresolved, and public support for the war in the U.S. sharply declined, fueled by growing anti-war protests and disillusionment with the war's progress. This shift in public sentiment, coupled with the heavy casualties and lack of clear victories, led to President Johnson's decision not to seek re-election and the beginning of a strategic shift towards de-escalation and peace talks, which were initiated in Paris later that year. The events of 1968 marked a critical turning point in the Vietnam War, highlighting the limitations of U.S. military power and setting the stage for the eventual U.S. withdrawal.

Delegates now find themselves at a critical point in the war. Through military, intelligence, and diplomatic operations both sides of the conflict must gather all their resources in order to unify Vietnam with their interests in mind.

Committee Procedure:

Moderated Caucuses are structured discussions where delegates sign themselves up to give short, regulated speeches. The speaking time and topic of discussion are set when the motion is proposed, and delegates take turns to speak.

Unmoderated Caucuses are divided between a regular unmoderated caucus and a gentleman's unmoderated caucus where everybody remains seated. A regular unmod entails a period free of structured, regulated debate, where delegates can mill about the committee and work with their blocs.

Some actions that are carried over from the usual committee procedure:

- Point of Order
- Point of Information
- Appeal to the Chair
- Suspension of Debate
- Adjournment of Debate
- Closure of Debate
- Roll Call Vote
- Set the Speaker's Time
- Call a guest speaker

Instead of resolutions, the crisis will debate and pass **directives**. Directives are actions or communications undertaken by the entire committee as a group and are passed by a simple majority. Unlike resolutions, which may only be entertained at the end of a session, directives should be created and debated on as much as possible. The different types of papers used in crisis committees are explained in detail in the next section.

The Committee may call for external speakers to address the body. To do so, a committee member must move to invite the guest; that motion requires a majority vote to pass.

The goal of the crisis committee has two aspects-- firstly to work as a group to solve or influence the crisis in the interest of the group, and secondly to act in your character's best interests. In this committee, many of the characters are charged by different motives and have their individual goals; for instance, foreign parties will have vastly different goals from local officials.

Written Papers:

Crisis Notes: Crisis notes are notes used in order to take personal action from a delegate, without the need for committee approval. Crisis notes are therefore bound by a character's individual portfolio power. There are a myriad of ways to write Crisis notes, but be sure to sign your character's name at the end and address it to CRISIS on the front of your folded note.

Directives: A directive is a formal written instruction or order given by a delegate or a group of delegates to the chair or to other delegates. Directives are used to propose specific actions or solutions to address the crisis at hand. They can range from proposing specific policies or strategies to calling for specific actions by other delegates or bodies within the simulation. Directives are passed frequently throughout debate, and are a lot shorter than most resolutions. They are not restrained by a specific format, and while they do need signatories and sponsors, they do not require a distinction between preambulatory and operative clauses.

Communiqués: Communiqués are committee documents used to communicate with people outside of the committee. For example, Communiqués could be used when surrender terms or ultimatums are sent to the opponent or when the committee requests aid, advice or arms from their allies. Similar to Directives, they will require a minimum of four people on the document, with two sponsors and two signatories.

Press Releases: As the name says, press releases are committee documents addressed to the public. They can be used to inform or even misinform the public according to the desires of the committee. Similar to Directives and Communiqués, Press Releases will require a minimum of three people on the document, with one sponsor and two signatories.

Topic Background:

Vietnam War

Vietnam had been a French colony since 1887. Post-colonial rule, there was a three-decade war for control of the country. Both the U.S. and the USSR saw the situation as a significant Cold War engagement in a crucial part of the world rather than simply as a civil war separating North and South Vietnam. The domino theory, introduced by President Nixon, maintained that other countries in the region, such as Laos and Cambodia, would likewise succumb to the Communists if North Vietnam were to win, and was supported by U.S. policymakers. This resulted in the United States's strong involvement in the war, along with other anti-communist countries. Communist countries, though vice versa, led to the USSR and China strongly supporting the North Vietnamese and National Liberation Front throughout the war.

International Involvement:

United States

In August 1964, two U.S. destroyers in the Gulf of Tonkin reported being attacked by North Vietnamese forces, prompting President Lyndon B. Johnson to seek Congressional approval to increase U.S. military involvement in Vietnam. This led to the Gulf of Tonkin Resolution, passed on August 7, 1964, which authorized Johnson to take all necessary measures to ensure peace and security in Southeast Asia. This resolution became the legal foundation for escalating U.S. military actions during the Vietnam War. The situation in Vietnam had been deteriorating since the division of the country following the First Indochina War and the Geneva Conference in 1954. The U.S., aiming to contain communism, supported South Vietnam's leader, Ngo Dinh Diem, who failed to gain popular support and was overthrown and killed in 1963. Despite U.S. advisory and military aid, South Vietnam remained unstable and ineffective against the communist forces. By 1964, the Johnson Administration saw escalation as necessary, leading

to increased U.S. military actions, including bombing campaigns and the deployment of combat troops. The Gulf of Tonkin incident and resolution thus marked a significant escalation of U.S. involvement in the Vietnam War, culminating in extensive bombing operations and ground troop deployments aimed at weakening North Vietnam and supporting the South Vietnamese government. By June 1965, there were 75,000 U. S. troops in Vietnam. On July 8, the president ordered an increase in troop strength to 125,000 (including the 1st Cavalry Division). The president also authorized an increase in troop strength to 219,000 by November 1965.

The decision to increase U.S. military involvement in Vietnam was the result of extensive deliberation within the Johnson Administration. By 1966, as the conflict intensified, Johnson approved some of the Joint Chiefs of Staff's requests for more bombing, although not all, and the war continued to expand. The Rolling Thunder bombing campaign failed to achieve its goals. Instead of reducing North Vietnamese infiltration, the number increased from 35,000 men in 1965 to around 90,000 in 1967. The bombing campaign seemed to strengthen North Vietnamese resolve rather than bring them to negotiations. In addition to the air campaign, ground operations also escalated. General Westmoreland requested troop increases, receiving approval for 431,000 troops by mid-1967, and later aimed for 542,000 by the end of that year. The ground war inflicted significant damage on North Vietnamese and Vietcong forces, yet Westmoreland and the Joint Chiefs continued to push for further expansion, requesting an additional 200,000 troops in the spring of 1967 to intensify the war effort.

Public support for the Vietnam War began to decline in 1967 for several reasons. The U.S. was drafting 30,000 Americans each month, and by mid-1967, 13,000 American soldiers had died with little progress to show for it. The war was also financially burdensome, leading President Johnson to propose a 10% surcharge to cover costs. Many newspapers that had once supported the war turned against it, and public approval for Johnson's handling of the war dropped to 28% by October 1967. Significant dissent existed within the government. The CIA reported that the war was not going well, contrary to General Westmoreland's optimistic assertions. Additionally, Johnson's restrictions on bombing and refusal to activate reserves frustrated the Joint Chiefs of Staff. Johnson decided to increase troop strength to 525,000 and sent Clark Clifford and Maxwell Taylor to Asia to seek more support, but they found little enthusiasm among Asian countries. Clifford realized that the domino theory, which was a

primary justification for U.S. involvement, was not a concern for Asian nations. Despite this, he paradoxically recommended escalating U.S. efforts in Vietnam, struggling to reconcile his new insights with longstanding policies. Although he had serious doubts, Clifford continued to support the war, believing it was the best course of action at the time.

South Korea

South Korea's involvement in the Vietnam War was marked by significant military engagement and controversial actions. Initially, in 1964, South Korea began deploying non-combat units to Vietnam. These early deployments laid the groundwork for more extensive involvement, which was influenced by the desire to strengthen ties with the United States and ensure American military support against North Korea.

The first major deployment of combat troops occurred in 1965 when South Korea sent the Capital (Tiger) Division and the 2nd Marine Brigade (Blue Dragons) to Vietnam. By the end of that year, over 18,000 South Korean soldiers were stationed in the country. This number increased rapidly, reaching nearly 45,000 troops by 1966. These forces were known for their rigorous training, discipline, and effectiveness in combat, contributing to a fearsome reputation among the Viet Cong. During this period, South Korean forces were involved in several significant military operations. One notable success was the defense of their base in Trah Bin Dong in 1967, where South Korean marines repelled a large-scale Viet Cong assault. Such operations highlighted the tactical prowess and resilience of South Korean troops. However, this period also saw instances of severe misconduct and human rights abuses by South Korean soldiers. Civilian massacres were reported, with accusations that South Korean troops were responsible for the deaths of numerous Vietnamese civilians.

Australia

Australia's involvement in the Vietnam War began in July and August 1962 with the arrival of the Australian Army Training Team Vietnam (AATTV), consisting of 30 military advisers. This initial deployment marked the start of Australia's military commitment to South

Vietnam as part of the allied forces led by the United States, aimed at combating the Vietcong and the North Vietnamese Army.

In 1964, the National Service Act was introduced, implementing a scheme of selective conscription designed to create an army of 40,000 full-time soldiers. Many of these conscripts were sent to Vietnam. In August 1964, the Royal Australian Air Force (RAAF) sent a flight of Caribou transports to Vung Tau. As the situation in Vietnam deteriorated, the Australian government responded to U.S. requests for additional support. On 29 April 1965, Prime Minister Robert Menzies announced that Australia would send a battalion of combat troops to Vietnam. In June 1965, the 1st Battalion, Royal Australian Regiment (1RAR), was dispatched to serve alongside the U.S. 173d Airborne Brigade in Bien Hoa province.

In March 1966, the Australian government decided to strengthen and make its involvement more identifiable by dispatching a task force to replace 1RAR. This task force consisted of two battalions and support services, including a RAAF squadron of Iroquois helicopters, and was based at Nui Dat, Phuoc Tuy province. Unlike 1RAR, the task force was assigned its own area of operations and included conscripts called up under the National Service Scheme. At its peak, the task force numbered about 8,500 troops. By July 1966, RAAF fighter pilots began serving as airborne forward air controllers (FACs), flying USAF aircraft to support allied ground forces. Thirty-six Australian FACs served between 1966 and 1971. A third RAAF squadron, consisting of Canberra jet bombers, was committed in 1967. Additionally, destroyers of the Royal Australian Navy (RAN) joined U.S. patrols off the North Vietnamese coast, and the RAN also contributed a clearance diving team and a helicopter detachment operating with the U.S. Army from October 1967. By August 1966, Australian forces were engaged in one of their heaviest actions of the war at the Battle of Long Tan. A company of 6RAR held off a much larger enemy force in a rubber plantation near Long Tan, resulting in 245 Vietcong dead and many more wounded. Seventeen Australians were killed, and 25 were wounded. Throughout 1967, Australian forces continued their operations, with the RAAF and RAN playing significant roles in supporting ground troops and conducting various missions.

The Philippines

The Philippines' involvement in the Vietnam War started with a significant shift in policy under President Ferdinand Marcos. Initially, President Diosdado Macapagal had proposed sending troops to Vietnam, which Marcos, then president of the senate, vehemently opposed. However, after becoming president, Marcos requested congressional approval to send a combat engineer battalion to Vietnam in February 1966. This request stunned the nation and led to widespread debate, as it was a stark reversal of his previous stance. Marcos justified the deployment by emphasizing national security and the fulfillment of international commitments, particularly under the Southeast Asian Treaty Organization (SEATO).

A combination of pressure from the United States, direct requests from the South Vietnamese government, and the promise of American economic and military aid influenced the decision to send Filipino troops to Vietnam. The U.S. actively sought to involve allied nations in the Vietnam conflict through the "More Flags" program, offering substantial logistical and financial support to the Philippines. Despite significant opposition and concerns about being drawn deeper into the war, the Philippines deployed over 2,000 men, primarily combat engineers, by 1968. The move was controversial and seen by many as politically motivated, aimed at securing U.S. aid and enhancing Marcos' administration's standing.

Thailand

During the Vietnam War, Thailand played a crucial role in supporting U.S. combat operations in Indochina, which included Vietnam, Cambodia, and Laos. Initially, in the early 1950s, the Viet Minh's invasion of Laos posed a direct threat to Thailand, prompting the CIA to begin training Thai border police to counter communist incursions. This effort was bolstered when William Donovan, a former leader of the OSS, was appointed as the U.S. ambassador to Thailand. Throughout the late 1950s and early 1960s, the U.S. increased military aid and economic support to Thailand, aiming to establish it as a key anti-communist stronghold in the region. Thai forces, trained by the CIA, commenced covert operations in Laos.

By 1961, North Vietnam and China were actively supporting communist operations throughout the region, leading to a communist revolt in northeastern Thailand. In response, U.S. Special Forces began training Thai forces, who continued covert missions into Laos. The situation escalated in 1962 when President Kennedy deployed U.S. Marines to Thailand amid

rising tensions. American planes from Thai bases began bombing Viet Cong targets in Laos, and the Royal Thai Air Force and Laotian planes based in Thailand started flying bombing missions over Pathet Lao-held territories. In 1964, the Gulf of Tonkin incident, where North Vietnamese torpedo boats attacked an American destroyer, led to increased U.S. airstrikes against North Vietnam from Thai bases. By 1966, Thailand openly pledged combat troops to Vietnam, and thousands of Thai volunteers and troops, including the Queen's Cobras and the Black Panther Division, were deployed. These troops participated in various combat operations in Vietnam and Laos. The commitment of Thai forces was significant, with covert and overt military operations intensifying over the years. The increasing involvement of Thai forces in the conflict drew guerrilla attacks within Thailand, including a major attack on Udorn Royal Thai Air Base in 1967.

Soviet Union

The global Cold War greatly influenced the conflict, with the US and USSR providing support to their respective allies in the Vietnam War. The USSR served as North Vietnam's major supplier of military resources such as arms and missiles to fight against Southern forces. As a world communist power, they provided support in order to further the spread of communism in Asia. Before 1964, the USSR's aid remained relatively passive, providing information, technical advisors and moral support, as Soviet leader Nikita Khrushchev did not want to expand the war. However, when Khrushchev stepped down from power on October 14, 1964, a new defense treaty was signed that would provide North Vietnam with military equipment, financial aid as well as military advisors to assist in the training of the People's Army of Vietnam (PAVN). This solidified Moscow's position as North Vietnam's main arms supplier.

Their relations continued to develop through November 1968, when the Soviet Union and North Vietnam signed a new set of military and economic treaties. This was done to strengthen North Vietnam's defenses by supplying them with food, petroleum, transportation equipment, iron and steel, fertilizers, munitions and other commodities. The USSR provided major support by assisting North Vietnam with both military weapons and necessities that was vital in achieving the successes in their operations in South Vietnam. They have also helped by sending over over 3,000 USSR troops to assist in the fight against the South as well as sending over spies from the

KGB and GRU to help with intelligence operations and discovering intel. The Soviet Union also assisted North Vietnam on the diplomatic stage through their position on the United Nations. They, along with China, have helped back up North Vietnam efforts as well as criticize the US's involvement in South Vietnam on the world stage through the United Nations General Assembly. They highlighted the US's aggression against the North as well as both vetoing US backed resolutions that sought to either condemn North Vietnam or take drastic military measures against it.

China

While the Soviet Union acts as the supplier of the military aid and other resources provided to South Vietnam, China acts as the supply route for those resources to be imported into Vietnam. Thanks to their control over the South China Sea and the trade routes that ran along it, China is able to successfully transport many of the resources provided by the Soviet Union over to North Vietnam. This was a vital role as China has helped sustain North Vietnam's soldiers throughout major battles and stalemates, allowing North Vietnam to maintain their geographical position of power. China has also helped train numerous soldiers from both the Viet Cong as well as the North Vietnamese Army (NVA) and helped transport these soldiers to and from China. They willingly helped North Vietnam to counterbalance the aid given to South Vietnam by the US as well as further the spread of communism across Asia. Along with the Soviet Union, China has helped give diplomatic and political support for North Vietnam in international forums and committees. While backing up North Vietnam, the Chinese government advocated for the war to end in peace by encouraging direct talks between the two sides as well as suggesting for the US to cease their bombing campaigns and discussing the withdrawal of US troops from the South. This is because they did not want the war to reach the extreme in which it would reach over borders and affect China. The support and resources provided by China has remained instrumental when it has come to fighting against the South Vietnamese and US forces.

The Tet Offensive Overview

In late January 1968, during the Vietnamese lunar new year (Tet) holiday, the North Vietnamese Army (NVA) and Viet Cong (VC) launched a major coordinated offensive against U.S. and allied forces across South Vietnam. This surprise attack, known as the Tet Offensive, led to fierce fighting, especially in the city of Hue and around the Marine base at Khe Sanh. Although initially successful in causing widespread disruption, the offensive failed to achieve its main objectives of a military defeat of U.S. forces or sparking a general uprising against the South Vietnamese government. After several weeks, U.S. and South Vietnamese forces managed to repel the attackers.

By 1968, the U.S. had nearly 500,000 personnel in South Vietnam, supported by 650,000 ARVN troops, under the command of General William C. Westmoreland. Despite optimistic assessments of degrading North Vietnam's capabilities, the Tet Offensive demonstrated the enemy's resilience. Over the evening of January 30-31, more than 84,000 NVA and VC troops attacked over 100 targets, including major cities, the capital Saigon, and U.S. bases.

Significant battles during the Tet Offensive included:

1. Siege of Khe Sanh: Starting on January 21, this battle saw 6,000 U.S. Marines defending the base against 20,000 NVA troops for 77 days, until its relief on April 8. The true purpose of this siege remains debated.
2. Battle of Hue: A combined NVA and VC force captured much of the city, including the Citadel, on the first day of Tet. U.S. Marines and ARVN troops took 26 days of intense urban combat to recapture Hue, which resulted in severe damage and high civilian casualties.
3. Attack on Saigon: Communist forces targeted symbolic sites like the U.S. embassy and the city's radio station. Despite some breaches, U.S. and ARVN forces cleared Saigon of organized resistance by early March.

By mid-February, most communist forces were defeated. Approximately 1,000 U.S. and 2,000 ARVN personnel died, compared to at least 40,000 communist losses. Despite this, the Tet Offensive profoundly impacted U.S. perceptions of the war, revealing that the NVA and VC

could strike anywhere and that ARVN could not handle these attacks alone. General Westmoreland's request for more troops was denied by President Lyndon B. Johnson, who announced he would not seek reelection in March 1968. This led to a shift in U.S. strategy under President Richard Nixon, starting the process of Vietnamization and eventual U.S. withdrawal from Vietnam. The Tet Offensive thus marked a military victory but a strategic defeat for the United States.

Current Situation:

The Tet Offensive has ended with heavy casualties on both sides as the conflict remains intense and unresolved. North Vietnamese forces and the Viet Cong are regrouping and reinforcing their positions despite their recent losses while the ARVN, with ongoing US military support, continues to defend major cities and key strategic locations.

The United States continues to maintain a significant military presence in South Vietnam with around 500,000 troops deployed. US forces are currently focused on conducting search-and-destroy missions and bombing campaigns targeting North Vietnamese supply lines, including the Ho Chi Minh Trail while public support for the war is waning internationally, especially in the US with ongoing anti-war protests causing growing pressure on the government to de-escalate and find a peaceful resolution.

South Vietnamese President Nguyen Van Thieu's government remains in power but faces challenges in maintaining political stability and public support though corruption and internal dissent continue to undermine the effectiveness and legitimacy of the South Vietnamese government which remains largely controlled by the United States. Their military strategy is currently focussed on rebuilding and reinforcing ARVN units, leveraging continued US military aid and training programs, conducting counter-insurgency operations to target Viet Cong strongholds, and attempting to disrupt enemy supply lines within South Vietnam.

Both sides currently face strategic dilemmas. The US and South Vietnam must decide whether to escalate military efforts or push for a negotiated settlement, while North Vietnam must balance continued resistance with the potential for diplomatic gains. The outcome of the conflict remains uncertain, with significant implications for the regional and global balance of power.

Media and Propaganda remain integral pieces in the war. Government and US-Supported Media are used to promote governmental legitimacy and counter communist propaganda. The establishment of television and improved radio broadcasts has helped spread message more and highlights development and stability e.g., economic development, infrastructure and social

programs. This media also aims to bolster public confidence with Anti-Communist Messaging emphasizing the threat posed by the communist North, highlighting atrocities committed by the Viet Cong and NVA, and using fear of communism for support for the government and military. Media that promotes the US-South Vietnamese Alliance and undermines the Viet Cong Influence through Public Service Announcements Campaigns warning against Viet Cong and encouraging reporting suspicious activities will continue to remain integral in helping maintain a strong South-Vietnam going forward.

Initial peace talks have begun in Paris, involving representatives from the US, South Vietnam, North Vietnam, and the Viet Cong. They hope to discuss significant disagreements over key issues such as the withdrawal of US troops, the political future of South Vietnam, and the status of the Viet Cong.

Delegate Positions:

President Nguyen Van Thieu

Portfolio Powers: Supreme authority over South Vietnamese policies and control over military and political strategies.

Nguyen Van Thieu served as president of South Vietnam from September 1967. Born to a wealthy peasant family in Ninh Thuan province, he was educated in a French school and converted to Catholicism. Initially fighting with the Viet Minh, he defected to pro-French groups in 1946. Thieu joined the South Vietnamese military, received extensive training, and supported Ngo Dinh Diem before participating in the 1963 coup against him. Promoted to major general in 1964, Thieu joined the military junta led by Nguyen Cao Ky. He was elected president in 1967 with 34 percent of the vote.

Prime Minister Nguyen Cao Ky

Portfolio Powers: Executive authority in government administration and influence over military and political decisions.

Nguyen Cao Ky is a South Vietnamese military and political leader known for his flamboyant manner and militant policies. He attracted much attention because of his fervent anti-communism and his bravado, making him highly favored by U.S. advisers in Vietnam. He was named commander of South Vietnam's air force after the 1963 overthrow of the Ngo Dinh Diem government. With U.S. aid, Ky soon built up a fighting force of 10,000 men. In June 1965, Ky, together with Major General Nguyen Van Thieu and General Duong Van Minh, led a military coup to unseat the government of Premier Phan Huy Quat. Ky provoked widespread opposition to authoritarian policies. In 1967, the top military leaders agreed that Thieu would run for president and Ky for vice president of a new regime. Unhappy with his new position, Ky is now becoming an outspoken critic of Thieu's administration.

Defense Minister General Nguyen Van Vy

Portfolio Powers: Command over South Vietnamese armed forces and authority to allocate military resources.

Nguyễn Văn Vy was a South Vietnamese soldier who rose to the rank of lieutenant general in the Army of the Republic of Vietnam (ARVN). He currently serves as Minister of National Defense for South Vietnam. He initially served in the Vietnamese National Army but was arrested in 1955 after trying to take over the Army in the name of Emperor Bảo Đại to stop Ngô Đình Diệm from taking power fraudulently and was forced to flee to France as an exile. Vy returned to South Vietnam after the 1963 coup, which removed Diem from power and led to his assassination. He was arrested during the January 1964 South Vietnamese coup for being a member of the military committee command staff under General Dương Văn Minh but was soon released. He rose to the rank of Lieutenant General and was appointed Chief of Staff of the Army of the Republic of Vietnam in 1967. In February 1967, Prime Minister Nguyễn Cao Kỳ appointed him and the Defense Minister, General Cao Văn Viên, to a committee to root out corruption among senior military personnel. President Nguyễn Văn Thiệu has now replaced Viên with Vy as Defense Minister.

Foreign Minister Tran Van Do

Portfolio Powers: Chief diplomat with international access and influence over foreign policy and negotiations.

Trần Văn Đỗ is a notable South Vietnamese intellectual and politician who has held key governmental positions in both the State of Vietnam and South Vietnam. Born in Phủ Lý, Tonkin, French Indochina, he pursued higher education in France, earning a medical degree from the University of Paris. Đỗ's political career began as the Minister of Foreign Affairs for the State of Vietnam from 1954 to 1955 under Prime Minister Ngô Đình Diệm, during which he refused to sign the Geneva Agreement, opposing the division of Vietnam. He continues to serve his country as the Deputy Prime Minister and Minister of Foreign Affairs of South Vietnam.

General Cao Van Vien

Portfolio Powers: Chief of Joint General Staff with military command and authority to coordinate military operations.

Cao Văn Viên has been a prominent general in the Army of the Republic of Vietnam (ARVN) during the Vietnam War. Viên initially fought against French colonial rule but later joined independent groups after becoming disillusioned with communism. He graduated from the University of Saigon and the Cap Saint-Jacques Military School, rapidly rising through the military ranks. During the early 1960s, Viên played significant roles, including participating in military intelligence and logistics, commanding the Airborne Division, and supporting coups. Notably, he refused to participate in the 1963 coup against President Ngô Đình Diệm but supported the January 1964 coup against President Dương Văn Minh. Viên was decorated for his actions in the Battle of Kiến Phong and later served as Chief of the Joint General Staff. His tenure was marked by attempts at strategic reform, including proposing invasions and improving military and pacification strategies. He became Defense Minister in January 1967, working to root out corruption and engaging in diplomatic efforts. He played a critical role in defending Saigon during the Tet Offensive of January 1968, demonstrating his leadership in the face of a major attack. Despite his strategic influence, his position and authority diminished as the U.S. implemented Vietnamization, and by late 1968, his influence waned with American decisions increasingly bypassing South Vietnamese leaders.

Major General Nguyễn Ngọc Loan

Portfolio Powers: Intelligence Suppression and Operations, and Media/Propaganda Influence

Major General Nguyễn Ngọc Loan is a key figure in the Vietnam War, serving as Chief of the South Vietnamese National Police. Loan started his military career in 1951, receiving training in Morocco and the United States. He rose to prominence in 1965, becoming director of the Military Security Service. By 1966, he was also head of the National Police, wielding significant power. He is known for his nationalist stance and often clashes with U.S. officials, resisting American interference in South Vietnamese matters. He has now become infamous for executing a Viet Cong prisoner, Lém, whom Loan accused of killing South Vietnamese officials, Nguyễn

Văn Lém, during the Tet Offensive on February 1, 1968. This act, captured in a photograph by Eddie Adams and a video by NBC, intensified anti-war sentiment worldwide. Loan was replaced as National Police Director in June 1968 after being wounded, but his actions and the media coverage around them continue to play a crucial role in shaping public perception of the Vietnam War, highlighting its harsh realities and fueling the anti-war movement.

General Duong Van Minh

Portfolio Powers: Military advisor with strategic expertise and influence over high-level military planning.

Duong Van Minh, also known as "Big Minh," started his military career in the 1940s in the French colonial army and later joined the South Vietnamese military in 1954. Minh gained respect from the United States by defeating the armed Hoa Hao sect and the Binh Xuyen pirate organization in 1956. As a military adviser to President Ngo Dinh Diem from 1962 to 1963, Minh was well-regarded by both his officers and the Americans. He was involved in the coup that resulted in Diem's assassination in 1963, subsequently becoming the leader of South Vietnam. However, his rule was short-lived, lasting only two months before being overthrown by General Nguyen Khanh. Minh went into exile in Thailand but maintained connections with American supporters, particularly within the CIA. He has recently been brought back from exile by the United States and emerged as a potential leader of a "third force" that could negotiate with the North Vietnamese to avoid an armed takeover.

General Tran Thien Khiem

Portfolio Powers: Military and Political Maneuvering, and Diplomatic Relations

Trần Thiện Khiêm is a key South Vietnamese general and politician. His military career began after graduating from the Vietnamese National Military Academy in 1947. He initially supported President Ngô Đình Diệm, helping to suppress a coup attempt in 1960, which earned him a promotion and Diệm's trust. However, by 1963, Khiêm had turned against Diệm, playing a

significant role in the coup that led to Diệm's assassination. In January 1964, Khiêm joined forces with General Nguyễn Khánh to overthrow General Dương Văn Minh but soon fell out with Khánh due to religious and political differences. This culminated in Khiêm being implicated in another coup attempt in September 1964, leading to his exile as the Ambassador to the United States. In February 1965, Khiêm supported Colonel Phạm Ngọc Thảo and General Lâm Văn Phát in their coup attempt against Khánh. Although the coup failed, it resulted in Khánh's forced exile. Khiêm has now returned to Vietnam, where the political climate is becoming more favorable.

Tôn Thất Thiện

Portfolio Powers: Minister of Information with media control and authority over government communications and propaganda.

Tôn Thất Thiện is a South Vietnamese nationalist who has served under both Ho Chi Minh and Ngô Đình Diệm. Thiện's early life and education in Huế exposed him to both Confucian traditions and Western political ideals. He served in the Viet Minh coalition government in 1945-46 before distancing himself upon realizing its communist nature. After studying in Europe, he returned to South Vietnam and served as press aide to Ngô Đình Diệm. He then served as Minister of Information. Thiện was visiting his ailing father in Huế when the city was heavily attacked during the Tet Offensive. He narrowly escaped captivity, but his mother was mortally wounded by mortar shrapnel and died due to a lack of medical care. This tragic experience deepened his anti-communist convictions.

Nguyen Huu Hanh

Portfolio Powers: Economic advisor with policy influence and authority over economic planning and development.

Nguyễn Hữu Hạnh is a South Vietnamese military officer who has risen to the rank of Brigadier General. Despite his high-ranking position in the South Vietnamese Army, Hạnh is a Viet Cong sympathizer and spy. Hạnh's complex allegiances have been shaped by his early exposure to communist ideals through his uncle and his disillusionment with U.S. intervention in Vietnamese politics. He has played a crucial role in various military operations and political events since the

1950s, including his participation in the November 1963 coup against President Ngô Đình Diệm. Hạng's influence has extended into the establishment of the 44th Special Tactical Zone in 1968, where he commands border surveillance efforts along the Cambodian frontier.

Nguyen Duc Thang

Portfolio Powers: Political advisor with strategic influence and authority over political campaigns and policies.

Nguyễn Đức Thắng is a high-ranking officer in the ARVN. His military career began in 1951 when he enlisted in the Vietnam National Army and trained at the Nam Định Reserve Officer School and the Thu Duc Reserve Officer School. After serving in various artillery and infantry roles, he transitioned to the ARVN following the Geneva Agreement in 1954. Throughout the 1960s, Thắng has held several key positions. He commanded the 1st Infantry Division in early 1961 and was promoted to Colonel. Later that year, he took command of the 5th Infantry Division. In December 1962, he moved to the General Staff as Chief of the Operations Planning Department. By mid-1964, he became Chief of Department 3 of the General Staff and was promoted to Brigadier General. In 1965, he joined the Rural Construction Committee in the Nguyễn Cao Kỳ government and was promoted to Major General. In early 1968, Thắng was appointed Commander of the IV Corps and the 4th Tactical Zone, a crucial role during the Tet Offensive. He was promoted to Lieutenant General in June 1968. Shortly after, he became Commander of the Central Artillery before having now returned to the General Staff in late 1968.

Nguyen Khoa Nam

Portfolio Powers: Military region commander with operational authority and influence over regional military strategies.

Nguyễn Khoa Nam is a Major General in the ARVN. His military career began with the French Army's Reserve Officer School and continued with the Vietnam National Army before transitioning to ARVN. Initially serving as a platoon leader and company commander in the

Paratrooper Battalion, he quickly advanced through the ranks. In 1955, after the transition to ARVN, he took on various roles in the Paratrooper units, including serving as a parachute instructor in France. Throughout the late 1950s and early 1960s, Nam's career saw rapid advancement. His expertise in jungle warfare and infantry tactics honed through advanced training in the United States, contributed to his rise. Promoted to Major in 1965, he led the 5th Airborne Battalion and then served as an Assistant Officer to the Commander of the 1st Infantry Division. He now commands the newly established 3rd Airborne Battalion and continues his ascent, a position he has held since 1967.

Tran Van Trung

Portfolio Powers: Psychological warfare expert with media control and authority over propaganda and psychological operations.

Tran Van Trung is a notable Lieutenant General of the Army of the ARVN. After graduating from the first class at the National Military Academy in Vietnam, he has primarily held various training and support positions, earning the nickname "Office General." Trung's significant involvement in the Vietnam War began when he was appointed Director of the Psychological Warfare Department in 1957. In December 1966, Trung was appointed Assistant Chief of the General Staff and Director of the General Department of Political Warfare, a critical position in the war. He was promoted to Major General on June 19, 1968, marking his increasing influence within the ARVN. As the Director of the General Department of Political Warfare, Trung plays a crucial role in the ARVN's political strategy and operations.

Ambassador to South Vietnam Henry Cabot Lodge Jr. (US)

Portfolio Powers: Diplomatic immunity, access to South Vietnamese leadership, and ability to influence US-Vietnamese policy.

Henry Cabot Lodge (1902-1985) was a significant U.S. diplomat involved in the Vietnam War. Appointed as the U.S. ambassador to South Vietnam in 1963, Lodge played a pivotal role in U.S. relations with the South Vietnamese leadership. He believed that the war could not be won while

President Ngo Dinh Diem remained in power. Consequently, Lodge, alongside CIA agents, informed South Vietnamese generals that the U.S. would not oppose a coup against Diem. This led to the November 1963 coup, during which Diem and his brother were killed. Lodge's tenure as ambassador lasted until 1964 and then again from 1965 to 1967, making him a crucial channel of communication between Washington and South Vietnam during critical years of the conflict.

George Doole

Portfolio Powers: control over covert logistics and transportation operations of Air America and ability to initiate and oversee intelligence and reconnaissance missions

George Arntzen Doole Jr. has a significant role to play in the Vietnam War through his management of the CIA's proprietary airline network. After a career as a pilot and service in the U.S. Army Air Corps during World War II and the Korean War, Doole joined the CIA in 1953. He was recruited by Charles P. Cabell to oversee Civil Air Transport, which later expanded into a vast network of CIA-operated airlines under the Pacific Corporation. This network currently includes airlines like Civil Air Transport and Southern Air Transport, employing nearly 20,000 people and operating around 200 aircraft. These airlines are instrumental in supporting U.S. operations in Vietnam by transporting troops and supplies and conducting covert missions. Additionally, Doole's expertise in obfuscating ownership makes it difficult for the CIA to track the full extent of the network's assets.

William Colby

Portfolio Powers: Covert Operations and Counterinsurgency, and Strategic Policy Influence

William Egan Colby has played a pivotal role in the CIA's involvement in Vietnam, holding several key positions that significantly impacted the course of the war. From 1959 to 1962, Colby served as the CIA's deputy chief and later as the chief of station in Saigon. In these roles, he was deeply involved in supporting South Vietnamese President Ngô Đình Diệm, focusing on strengthening South Vietnamese capabilities to combat the growing VietCong insurgency. Colby emphasized the strategic importance of rural areas in the conflict, believing that the war would be won or lost in the villages. In 1962, Colby returned to Washington to become the chief of the

CIA's Far East Division, a position that placed him at the center of U.S. intelligence operations across East Asia. During this time, he was instrumental in shaping U.S. policy in Vietnam, and he was a vocal critic of the U.S. decision to withdraw support from President Diêm, arguing that it weakened the South Vietnamese government's position. By 1968, Colby has been sent back to Vietnam to lead the Civil Operations and Revolutionary Development Support (CORDS) program. This initiative aimed at pacification and "winning hearts and minds" among the rural population. He also oversaw the Phoenix Program, a controversial operation intended to dismantle the Viet Cong's infrastructure by targeting its leadership. Although the program faced criticism for alleged use of assassinations and torture, Colby defended its necessity and effectiveness. His efforts reflected a broader shift in U.S. strategy towards securing the countryside rather than relying solely on military engagements.

Chun Doo-hwan

Portfolio Powers: South Korean Military Strategy/Operations and Intelligence Management

Chun Doo-hwan, born in Korea when it was part of the Empire of Japan, rose from humble beginnings to become a significant military and political figure in South Korea. After graduating from the Korea Military Academy in 1955, Chun specialized in guerrilla tactics and psychological warfare, furthering his training in the United States. He built a network of influential allies during his time at the academy, which would later support his rise to power. In 1961, Chun, then a captain, played a key role in supporting Park Chung Hee's May 16 coup, which led to his rapid promotion and placement under Park's command. Chun's career advanced swiftly as he held various influential positions, including Chief Civil Affairs Officer for the Supreme Council for National Reconstruction and Personnel Director at the Korean Central Intelligence Agency (KCIA). By now, he has become an advisor to the Army Chief of Staff, solidifying his influence within the military and intelligence communities.

Ted Serong

Portfolio Powers: Counter-Insurgency Warfare Specialist and Military Advisor

Brigadier Francis Philip is a senior officer in the Australian Army. After joining the army in response to his anti-communist convictions, Serong has served primarily in training and strategic

roles during World War II, with some combat experience in the Pacific theater. In the post-war years, Serong had a significant impact on the training of the Australian Army, particularly in jungle warfare and counter-insurgency, which became increasingly important due to regional conflicts in Southeast Asia. His expertise led him to become an instructor for the Burmese Army in the late 1950s. Serong's most notable contribution has been during the Vietnam War. In 1962, he was appointed to lead the Australian Army Training Team Vietnam (AATTV), which was tasked with training South Vietnamese forces. His leadership is characterized by autonomy and a deep commitment to preventing the spread of communism in Southeast Asia. He now serves as a senior advisor to the South Vietnamese Police Field Force and remained in Vietnam after his official retirement from the Australian Army in 1968. He continues to work as a security and intelligence advisor to the South Vietnamese government, as well as for various U.S. organizations.

Delfin Castro

Portfolio Powers: Military Operations Coordination, and Counterinsurgency Expertise

Delfin C. Castro is a major general in the Armed Forces of the Philippines, known for his significant military career. Born in 1925 in Norzagaray, Bulacan, Castro was among the first batch of post-World War II graduates of the Philippine Military Academy in 1951. After serving in the Korean War, he was assigned to various roles within the Philippines, including anti-insurgency operations against communist forces. In 1966, Castro was reassigned to the Philippine Army and selected to join the 1st Philippine Civic Action Group – Vietnam (PHILCAG-V). Serving from 1966 to 1968, he has acted as the Liaison Officer for Operations and Intelligence with the Free World Military Assistance Headquarters under the Military Assistance Command, Vietnam (MACV). His role involves coordinating with U.S. military and government officials, and his duties take him to key areas in South Vietnam, including Tây Ninh Province and Quảng Trị Province. During his service, he has witnessed and participated in significant military engagements, including the Tet Offensive.

Vang Po

Portfolio Powers: Advocate for Hmong Veterans and Refugees, and Guerilla Warfare Leader

Vang Pao is a major general in the Royal Lao Army and a key figure during the Vietnam War, particularly in leading the Hmong ethnic group. Born in the northeastern region of Laos, Vang began his military career during World War II, joining the French military to defend his people against Japanese forces. His rise to prominence came during the 1960s and 70s, when he commanded the Secret Army, a force primarily composed of Hmong soldiers. This army was trained and supported by the CIA to fight against the communist forces of the Pathet Lao and the People's Army of Vietnam. Vang Pao's leadership of the Secret Army was crucial in the covert war in Laos, part of the broader Vietnam War. His forces conducted guerrilla warfare, disrupted North Vietnamese supply lines, and provided intelligence to U.S. forces.

Questions to Consider:

1. In light of the Tet Offensive exposing vulnerabilities, what specific measures can we take to strengthen our military defenses and improve internal security to prevent future large-scale attacks?
2. What steps can we take to address corruption, improve governance, and enhance public confidence in the South Vietnamese government to maintain political stability and support for the war effort?
3. What should be our key objectives and non-negotiable points in the Paris Peace Talks, and how can we best position ourselves to achieve a favorable and lasting peace settlement?
4. How can we improve our public relations campaigns to boost morale, counter Viet Cong propaganda, and convince both domestic and international audiences of our legitimacy and progress?
5. What economic and social development programs should we prioritize to improve living conditions, reduce poverty, and undermine Viet Cong influence in rural areas?

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