UNIT 3, LESSON 3

FREEDOM IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY: CASE STUDIES OF CHINA, POLAND, AND SOUTH AFRICA

INTRODUCTION

In this lesson, students will analyze progress and setbacks in democracy and individual freedom during the twentieth century. Using China, Poland, and South Africa as case studies, students will research the nature of the state and how governments in each country repressed individual freedoms. Using the case studies, as well as oral histories that document the experience of political dissidents from each country, students will develop an understanding of what motivated individuals to oppose governments and struggle for political, economic, and personal rights. Students will assess the success of the freedom movement in each country under study.

GUIDING QUESTIONS

- How can we understand the importance of freedom by studying past and present struggles for democratic government and individual rights?
- What is the relationship between individuals and the state under unlimited systems of government?
- Why is it important to examine the individual’s role in advocating for freedom and bringing about change?
- How successful were movements for democratic government and individual rights in the case studies provided in this lesson?
OBJECTIVES

STUDENTS WILL:

- Analyze three struggles for freedom in the second half of the twentieth century and evaluate their effectiveness.
- Explore the role of individuals in advocating for democratic government and individual rights in each example.
- Work cooperatively in a group to research, prepare, and teach fellow classmates about one of the three case studies.

LENGTH OF LESSON

- Day 1—55–60 minutes
- Day 2—50–55 minutes

CURRICULUM STANDARDS

TEKS

- WH.9.D “Identify the influence of ideas such as separation of powers, checks and balances, liberty, equality, democracy, popular sovereignty, human rights, constitutionalism, and nationalism on political revolutions.”
- WH.12.A “Describe the emergence and characteristics of totalitarianism.”
- WH.13.D “Explain the roles of modern world leaders, including Ronald Reagan, Mikhail Gorbachev, Lech Walesa, and Pope John Paul II, in the collapse of communism in Eastern Europe and the Soviet Union.”
- WH.18.C-D “Identify the historical origins and characteristics of socialism/fascism.”
- WH.19.B “Identify the characteristics of the following political systems: theocracy, absolute monarchy, democracy, republic, oligarchy, limited monarchy, totalitarianism.”
- WH.21.A “Describe how people have participated in supporting or changing their government.”
- WH.22.E “Identify examples of individuals who led resistance to political oppression such as Nelson Mandela, Mahandas Gandhi, Oscar Romero, Natan Sharansky, Las Madres de la Plaza de Mayo, and Chinese student protestors in Tiananmen Square.”
- WH.29.B “Analyze information by sequencing, categorizing, identifying cause-and-effect relationships, comparing, contrasting, finding the main idea, summarizing, making generalizations and predictions, drawing inferences and conclusions, and developing connections between historical events over time.”
- WH.30 “The student communicates in written, oral, and visual forms.”
WH.31.A “Use a decision-making process to identify a situation that requires a decision, gather information, identify options, predict consequences, and take action to implement a decision.”

WG.2.A “Describe the human and physical characteristics of the same regions at different periods of time to evaluate relationships between past events and current conditions.”

WG.14.B “Compare how democracy, dictatorship, monarchy, republic, theocracy, and totalitarian systems operate in specific countries.”

AP WORLD HISTORY

- AP. 6.2.IV.B “The sources of global conflict in the first half of the century varied.”
- AP.6.2.IV.C “The global balance of economic and political power shifted after the end of World War II and rapidly evolved into the Cold War. The United States and the Soviet Union emerged as superpowers, which led to ideological struggles between capitalism and communism throughout the globe.”
- AP.6.3.III.A “The notion of human rights gained traction throughout the world.”

BACKGROUND

While the second half of the twentieth century is identified with the expansion of human freedom, the history of that period is not marked by an uninterrupted march toward democracy around the world. Different types of dictatorships meant different types of challenges for movements seeking political reform. Societies that had previous experiences with elections and human rights were often more open to democracy than were societies with centuries of despotism. Countries surrounded by democracies often found the transition to freedom a simpler process than countries whose neighbors were ruled by authoritarian governments.

The role of outside powers and popular movements was also important. Sustained pressure by the world’s democratic governments was often critical in bringing down dictatorships. In cases where pressure was not exerted, efforts at change often faltered.

This lesson examines the course of the struggle for freedom in three important but very different settings: Poland, South Africa, and China.

Although Poland had been subject to Communist rule and Soviet domination since the end of World War II, it made a quick and successful transition to democracy in 1989. Poland benefited from its geographical and cultural proximity to the democratic societies of Western Europe. It had a brief but important experience with self-government between World War I and World War II. It had a history of resistance to tyranny rooted in the Catholic Church. While the Communist Party leadership resisted the surrender of power, it was not willing to resort to massive acts of violence to retain authority. Both governments and civil society groups from Europe and the United States gave Poland’s freedom movement substantial support.
South Africa had a very different background. Its territory had been under the control of foreign domination for roughly the previous century. A white, European minority ruled over the majority black population. Other countries in the region shared a history of colonial rule. At the same time, the white majority had created a system that was marked by elections and civil rights for the white minority and a repressive network of discriminatory laws for non-whites. Likewise, a broad movement of global support rooted in democratic societies played an important role in pressuring the white government to give way and accept the creation of a multi-racial democracy.

China, on the other hand, did not embrace democracy. Under Mao Zedong, the Chinese people endured decades of totalitarian rule, politically induced famine, and periods of political and economic instability. While the United States and other democracies encouraged political reforms, they did not exert serious pressure for change. Nor did neighboring Asian countries push for political change. While the leadership of the Communist Party did relax many of the most rigid forms of control introduced by Mao, it proved ruthless in putting down challenges presented by popular movements for reform, culminating in the 1989 massacre of protesters in Beijing’s Tiananmen Square. The leadership also told the Chinese people that democratic government would lead to the kind of instability and chaos that had marked Mao’s time.

RESOURCES

- Handout 1, China Case Study
- Handout 2, Poland Case Study
- Handout 3, South Africa Case Study
- Handout 4, Twentieth-Century Freedom Movements: Case Study Analysis Chart

NOTES TO THE TEACHER

Students will need access to computers and the internet.

For the purposes of this lesson, students will work in two different groups:

- Base Group: Approximately three students, depending on class size. Each student will be responsible for one of the country case studies: China, Poland, or South Africa.
- Expert Group: Approximately eight students, depending on class size. All members of the group will be “experts” on the same country case study. There will be one China Expert Group, one Poland Expert Group, and one South Africa Expert Group. With an average class of 30 or 32, it is likely that the Expert Groups will consist of approximately eight students. To ensure student participation, teachers have the option of dividing the Expert Groups into smaller numbers of three to four students.

If teachers intend to complete Unit 3, Lesson 4, they should instruct students to keep all handouts from Lesson 3 for later use.
PROCEDURE
(times below are suggested)

DAY 1—Prepare Case Study

1. (5 minutes) Warm-Up: Ensure students have access to the images from China, Poland, and South Africa noted below. Ask them to analyze and discuss the images using the following questions:
   - What actions do you see in the images?
   - What do you think motivated these actions?
   - What do the images tell you about the struggle for freedom in each country during the twentieth century?


2. (5 minutes) Explain to students that they will be exploring the three countries depicted in the images—China, Poland, and South Africa—where individuals worked to achieve greater freedom during the second half of the twentieth century. Use the Notes to the Teacher section above to explain the grouping procedures to the students. Then assign the students to their base group of three. Within each base group, assign students one of the three case studies and give them the relevant handout. Instruct students to write on the handout the names of the other students in their base group.

3. (25-30 minutes) Give students time to read their case study silently one time. Next, instruct them to re-read the handout and highlight the following:
   - Conditions in the country that contributed to a movement for freedom and democracy—yellow
   - Evidence of nonviolent resistance or dissent against the government—pink
   - Responses of the government to challenges against it—green
   - Outcomes and gains in individual rights (if any)—blue

   NOTE: If students do not have these highlighter colors, instruct them to make a key on the document indicating the method they will use to distinguish each category.

4. (20 minutes) Next, have students move to their Expert Group (see Notes to the Teacher above). Give each student a copy of the Twentieth-Century Freedom Movements: Case Study Analysis Chart handout. The goal of this group is for students to complete a collaborative analysis of the freedom movement in
their assigned country, arriving at the same conclusions. Students should use the handout to guide and record their discussion, following these steps:

- Compare the details they highlighted in the background handout with others in their group, making adjustments as needed.
- Complete the section for their assigned country in the analysis chart, trying to reach consensus. Consensus is important because students will be teaching this content to their peers the next day.

DAY 2—Jigsaw Share of Case Studies

1. (20 minutes) When students arrive in class, instruct them to get out their copies of the Twentieth-Century Freedom Movements: Case Study Analysis Chart and return to their initial Base Groups (one member for each country analyzed). Have students share information about their country with the rest of the Base Group. As each student presents, the other group members should record the information on their own analysis chart.

2. (20 minutes) Provide students access to computers and instruct them to go to the Freedom Collection site, www.freedomcollection.org, and use the “Regions” tab to locate interviews with freedom advocates from their case study country. Instruct students to select a dissident, record his or her name, read his or her biography, and watch one or more video clips from the interview. After watching the video(s), students should record information about their dissident’s experience on their own handouts.

3. (10–15 minutes) After all the information has been shared and students have researched their dissident, conclude the lesson by having each base group rank the three movements from most effective to least effective in securing individual rights and freedoms. Instruct students to write a statement, supported by specific evidence, explaining their rankings. Then have student groups share their conclusions with the rest of the class. Encourage further analysis by asking questions that allow students to compare and analyze differences in their responses.

NOTE: If you intend to use Unit 3, Lesson 4, have students complete for homework the Class Discussion Preparation handout found in that lesson.

ENRICHMENT/EXTENSION ACTIVITIES

- Instruct students to prepare a timeline of key steps in their country’s freedom movement on the graphic organizer. If there was a significant turning point event that helped determine the outcome of the effort, students should identify it on the timeline.
- Truth and Reconciliation Commissions are responsible for discovering and making public the actions of an abusive government in the hopes of resolving conflict and restoring peace. Ask students to research any of the following:
  - What is a Truth and Reconciliation Commission?
  - Where have Truth and Reconciliation Commissions been held?
  - Are Truth and Reconciliation Commissions generally successful?
How are the discoveries of Truth and Reconciliation Commissions protected so citizens in the country can learn from their discoveries?
Until the twentieth century, China had been ruled by dynastic emperors. The collapse of the Manchu dynasty in 1911 led to the formation of a republic. After the country threatened to break apart under the rule of regional warlords, the Nationalists, or Kuomintang, assumed power in the 1920s. The Nationalists were weakened during the country's occupation by Japan during World War II. After the war, the Nationalists were challenged in a civil war by Communist forces under the leadership of Mao Zedong. The Communists emerged triumphant in 1949, and have ruled mainland China ever since.

Mao established a system of government that combined traditional, Soviet-style Communism with uniquely Chinese features. China was a largely rural, underdeveloped, and impoverished society when Mao assumed power. The Communists nationalized industry and launched policies that would bring about state control over agriculture. Until his death in 1976, Mao was the supreme leader and was venerated through propaganda as a godlike figure. He regarded himself as an intellectual and wrote books on the nature of Communism and guerrilla warfare that at one time were read widely throughout the world. He ruthlessly dealt with perceived enemies of the revolution, including “landlords”—relatively well-off peasants—and urban intellectuals. He also dealt harshly with members of the Communist Party leadership that he felt challenged his authority, and initiated a number of economic and political experiments, often with catastrophic results for the Chinese people.

Prior to the Communist takeover, China lacked industrial development and suffered from widespread poverty. Most Chinese eked out a living on subsistence farming. Families had many children, in part to assist in agricultural work, and wives had traditional roles as homemakers.

Mao and his Communist forces attained power as the Cold War that pitted the United States against the Soviet Union was escalating. Mao benefited from assistance from the Soviets. While the United States opposed a Communist victory in China, the U.S. did not provide military support to the Nationalist forces. It did, however, assist them diplomatically and financially after they fled to Taiwan. Subsequently, the United States sought to isolate China. During the Korean War, the Chinese military, known as the People’s Liberation Army, intervened on behalf of Communist North Korea and waged war against forces from South Korea and the United States. The United States sought to isolate China diplomatically; the two countries did not have formal diplomatic relations for over two decades.

THE INDIVIDUAL’S EXPERIENCE OF FREEDOM

In the early years of Communist rule, Mao sought to transform the Chinese economy along traditional Soviet lines. The state took control of industries and businesses, and capitalism was all but abolished. In 1958, Mao
implemented a new economic plan, known as the Great Leap Forward, as a means of expediting industrial growth and, especially, the collectivization of agriculture. Under the new policies, private farming was prohibited and farmers were compelled to surrender their harvests to the state.

The Great Leap Forward was enforced through various forms of coercion, including sentencing peasants to terms in labor camps for the “hoarding” of crops. The result was what has been called one of the “most deadly mass killings in human history.” Millions of rural dwellers died of starvation; estimates by demographic specialists run as high as 32 million deaths.

Mao set about to destroy much of traditional Chinese culture. Religious belief was discouraged and religious believers persecuted. Communist policies did encourage women to become educated and aspire to a more equal role in culture and the economy. At the same time, Mao worked to weaken family ties. Under Mao, China became “a police state in which everyone spied on everyone else.”

The culminating project of Mao’s rule was the Cultural Revolution (formally known as the Great Proletarian Cultural Revolution). Launched in 1966, the Cultural Revolution sought to remove all vestiges of capitalism from the economy, destroy traditional cultural and family relations, and remove those whom Mao perceived as critics of his policies from positions of influence within the Communist Party. During the Cultural Revolution period (1966–1976) children were encouraged to inform on and testify against parents for such offenses as having criticized Mao in private family discussions. Teenaged vigilante groups, known as Red Guards, were dispatched to the homes of intellectuals and professional people to destroy or seize private property, including books and works of art. Urban dwellers were assigned to work on collective farms in the countryside and uneducated peasants were sometimes selected for responsible government positions.

**DISSENT AGAINST THE GOVERNMENT**

China experienced immediate changes after Mao’s death in 1976. The Cultural Revolution, with its chaos and brutality, was abandoned. In 1978, Deng Xiaoping emerged as Communist Party leader. Deng had survived two purges during Mao’s time. Once in power, Deng introduced a number of changes that would eventually transform important dimensions of the Chinese Communist system. He embraced elements of market capitalism and encouraged foreign investment. He stressed pragmatic decision-making over Communist dogmatism. He was fond of the slogan, “Seek truth from facts.” The new leadership also began a process of reassessing the legacy of Mao. Mao was now described as a great revolutionary leader but as a flawed head of state who made many costly mistakes.

Under the new leadership, many of the constraints on personal and family life were relaxed. But the Communist Party still exercised vast powers over the individual. Of particular note was the introduction of the one-child policy in 1979. The policy was justified as necessary to curb population growth. As initially drawn up, the policy limited most Chinese families to one child, though some exceptions were permitted. Restrictions on family
size were enforced at the provincial level, and there were many cases of forced abortions and the killing of female children. Although the policy has been criticized inside and outside of China, it is still enforced.

Mao's death triggered an interest in democratic reform among Chinese intellectuals. Beginning in 1978, the "Democracy Wall" phenomenon flourished for several years. Democracy Wall was a long brick wall in Beijing that served as the forum for a lively debate over political reform. Eventually, the authorities prohibited access to the wall, and a number of advocates of democratic reform were arrested and imprisoned.

In 1989, university students and others led a protest movement that called for democratic changes in Chinese society. The protests took place in Tiananmen Square, in the heart of Beijing in the spring of 1989. The protests broke out at the same time as anti-Communist movements were gathering steam throughout Eastern Europe, and some predicted that the Communist system in China was in jeopardy. On June 3–4, however, the party leadership ordered a military assault on the protesters. The resulting massacre took the lives of perhaps thousands of demonstrators, and the protest movement was effectively crushed.

In subsequent years, China has experienced a far-reaching economic transformation that has favored free-market development while reserving a role for state direction of the economy. China has become a much wealthier society and a global economic powerhouse. The authorities have further relaxed controls on the individual citizen's private life. But since Tiananmen, the authorities have dealt harshly with dissidents who challenge the prevailing Communist political system, especially those who advocate for multiple political parties that would compete with the Communist Party for power.
Throughout its history, Poland has often found its sovereignty under threat from larger and more powerful neighbors, especially Russia and Germany. From 1795 until 1918, there was no independent Polish state. A brief period of independence following World War I came to an end in 1939, when Nazi Germany invaded the country and divided its territory between Germany and the Soviet Union. Poland was laid to ruins by World War II; millions of its citizens, including practically all its Jews, were killed and its capital city, Warsaw, nearly destroyed.

During the period between World War I and World War II, Poland experienced a limited measure of democracy. A number of political parties competed in elections, many newspapers were published, and there were many independent organizations for young people, professionals, and women. Polish society was also deeply religious. The overwhelming majority of Poles were Catholic, and the Catholic Church leadership exercised considerable influence in political and cultural affairs. Poland was a multinational society, as its borders extended into areas that are today part of Ukraine. Poland also had a large Jewish population. Jews were the victims of discrimination, especially in education.

**THE INDIVIDUAL’S EXPERIENCE OF FREEDOM**

Poles had hopes for independence and freedom after World War II. Instead, the dominant power of the region, the Soviet Union, imposed a Communist leadership and Communist political institutions on the country. Like other subjugated countries—Hungary, Czechoslovakia, East Germany, Bulgaria, and Romania—Poland was compelled to adopt governing institutions that mimicked those that predominated in the Soviet Union. Press freedoms were extinguished, as was academic freedom. Communist authorities took over the scouts and other youth organizations. The authorities also seized private property. The Catholic Church, an institution that had traditionally embodied the spirit of Polish freedom, was persecuted; priests were arrested and the church leadership was placed under house arrest.

As in other East European countries, the Communist Party itself was purged to ensure the predominance of those whose principal loyalties were to the Soviet Union and not to Poland. An extensive network of secret police watched over the Polish people and their institutions. The secret police in turn relied on information from a vast network of informers, placed strategically in factories, schools, universities, and the Catholic Church.

**DISSENT AGAINST THE GOVERNMENT**

From 1956 to 1980, Poland experienced a series of mini-rebellions against Communist rule. A principal source of unrest lay in the industrial working class, which chafed at the absence of basic workplace freedoms, the suppression of independent trade unions, and the denial of basic freedoms like elections, freedom of speech,
and religious liberty. Equally important was the Catholic Church. Using coded language, church leaders made clear their disapproval of Communist repression and restraints on Polish sovereignty. Of special significance was the naming of a Pole, Archbishop Karol Wojtyla, as pope in 1978. The new pope, John Paul II, stood as a towering symbol of Polish freedom from oppression and encouraged an attitude of resistance through his homilies and writings.

In August 1980, a series of strikes erupted at shipyards on Poland’s Baltic coast. The events in the shipyards grew into a nationwide movement of opposition to the Communist system that was based in the working class but also embraced intellectuals and other segments of Polish society. The opposition organized around a national trade union, known as Solidarnosc, or Solidarity. Solidarity’s leader, Lech Walesa, was a shipyard electrician from the city of Gdansk. The opposition established an independent press free of Communist Party control and independent organizations for students, educators, professionals, and other groups in Polish society. From 1980 to 1989, Solidarity functioned as a national resistance movement against the Communist system and Soviet domination. Solidarity’s leadership insisted that its protest actions, usually strikes or demonstrations, remain strictly nonviolent. As a trade union movement, Solidarity drew on the support of free trade unions in the United States and Europe. Especially after December 1981, when the authorities declared Solidarity illegal, imposed martial law, and arrested Walesa and other leaders, international trade union support was critical to an extensive publishing operation that enabled the union to spread its message to the Polish people.

The American government also provided various forms of support. It strengthened coverage of Polish developments on Radio Free Europe, a government-funded radio network that provided an alternative to the censored official press in Communist Eastern Europe. The United States also provided various forms of assistance through the National Endowment for Democracy, an agency established to provide help to democratic movements that were resisting dictatorship throughout the world.

Soviet leader Mikhail Gorbachev also played a crucial role in the resolution of the Polish crisis. Both in Hungary in 1956 and Czechoslovakia in 1968, the Soviets had resorted to military intervention to ensure that challenges to its authority were crushed. Gorbachev, however, announced that the destinies of the East European countries were in the hands of their own citizens, and that the Soviet Union would refrain from intervention. In 1989, Polish Communist authorities agreed to an election in which candidates supported by Solidarity challenged Communist Party candidates. In this, the first election in a Communist country that ranked as competitive, the Solidarity candidates scored an overwhelming victory. By the end of 1989, Poland was free of Communist rule, as were the other countries subjugated by the Soviet Union after World War II.

In the post-Communist period, Poland has succeeded in maintaining a democratic political system marked by highly competitive elections and widespread civil liberties that were enshrined in laws passed by a freely elected parliament. Like other countries with statist economies, the transition to a market economy has been difficult, as many workers from the old industrial sector have lost jobs. Remembering its own struggle for freedom, Poland has been a reliable source of support for democratic opposition movements waged in struggle against dictatorships and authoritarian regimes.
What is now the Republic of South Africa was colonized principally by two European groups, the British and the Dutch, known as Boers. After a series of wars pitting the British against the Boers and colonial powers against indigenous blacks, the Union of South Africa was formed. In 1931 the Union of South Africa became a “dominion,” or polity with autonomy in domestic and foreign affairs, within the British Empire and later the British Commonwealth. In 1961, a referendum, restricted to white voters, determined that South Africa should be free of British colonial control. As a result of the referendum, the Republic of South Africa was established. During colonial times and in the three decades following independence, South Africa was divided along racial, ethnic, and language lines. The dominant group was the Afrikaners, descendants of the original Dutch colonists, who comprised a minority of the population but controlled the government and security forces.

In the period after World War II, a movement to free the societies of the African continent from European, colonial domination gained ground in a number of societies. In South Africa, the Afrikaner Nationalist Party won national elections in 1948 on a platform advocating strict racial segregation. The Afrikaans word “apartheid,” which means “separateness” or “apartness,” signified the policy, which included the passage of laws in the 1950s to codify and make permanent a state in which white citizens dominated economic, social, and cultural life. This in turn triggered a movement among non-whites, and especially blacks, to resist racial segregation and achieve rule by the non-white majority. The ensuing struggle drew the attention of the major powers involved in the Cold War, the United States and the Soviet Union.

The Soviet Union, other Communist countries, and the newly independent countries of sub-Saharan Africa supported South Africa’s leading opposition movement, the African National Congress. The United States had a more ambivalent position. It used diplomatic pressure to encourage the white government to ease racial segregation and begin the process of transformation toward majority rule. But the United States resisted the adoption of economic sanctions against the apartheid government, fearing that a collapse of the government might lead to the triumph of a Communist-leaning, authoritarian system under the ANC leadership.

THE INDIVIDUAL’S EXPERIENCE OF FREEDOM

Racial segregation and white supremacy were enshrined in South African law and policy throughout its existence as both a British colony and an independent republic. The Land Act, passed in 1913, forced blacks to live in reservations. With the election of the Afrikaner National party in 1948, apartheid became the basis for a series of laws and policies that restricted blacks and other non-white groups. In 1950 a law prohibited
marriage between whites and non-whites. The Population Registration Act classified all citizens as white, black, colored (people of mixed race), and Asian. This law functioned as the basis for a series of measures that restricted non-whites in the job market, residence, and various aspects of personal life.

Another series of laws reserved 80 percent of the country’s territory for the white minority. “Pass Laws” required non-whites to carry documents authorizing their presence in restricted areas. Separate public facilities were created for whites and non-whites, separate trade unions were established, and non-whites were prevented from participating in political affairs. In an especially harsh measure, the government removed millions of blacks from their homes in rural areas, relocated them in designated homelands, or Bantustans, and sold their land at low prices to white farmers. A Separate Amenities Act established separate toilets, parks, and beaches for different racial groups.

What emerged from the ever more elaborate apartheid system was a society organized along rigid racial caste lines. Whites controlled the government and the major industries. Whites dominated such professions as doctors and lawyers, and whites filled the better-paying positions in industry. Whites lived in all-white neighborhoods with good public services.

Blacks were relegated to menial jobs and lived in poverty-ridden townships that lacked adequate sewage, transportation, and schools. Blacks and other non-whites suffered the daily humiliations of the apartheid system that restricted their access to public services, education, and economic opportunity.

**DISSENT AGAINST THE GOVERNMENT**

Resistance to apartheid existed almost from the beginning of racial segregation. The modern phase of the anti-apartheid movement is often traced to the Sharpeville Massacre of 1960. The incident was triggered by the arrival of protestors from the Pan-African Congress, a dissident group, at the Sharpeville police station. The demonstrators had failed to bring the travel documents required under apartheid, and invited arrest. The authorities opened fire, killed at least 67, and wounded 180. After Sharpeville, the African National Congress and the Pan-African Congress both established military units. Henceforward, the struggle against apartheid was carried out on different levels: nonviolent civil disobedience, violence and terrorism, economic boycotts, and global action to weaken the apartheid government diplomatically and economically.

There were many heroes and a few prominent martyrs in the struggle for racial equality and democracy in South Africa. One opposition figure stands out: Nelson Mandela.

For several decades Nelson Mandela stood as the leading figure in the struggle for majority rule. Born in 1918, Mandela was an activist in the African National Congress. After his arrest in 1962, Mandela served 27 years of incarceration, mostly in Robben Island, a notorious prison where many political detainees were held. Mandela was released in 1990, after which he led the ANC in negotiations with the government toward the
elimination of official racism. Mandela was elected president in 1994, and is regarded as the father of post-
apartheid South Africa. He died in December 2013 at the age of 95 following a prolonged illness.

While Nelson Mandela was the spiritual leader of the anti-apartheid forces, other figures, mostly from the
ANC, were responsible for the day-to-day leadership of the protest movement. The anti-apartheid movement
drew inspiration from a broad range of sources. Some within the ANC and various splinter organizations
favored armed resistance and established bases of operation for military actions in neighboring countries. More
moderate figures emphasized nonviolent tactics, including strikes, civil disobedience, deliberate violations of
apartheid restrictions, and hunger strikes.

White sympathizers spoke out against apartheid, and a white political party, the Progressive Party, openly
opposed racial segregation. The Communist party, dominated by whites, was an ally of the ANC and favored
a post-apartheid system that would include important elements of the Soviet system, including state domination
of the economy and restrictions on civil liberties.

While the authorities were able to prevent the domestic protest movement from overthrowing the apartheid
state and minority white rule, they failed to quell the demonstrations and strikes launched by the ANC and
other organizations. Moreover, South Africa found itself increasingly isolated internationally, as much of the
world participated in economic boycotts and banned South African athletes and teams from participating in
international sporting events. In 1986, the U.S. Congress passed the Comprehensive Anti-apartheid Act, which
caused a number of multinational corporations to withdraw from South Africa.

Another prominent figure in the struggle to end apartheid in South Africa was F. W. De Klerk. Born in 1936, De
Klerk was the president of South Africa and the leader of the National Party during the last years of white rule.
De Klerk, who jointly won the 1993 Nobel Peace Prize with Mandela, led the government in negotiations with
the ANC that led to the end of apartheid.

The combination of nonviolent protests and international isolation had convinced the National Party government
to begin negotiations that led to the end of apartheid and elections in which candidates of all races competed
on an equal footing. Another important factor was the end of the Cold War and the demise of Communism as
an alternative form of government to democracy.

There was, as well, the role of Nelson Mandela. Under his firm leadership, the ANC made a commitment
to democracy, including free and fair elections, freedom of the press, property rights, and equal treatment of
minorities. Mandela also rejected vengeance-seeking against white South Africans. Instead of attempting to
bring criminal prosecution against those who had abused power during apartheid, Mandela supported the
creation of a Truth Commission, which sought to set the record straight about the policies that predominated
during apartheid but which at the same time offered protections against prosecution to those who testified
honestly about their role during minority white rule.
In the years since apartheid’s end, South Africa has remained a democracy. A number of problems, however, have emerged. The ANC remains the dominant political force. Mandela, who stepped down as president in 1998, was succeeded by ANC figures who lacked his authority and personal charisma. The government has adopted policies that give preference to non-whites in jobs and school admissions. Yet a major disparity in wealth between the races remains a serious source of discontent. Corruption has become a major problem, and labor disputes have flared into violence. Nevertheless, South Africa ranks among the world’s most important new democracies, and it continues to stand as a model for other countries in sub-Saharan Africa.
Use the chart below to record your original research and the research shared by your group members.

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<th>CHINA</th>
<th>POLAND</th>
<th>SOUTH AFRICA</th>
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<td>How did the government respond when individuals stood in opposition to it?</td>
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<td>Limits (yellow highlights)</td>
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<td>What caused individuals to speak out against oppression and demand change? (pink highlights)</td>
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<td>What conditions or policies led to restrictions on individual freedom in this country? (yellow highlights)</td>
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<td>What specific rights did the government limit? (yellow highlights)</td>
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<td>What limits did the government place on individual freedoms? (yellow highlights)</td>
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<td>How did other countries respond to these movements for freedom?</td>
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<td>China, Poland, South Africa</td>
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THE INDIVIDUAL STRUGGLE FOR FREEDOM

Name of your individual:

Describe your freedom advocate’s experience of opposing tyranny in his or her country. Include how the person became involved and the conditions he or she experienced.

Assess whether the movement for more freedom in this country was a success or failure. Support your answer with appropriate evidence.

MOVEMENTS

RANKING FREEDOM

COUNTRY

SOUTH AFRICA

POLAND

CHINA