UNIT 3, LESSON 1
TOTALITARIANISM AND FREEDOM IN THE TWENTIETH CENTURY

INTRODUCTION
In this lesson, students will explore the nature of totalitarianism in the twentieth century in Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union. Students will understand how these unlimited systems of government were marked by unrestrained state power in all aspects of public and private life, characterized by leaders who were unchallenged, exercised unchecked authority, and were made the object of a cult of personality. Students will examine how these governments limited freedom and targeted certain individuals for persecution.

GUIDING QUESTIONS
- What are the distinctive features of a totalitarian system of government?
- What conditions led to the rise of totalitarian systems of government in Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union in the twentieth century?
- Why did the governments in Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union limit individual freedom?
- How did individuals experience life under these totalitarian regimes?

OBJECTIVES
STUDENTS WILL:

- Analyze the characteristics of totalitarianism in Hitler’s Nazi Germany and Stalin’s Soviet Union.
- Understand how both regimes used oppression to limit political, economic, and personal freedoms and persecute individuals.

LENGTH OF LESSON
- 60 minutes
BACKGROUND

The twentieth century gave birth to two of the most destructive political movements in human history: Nazism and Soviet Communism. Both are variants of totalitarianism, a governing system marked by unrestrained state power, a single and all-powerful governing party, and state domination of religion, work, professional associations, and other institutions that ordinarily function under private, voluntary control. Another frequent feature of totalitarian systems is the cult of personality. The leader who is made the object of a personality cult is given near godlike status. He is said to have infinite wisdom, his
opinions are unchallenged, his writings are memorized by schoolchildren, and his ability to exercise authority is unchecked.

NAZI GERMANY

Nazism was an extreme form of totalitarianism that held sway over Germany from 1933 to 1945. The seeds of Nazism’s appeal were planted after World War I, when the victorious powers, including Great Britain, France, and the United States, compelled Germany to agree to terms of surrender that proved economically ruinous. This agreement, known as the Treaty of Versailles, led to high rates of joblessness and periods of uncontrolled inflation. In response to their increased misery, Germans became susceptible to appeals of the political extremes, which offered simplistic explanations and placed blame on various “enemies” inside and outside Germany.

From this polarized environment emerged the National Socialist, or Nazi, party. Its leader, Adolf Hitler, was a veteran of World War I who rose to Nazi leadership during the 1920s on the promise of punishing those responsible for the World War I defeat and restoring Germany to national greatness. Initially, the Nazis advocated policies that had some elements of socialism, including a large role for the state in the economic sphere. The Nazis, however, were unique in their obsessive emphasis on racial purity and the idea that Jewish people constituted an inferior and duplicitous class that had consistently undermined German advancement. Hitler also identified Communists as an enemy grouping principally on the ground that Communism was an alien, and primarily Jewish-inspired, idea.

Initially, the Nazis fared poorly in national elections. In 1933, however, the party won dominance in parliament, and Hitler became chancellor. Immediately upon gaining control of the state, the Nazis undertook a massive purge of the political opposition, killing, imprisoning, or forcing into exile Communists, Socialists, and even some Conservatives.

The Nazis moved quickly to extinguish the democratic freedoms that Germans had enjoyed under the Weimar government. Private associations, including trade unions, were incorporated into a vast Nazi party civic network that stripped organizations of their independence and assigned them the primary mission of promoting the interests of the Nazi party, the German state, and Hitler as national leader. Media independence was eliminated, and the editorships of all newspapers were placed under Nazi control. Under Hitler and his deputy, Joseph Goebbels, Germany was transformed into a propaganda state, in which print, radio, and especially cinema were given the mission of glorifying the Leader, demonizing enemies, and promoting the concept of Lebensraum, based on a theory of German racial superiority that justified Germany’s expansion to the countries to its east.

Hitler singled out various groups for persecution: political leftists, Gypsies, homosexuals, Slavic peoples. But he identified Jews as the principal source of Germany’s economic troubles. The Nazis adopted a series of measures that transformed Jews from citizens to subjects and placed restrictions on where they could live, work, shop, and educate their children.

With the forced annexation of Austria in 1938, Hitler began a process that would lead to German domination of most of Europe, trigger World War II, and bring about the death of 7 million European Jews. In the countries and territories Hitler controlled, a totalitarian system much like Germany’s was
imposed. Hitler established a series of concentration camps in Germany, Czechoslovakia, and Poland where he sent Jews, political dissidents, and other suspect groups. Some of these camps, such as Auschwitz, were transformed into death factories, where the annihilation of European Jewry, known as the Holocaust, was carried out.

At the height of his success, Hitler controlled practically all of continental Europe and much of Eurasia. With his failed invasion of the Soviet Union and the entry of the United States into the European war, German forces suffered a wave of military setbacks.

Hitler committed suicide in the final days of World War II. Germany suffered overwhelming defeat at the hands of the United States, the Soviet Union, and Great Britain. Left in ruins by the war, Germany rebuilt itself as a democratic state with a strong commitment to civil liberties, freedom of expression, and the rule of law. Nazi literature, propaganda, and insignia are banned in Germany today.

SOVIET COMMUNISM

Like the Nazi state, the Communist state emerged from the ashes of World War I. Russia, ruled by an autocratic czarist system, withdrew from the war, leading to a struggle for power, a civil war, and the eventual triumph of the Communist Party under the leadership of Vladimir Lenin. Once in control, the Communists conquered the neighboring territories that had been part of the Russian Empire, and created the Soviet Union, an entity that eventually embraced 15 republics, or states, under the strict central control of the party leadership in Moscow. Although Communism never commanded the support of the majority of Russians, Lenin prevailed over his adversaries through ruthlessness and tactical brilliance. He took advantage of the post-war chaos to eliminate political parties that promised democracy. He also gained the support of the urban working class by promising a more prosperous quality of life and a leadership role in the new Communist system.

Under Lenin and his successors, Soviet Communism stood for an all-powerful party-state, the absence of personal freedoms, and the elimination of freedom of expression and the press. The state regulated practically every aspect of social life, including an individual’s right to move about the country, travel abroad, or emigrate. Teachers and academics were subject to political loyalty tests, and only one interpretation of history was allowed in schools and the media. Civic associations were stripped of their independence and placed under control of the Communist Party.

Unique among totalitarian or autocratic systems, Communism maintains strong opposition to free market economics, capitalist economic development, and private property. The Communist leadership in the Soviet Union placed all business and trade under state control.

After Lenin’s death in 1924, the Soviet Union came under the domination of Joseph Stalin. In his nearly 30 years in power, Stalin earned a reputation for ruthlessness that has seldom been matched in human history. Most authorities estimate that some 20 million Soviet citizens died either at Stalin’s order or as the result of his policies. Among Stalin’s most disastrous actions, both from human and economic standpoints, was the first “Five Year Plan,” a nationwide strategy for economic development instituted between 1928 and 1932. The Plan’s centerpiece was forced collectivization of agriculture, in which...
farmland was taken from its owners and made the property of the state. Stalin’s agriculture policies led to widespread famine and death in the 1930s, with up to 7 million having died in Ukraine alone.

Stalin also conducted a massive purge of officials, military leaders, and Communist Party leaders, which cost the lives of millions. The purges were marked by torture, victims confessing to non-existent plots against Stalin, and carefully staged show trials.

After Stalin’s death in 1953, the Soviet leadership adopted less brutal methods of governing. But the principal features of totalitarianism, including the lack of personal and economic freedoms, were maintained right up to the final few years of the Soviet system.

Mikhail Gorbachev, the party leader from 1985 until the system’s collapse at the end of 1991, launched an effort to reform Soviet Communism. He introduced the concepts of glasnost, a Russian word meaning “openness,” and perestroika, Russian for “change,” as guiding principles for his leadership. Some changes were significant. Among other things, Gorbachev encouraged a degree of press freedom that was unprecedented under Communism. Ultimately, however, most of the non-Russian republics preferred an independent course, and the Soviet Union split into 15 separate sovereign states.

In the post-Communist period, Russia has drifted from a system notable for a combination of economic volatility and widespread civil liberties to one that has moved in a steadily repressive direction. The current president, Vladimir Putin, has nearly destroyed press freedom and systematically persecuted the political opposition and civil society.

Aside from the Soviet Union, Communism was embraced by educated elites in a number of countries. In China, Cuba, North Korea, Vietnam, and a few countries in Africa, Communist movements gained power through civil wars or coups. Communism was also imposed on the Baltic states and East-Central Europe after World War II by Soviet occupying forces. Today Communism has been abandoned by all but a handful of countries, and has become widely regarded as one of history’s great failures.

R E S O U R C E S

- Class sets of Handout 1, Nazi Germany Backgrounder, and Handout 2, Soviet Communism Backgrounder
- Freedom Collection videos:
  - Doan Viet Hoat: Voice from Prison (Vietnam, English, 5:45) [http://www.freedomcollection.org/interviews/doan_viet_hoat/?vidid=477](http://www.freedomcollection.org/interviews/doan_viet_hoat/?vidid=477)
  - Vaclav Havel: Intimidating Dissidents (Czechoslovakia, subtitled, 4:41) [http://www.freedomcollection.org/interviews/vaclav_havel/?vidid=381](http://www.freedomcollection.org/interviews/vaclav_havel/?vidid=381)
  - Rebiya Kadeer: Family (China, subtitled, 1:32) [http://www.freedomcollection.org/interviews/rebiya_kadeer/?vidid=619](http://www.freedomcollection.org/interviews/rebiya_kadeer/?vidid=619)
PROCEDURE
(times below are suggested)

DAY 1

(5 minutes) Warm-Up: Write the phrase “quality of life” on the board at the front of the room. Ask students to brainstorm personal examples of what the phrase means to them. Allow volunteers to share their answers.

2. (10 minutes) To engage students in a discussion about the quality of life under a totalitarian government, begin by showing them one or more video clips from the Freedom Collection to illustrate the constraints on individual freedom. Instruct students to take notes indicating how each dissident’s quality of life and experience of freedom differs from their own life in a free society (using the Warm-Up activity as a frame of reference). Suggested video clips for use:

- Doan Viet Hoat: Voice from Prison (Vietnam, English, 5:45) [http://www.freedomcollection.org/interviews/doan_viet_hoat/?vidid=477]
  Doan Viet Hoat, a writer, scholar and former longtime prisoner of conscience in Vietnam, discusses his treatment in prison, including four years in solitary confinement.

- Vaclav Havel: Intimidating Dissidents (Czechoslovakia, subtitled, 4:41) [http://www.freedomcollection.org/interviews/vaclav_havel/?vidid=381]
  The late Vaclav Havel was a playwright, poet, and political dissident in communist Czechoslovakia. He later served as president of Czechoslovakia and the Czech Republic. In this video he recalls attempts by the Communist government to harass and intimidate dissidents.

- Rebiya Kadeer: Family (China, subtitled, 1:32) [http://www.freedomcollection.org/interviews/rebiya_kadeer/?vidid=619]
  Rebiya Kadeer is a human rights defender, a former prisoner of conscience, and a leader of the Uyghur people. The Uyghurs are Turkic Muslims from China’s Xinjiang Autonomous Region. In this video she describes the high price her family has paid for her leadership of the Uyghur movement.

- Carlos Montaner: Prison and Contempt for Humanity (Cuba, subtitled, 4:25) [http://www.freedomcollection.org/regions/the_americas/cuba/carlos_alberto_montaner/]
  This video clip describes the Cuban government’s oppression of youth who were trying to achieve change in their country.

After viewing the video(s), ask for student volunteers to share their conclusions about the quality of life and freedom in free and not-free societies. Explain to the students that they will spend the remainder of
the class period analyzing the totalitarian governments that came to power in the twentieth century in Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union.

3. (20 minutes) Place the students in pairs, assigning one the reading on Hitler and Nazi Germany and the other on Stalin and the Soviet Union. After completing the reading, each student should create a stick figure character analysis of their assigned leader. Instruct students to include the following information:
   - Head—what promises the leader made to his followers
   - Stomach—how the leader increased power and control of the government
   - Arms and Legs—how the leader limited political, economic, and personal freedoms
   - Feet—who was blamed for the nation’s problems and suffered persecution

4. (10 minutes) Next, ask students to share their character analysis with their partner. After both have shared, they should work together to complete a Venn diagram noting at least three similarities and three differences between the two leaders.

5. (8 minutes) To allow students time to share their conclusions about the two totalitarian regimes and the broader impact of totalitarianism in the twentieth century, conduct a class discussion using the following questions:
   - What conditions contributed to the rise of totalitarian governments in Germany and Russia in the twentieth century?
   - How did the governments in Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union limit individual freedom and enforce total control over government, society, and the economy?
   - How did the leaders of these governments justify the limits they placed on freedom and their persecution of particular groups in society?
   - What conditions eventually led to the fall of these governments?

6. (7 minutes) As a closing activity, have students complete a written assignment comparing the exercise of rights of individuals living under Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union to that of an American citizen today. (NOTE: If time is short, teachers may assign this activity for homework.)

**ENRICHMENT/EXTENSION ACTIVITIES**

- Have the students investigate attempts at resistance and dissidence under both regimes, for example: Dietrich Bonhoeffer and Raoul Wallenberg in Germany, or Alexandr Solzhenitsyn and Andrei Sakharov in the Soviet Union.

**ADDITIONAL RESOURCES**

- Yad Vashem Holocaust History Museum: [http://www.yadvashem.org/museum](http://www.yadvashem.org/museum)
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FREEDOM MATTERS!
THE GLOBAL RESPONSE TO NAZI GERMANY AND THE SOVIET UNION
Unit 3, Lesson 2
UNIT 3, LESSON 2
THE GLOBAL RESPONSE TO NAZI GERMANY AND THE SOVIET UNION

INTRODUCTION

In this lesson, students will assess reactions to the defeat of Nazi Germany in World War II and the rise of the Soviet Union from the perspective of individual rights. These responses will include the establishment of the United Nations and the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in the 1940s, as well as the signing of the Helsinki Accords by the United States, Canada, the Soviet Union, and most European countries in the 1970s. Students will also examine changes and trends in the status of freedom in the world from the end of World War II to the close of the twentieth century.

GUIDING QUESTIONS

• How did free societies respond to totalitarianism in Nazi Germany and the rise of the Soviet Union, contributing to the emergence of a universal understanding of freedom and individual rights?
• Which individual rights are enshrined in documents like the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Helsinki Accords?
• Where did individual freedom, secured under democratic systems of government, take root in the second half of the twentieth century?

OBJECTIVES

STUDENTS WILL:

• Examine the responses of free societies to totalitarianism in Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union.
• Analyze the emergence of a universal understanding of freedom and individual rights.
• Evaluate the spread of democracy and freedom in the second half of the twentieth century.

LENGTH OF LESSON

• 60 minutes
CURRICULUM STANDARDS

TEKS

• WH.12.A “Describe the emergence and characteristics of totalitarianism.”
• WH.12.B “Explain the role of various world leaders, including Benito Mussolini, Adolf Hitler, Hideki Togo, Joseph Stalin, Franklin D. Roosevelt, and Winston Churchill, prior to and during World War II.”
• 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 governments.”
• WH.29.A “Explain the differences between primary and secondary sources and examine those sources to analyze frame of reference, historical context, and point of view.”
• 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.”

BACKGROUND

TWO TREATIES THAT MADE A DIFFERENCE

The horrors of World War II led to a renewed effort to prevent similar global tragedies. But unlike previous failed efforts to create rules that would secure world peace, the post-war campaign stressed the central role that dictatorship and totalitarian rule had played in triggering genocide and mass
slaughter. The war experience convinced many that the roots of conflict could be found, in part, in the
nature of a society’s political system. Many had come to believe that the Nazi assertion of total power
and Hitler’s intolerance toward Jews and other religions and races had been central to German
aggression against its European neighbors. Thus some leaders came to believe that an important way to
deter the outbreak of future genocidal conflicts was to encourage the spread of governing systems that
protected democratic liberties and human rights.

An important outcome of this effort was the Universal Declaration of Human Rights (UDHR). The Human
Rights Commission of the United Nations (UN) began drafting the UDHR in 1946, and the document
was adopted by the UN in 1948. The UDHR was inspired and written by a group of eminent statesmen,
including Eleanor Roosevelt, the widow of President Franklin D. Roosevelt. The Soviet Union, which had
already seized control of the countries of Eastern Europe in the war’s aftermath, abstained in the vote.

The UDHR is not a binding document. Many governments that signed the document routinely violate the
rights that are enumerated. But the UDHR remains a powerful statement about the universality of human
rights. It derives much of its credibility from its rejection of the proposition that basic rights can be limited
by culture or national tradition. Of the UDHR’s thirty clauses, several deal with issues that came out of the
war experience: torture, slavery, asylum, freedom of religion and thought. Other rights are also listed:
property ownership, the right to marry and establish a family, freedom of speech, freedom of
association.

While the UDHR did not enjoy the force of law, it did serve as an inspiration for human rights advocates
in succeeding decades. In some respects, the UDHR was a visionary document in that it called for
reforms that have since become staples of the global human rights agenda.

A second landmark human rights document is the Helsinki Accords. The Accords were meant as a treaty
to improve relations between the United States and Western Europe on the one hand and the Soviet
Union and Communist Eastern Europe on the other. The purpose was to reduce tensions due to Cold
War differences between democracies and Communist powers.

Some of the provisions dealt with mechanisms for the settlement of disputes between nations and
territorial borders. But the Accords also included provisions for the guarantee of basic human rights,
including the rights of thought, conscience, and religious belief. While these rights were widely
respected in the democratic countries that signed the agreement, they were routinely violated in the
Soviet Union, Eastern Europe, and Yugoslavia.

The significance of the document’s human rights provisions grew in magnitude as activists and dissidents
formed groups to measure their governments’ adherence to the rights provisions and to launch protest
campaigns against violations. Monitoring groups were established in the Soviet Union and elsewhere in
the Communist world, and their public statements about rights’ violations drew worldwide attention.
Eventually, the civil liberties sections became the Accords’ most important feature and helped inspire a
generation of activists who sought democratic change in a part of the world that had been under
totalitarian rule.
DEMOCRACY AND FREEDOM BY THE YEAR 2000

According to the nonprofit organization Freedom House, by the year 2000 citizens in 45 percent of the world’s countries enjoyed a wide range of freedoms. These include honest elections, the right to express dissenting opinions, a strong rule of law, broad economic liberties, and laws that guarantee equal rights for women. By contrast, the citizens of about 25 percent of the world’s sovereign states lived under outright oppression, with fraudulent elections, press censorship, the imprisonment of dissidents, widespread corruption, and an unjust legal system.

Freedom’s progress in the twentieth century did not occur along a consistent, year-by-year pattern, but in three major waves. The first, in the period before and immediately after World War I (1914–1918), saw the expansion of elections in Europe and major gains for women’s suffrage. The second wave took place immediately after World War II (1939–1945), when, in reaction to the rise of totalitarian dictatorship, societies in Western Europe, North America, and elsewhere established systems of government that included both elections and civil liberties. Additionally, the movement to free colonial territories in Asia, Africa, and the Middle East got underway.

The third, and most substantial, wave took place in the final decades of the twentieth century. From Western Europe to Latin America to Asia and Africa, societies that had been ruled by military governments or dictators made the choice for democracy. During the same period, the world’s most enduring totalitarian movement, Communism, collapsed almost completely, and many of the liberated societies opted for democracy and free institutions.

Among other things, these changes have meant that people in many societies throughout the world no longer think of themselves as subjects, but rather as citizens with a wide array of rights. That process has transformed the world’s concepts of rights and freedoms.

RESOURCES

- Handout 1, Universal Declaration of Human Rights
- Handout 2, The Helsinki Accords

PREREQUISITES

Completion of Unit 3, Lesson 1, is recommended. Classes that have not completed Lesson 1 should consider reviewing the background readings on Nazi Germany and the Soviet Union in that lesson.

NOTES TO THE TEACHER

The excerpt provided from the Universal Declaration of Human Rights provides the first sentence or major phrase of each of the 30 rights and freedoms enshrined in the document. For the full text, visit the United Nations website: http://www.un.org/en/documents/udhr/.
PROCEDURE
(times below are suggested)

1. (5 minutes) Warm-Up: Place students in groups and tell them to imagine they are international leaders who are meeting after World War II to discuss the best way to protect human rights both on the European Continent and in the larger world. Considering that these leaders represent different national interests and cultural backgrounds, ask students to brainstorm what universal principles they might be able to develop that will unite the group. Once they have completed their brainstorms, ask for volunteer groups to share their answers.

2. (30 minutes) Use the background information provided to give students context for the Universal Declaration of Rights and the Helsinki Accords. Explain the circumstances that led to their creation, tying this back to the Warm-Up activity. Provide each student with the handouts containing excerpts of these documents and ask them to complete the following steps as they read:
   • Highlight or underline any rights that are enshrined in each document.
   • In the Universal Declaration, place a star by any of the rights that the Nazi regime violated. Choose five, and at the bottom of the document give examples of how the government in Nazi Germany violated those rights.
   • In the Helsinki Accords, place an exclamation point by any of the rights that the Soviet regime violated. Choose five, and at the bottom of the document give examples of how the Soviet government violated those rights.

NOTE: Students may want to view their tyrant character map and/or the readings from Lesson 1 to assist in this process.

3. (15 minutes) After students have completed their reading analysis, watch both of these Freedom Collection videos in which a current and a former dissident describe the impact of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights and the Helsinki Accords on their work. Use the discussion questions below to analyze the effect of these two documents.
   • Fidel Suarez Cruz: Background (Cuba, subtitled, 2:18)
     http://www.freedomcollection.org/interviews/fidel_suarez_cruz/?vidid=1072
     Cuban dissident and former political prisoner Fidel Suarez Cruz discusses his family background and reflects on receiving his first copy of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights.
   • Bronislaw Wildstein: Solidarity (Poland, subtitled, 2:25)
     http://www.freedomcollection.org/interviews/bronislaw_wildstein/?vidid=1041
     Former student leader and dissident Bronislaw Wildstein describes how he and other Polish Solidarity leaders used the communist government’s signature to the Helsinki Accords to hold it accountable for violating individual freedoms and human rights.

Discussion Questions:
• How did reactions to totalitarianism in the twentieth century contribute to a more universal understanding of individual rights?
What connection did instruments like the Universal Declaration of Human Rights make between individual rights and the role of democratic systems of government in securing them?

4. (10 minutes) Conclude the lesson by asking students to write a response addressing the extent to which they agree or disagree with the quote below about the adoption of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. (NOTE: If time is short, teachers may assign this activity for homework.)

“We stand today at the threshold of a great event both in the life of the United Nations and in the life of mankind….This declaration may well become the international Magna Carta of all men everywhere. We hope its proclamation by the [United Nations] General Assembly will be an event comparable to the proclamation of the Declaration of the Rights of Man by the French people in 1789, the adoption of the Bill of Rights by the people of the United States, and the adoption of comparable declarations at different times in other countries.”

— Eleanor Roosevelt, First Lady of the United States (1933–1945) and Chair of the first United Nations Commission on Human Rights

PREAMBLE
“Whereas recognition of the inherent dignity and of the equal and inalienable rights of all members of the human family is the foundation of freedom, justice and peace in the world,

Whereas disregard and contempt for human rights have resulted in barbarous acts which have outraged the conscience of mankind, and the advent of a world in which human beings shall enjoy freedom of speech and belief and freedom from fear and want has been proclaimed as the highest aspiration of the common people,

Whereas it is essential, if man is not to be compelled to have recourse, as a last resort, to rebellion against tyranny and oppression, that human rights should be protected by the rule of law...

Whereas a common understanding of these rights and freedoms is of the greatest importance for the full realization of this pledge,

Now, Therefore THE GENERAL ASSEMBLY proclaims THIS UNIVERSAL DECLARATION OF HUMAN RIGHTS as a common standard of achievement for all peoples and all nations...

ARTICLE 1.
All human beings are born free and equal in dignity and rights. They are endowed with reason and conscience and should act towards one another in a spirit of brotherhood.

ARTICLE 2.
Everyone is entitled to all the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration, without distinction of any kind, such as race, colour, sex, language, religion, political or other opinion, national or social origin, property, birth or other status....

ARTICLE 3.
Everyone has the right to life, liberty and security of person.

ARTICLE 4.
No one shall be held in slavery or servitude...

ARTICLE 5.
No one shall be subjected to torture or to cruel, inhuman or degrading treatment or punishment....

ARTICLE 6.
Everyone has the right to recognition everywhere as a person before the law.

ARTICLE 7.
All are equal before the law and are entitled without any discrimination to equal protection of the law....

ARTICLE 8.
Everyone has the right to an effective remedy by the competent national tribunals for acts violating the fundamental rights granted him by the constitution or by law.

ARTICLE 9.
No one shall be subjected to arbitrary arrest, detention or exile.
ARTICLE 10. Everyone is entitled in full equality to a fair and public hearing by an independent and impartial tribunal...

ARTICLE 11. (1) Everyone charged with a penal offence has the right to be presumed innocent until proved guilty according to law in a public trial...

ARTICLE 12. No one shall be subjected to arbitrary interference with his privacy, family, home or correspondence...

ARTICLE 13. (1) Everyone has the right to freedom of movement and residence within the borders of each state...

ARTICLE 14. (1) Everyone has the right to seek and to enjoy in other countries asylum from persecution...

ARTICLE 15. (1) Everyone has the right to a nationality...

ARTICLE 16. (1) Men and women of full age, without any limitation due to race, nationality or religion, have the right to marry and to found a family...

ARTICLE 17. (1) Everyone has the right to own property alone as well as in association with others...

ARTICLE 18. Everyone has the right to freedom of thought, conscience and religion...

ARTICLE 19. Everyone has the right to freedom of opinion and expression...

ARTICLE 20. (1) Everyone has the right to freedom of peaceful assembly and association...

ARTICLE 21. (1) Everyone has the right to take part in the government of his country, directly or through freely chosen representatives...

ARTICLE 22. Everyone, as a member of society, has the right to social security...

ARTICLE 23. (1) Everyone has the right to work, to free choice of employment, to just and favourable conditions of work and to protection against unemployment...

ARTICLE 24. Everyone has the right to rest and leisure, including reasonable limitation of working hours and periodic holidays with pay.

ARTICLE 25. (1) Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well-being of himself and his family...

ARTICLE 26. (1) Everyone has the right to education...

ARTICLE 27. (1) Everyone has the right freely to participate in the cultural life of the community...

ARTICLE 28. Everyone is entitled to a social and international order in which the rights and freedoms set forth in this Declaration can be fully realized.

ARTICLE 29. Everyone has duties to the community in which alone the free and full development of his personality is possible...

ARTICLE 30. Nothing in this Declaration may be interpreted as implying for any State, group or person any right to engage in any activity or to perform any act aimed at the destruction of any of the rights and freedoms set forth herein.
The Helsinki Accords were the result of the Conference on Security and Co-operation in Europe, which took place in July 1975 in Helsinki, Finland. The Accords were meant as a treaty to improve relations between the United States and Western Europe on the one hand and the Soviet Union and Communist Eastern Europe on the other. The purpose was to reduce tensions due to Cold War differences between democracies and Communist powers.

Complete the steps below as you read the document:
- Highlight or underline any specific rights that are guaranteed within the document.
- Place an exclamation point by any rights the regime in the Soviet Union violated.
- Choose five of the exclamation points you noted; number them 1–5.
- At the bottom of the excerpt, in the spaces numbered 1 to 5, give a specific example of how the Soviet regime violated each right.

Questions relating to Security in Europe

The States participating in the Conference on Security and Co-operation in Europe,

Reaffirming their objective of promoting better relations among themselves and ensuring conditions in which their people can live in true and lasting peace free from any threat to or attempt against their security...

Recognizing the close link between peace and security in Europe and in the world as a whole and conscious of the need for each of them to make its contribution to the strengthening of world peace and security and to the promotion of fundamental rights, economic and social progress and well-being for all peoples;

Have adopted the following...

VII. Respect for human rights and fundamental freedoms, including the freedom of thought, conscience, religion or belief, for all without distinction as to race, sex, language or religion.

They will promote and encourage the effective exercise of civil, political, economic, social, cultural and other rights and freedoms all of which derive from the inherent dignity of the human person and are essential for his free and full development.

Within this framework the participating States will recognize and respect the freedom of the individual to profess and practice, alone or in community with others, religion or belief acting in accordance with the dictates of his own conscience.

The participating States on whose territory national minorities exist will respect the right of persons belonging to such minorities to equality before the law, will afford them the full opportunity for the actual enjoyment of human rights and fundamental freedoms and will, in this manner, protect their legitimate interests in this sphere.

The participating States recognize the universal significance of human rights and
fundamental freedoms, respect for which is an essential factor for the peace, justice and wellbeing necessary to ensure the development of friendly relations and co-operation among themselves as among all States.

They will constantly respect these rights and freedoms in their mutual relations and will endeavour jointly and separately, including in co-operation with the United Nations, to promote universal and effective respect for them.

They confirm the right of the individual to know and act upon his rights and duties in this field.

In the field of human rights and fundamental freedoms, the participating States will act in conformity with the purposes and principles of the Charter of the United Nations and with the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. They will also fulfil their obligations as set forth in the international declarations and agreements in this field, including inter alia the International Covenants on Human Rights, by which they may be bound...
The Freedom Collection Presents:

FREEDOM MATTERS!

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

Unit 3, Lesson 3
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, Mohandas 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.”
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?

   tiananmen/?_php=true&_type=blogs&_r=0


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.
SOUTH AFRICA CASE STUDY

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
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<th>CHINA</th>
<th>SOUTH AFRICA</th>
<th>POLAND</th>
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<tr>
<td>How did the government respond to these movements for freedom?</td>
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<td>What conditions or policies led to restrictions on individual freedom in this country?</td>
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<td>What limits did the government place on individual freedom? What specific rights did the government limit?</td>
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<td>What caused individuals to speak out against oppression and demand changes?</td>
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<td>How did other countries respond to these movements for freedom?</td>
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Use the chart below to record your original research and the research shared by your group members.
# 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.

## Ranking Freedom Movements

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<th>Rank</th>
<th>Country</th>
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<td>1</td>
<td>Poland</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>South Africa</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>China</td>
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</table>

Describe your freedom advocate's experience of opposing tyranny in South Africa.

Describe your freedom advocate's experience of opposing tyranny in Poland.

Describe your freedom advocate's experience of opposing tyranny in China.

Name of your individual:
UNIT 3, LESSON 4

ASSESSING TWENTIETH-CENTURY MOVEMENTS FOR FREEDOM

INTRODUCTION

In this culminating lesson of Unit 3, students will participate in a text-based, structured discussion to assess their understanding of twentieth-century movements for freedom in China, Poland, and South Africa. They will compare and contrast the nature of the state, the individual’s experience of freedom, and the motivations and actions of dissidents and democracy advocates who opposed repressive governments. Students will also assess the relative success of these movements and the status of freedom in each country today. An individual evaluation of student learning will follow the text-based, structured discussion.

GUIDING QUESTIONS

- What similarities and differences do you see in the three case studies in terms of:
  - The nature of the state and system of government
  - The repressions of individual freedoms
  - The motivations and actions of movements for democratic government and individual freedoms
- How would you assess the impact of movements for freedom in each of the three countries?
- Which movements, if any, had external influences?
- Based on your research, which country do you think has made the most progress in securing the political, economic, and personal freedoms of individuals?
- What do these three case studies suggest about the nature and importance of freedom to all individuals?
- Do you see any parallels between these case studies and movements to resist tyranny that you might be aware of today?
OBJECTIVES

STUDENTS WILL:

- Compare the systems of government and experiences of individual freedom in China, Poland, and South Africa during the second half of the twentieth century.
- Analyze the motivations for, and short- and long-term effects of, the freedom movements in each country.
- Evaluate and compare the success of these freedom movements. Engage in a text-based, structured discussion to demonstrate knowledge and understanding of the freedom movements in each country.

LENGTH OF LESSON

- 55–60 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.”

RESOURCES
- Handout 1, Class Discussion Preparation
- Handout 2, Structured Discussion Checklist

PREREQUISITES
- Unit 3, Lesson 3

NOTES TO THE TEACHER
Prior to class, fill out the checklist with the names of the students participating in the structured discussion. Teachers will use the checklist to score the discussion and, if a grade is to be given, evaluate individual student participation.

PROCEDURE
(times below are suggested)

1. (5 minutes) Warm-Up: Allow students to meet with their Expert Group from Lesson 3 to finalize any questions they may have on the Class Discussion Preparation handout they were asked to complete for homework.

2. (5 minutes) Prepare students for the text-based structured discussion by explaining the criteria and rules listed below.
   - Define text-based, structured discussion as a highly structured discussion of commonly shared material around open-ended questions; all answers must be based in evidence.
• Explain the rules:
  • Students should express their opinions and must provide textual support from the materials as evidence. They are encouraged to reference their planning sheet.
  • Students should make efforts to add new textual support if concurring with previous commentary from another student.
  • All participants are expected to participate equally and take turns speaking.
  • Participants will value the opinions of other participants and treat all comments with respect.
• Remind students that they may use the materials from Lesson 3 (the Twentieth-Century Freedom Movements: Case Study Analysis Chart and the case study texts) since they are expected to support all comments with textual evidence.
• Review the criteria on the Structured Discussion Checklist that will be used to evaluate their participation in the discussion.

3. [35–40 minutes] Conduct the discussion by selecting from the list of possible questions below. If student participation is lagging, remind them that they receive points for answering the questions, furthering the comments of others, citing the text to support their opinions, and actively listening.
  • What similarities or differences do you see in the three movements with regard to:
    • The nature of the governments in China, Poland, and South Africa
    • The repressions of individual freedoms in the three countries
    • The motivations and actions of those advocating for individual freedoms
  • Describe the positive or negative effects of external influences on each movement.
  • According to your analysis, which country do you feel had the most to overcome in order to secure the individual rights of its people?
  • Based on your research, which country do you think has made the most progress in securing the political, economic, and personal freedoms of individuals? Why do you think that country has been more successful than the other two?
  • [OPTIONAL] Do you see any parallels between these case studies and other movements to resist tyranny today that you might be aware of?
  • What do these movements toward democracy teach us about the nature and importance of freedom to all individuals?

4. [10 minutes] To conclude the lesson, have each student write a response to the following questions:
  • What are three key ideas you learned from the content of the seminar?
  • What new insights about the individual’s struggle and desire for freedom have you gained?
  • Optional: What are three key things you learned from the process of the discussion?
CLASS DISCUSSION PREPARATION

Using the three case studies of China, Poland, and South Africa you have studied in class, complete the following questions to assist you in preparing for a class discussion. The class discussion will require you to reference citations from the texts, so rather than answering in complete sentences, it is recommended that you write phrases and supporting citations.

1. Compare the nature of the government in China, Poland, and South Africa.

2. Compare the repression of individual freedom in China, Poland, and South Africa.

3. Compare the motives and actions of the dissidents who advocated for individual freedoms.

4. What effects (positive or negative) did external influences have on each movement?

5. Compare the changes needed in each country to secure the individual rights of citizens in China, Poland, and South Africa. Which country do you think needed the most significant changes?

6. Compare the progress made in China, Poland, and South Africa in securing the political, economic, and personal freedoms of the individual. Which do you think was most successful?

7. Are there any current movements for freedom or resistance to tyranny that compare to these three movements?

8. When considered together, what do these three movements teach you about the nature and importance of freedom to all individuals?
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<th>NAME OF STUDENT</th>
<th>NUMBER OF TIMES SPEAKING</th>
<th>CITATIONS OF TEXTUAL SUPPORT</th>
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