10th Grade Apartheid Inquiry

What Ended Apartheid?


Supporting Questions

1. What was apartheid?
2. What efforts were made by Nelson Mandela to end apartheid?
3. What efforts were made by groups within South Africa to end apartheid?
4. What efforts were made by international bodies to end apartheid?
10th Grade Apartheid Inquiry

What Ended Apartheid?

New York State Social Studies Framework Key Idea & Practices

10.10 HUMAN RIGHTS VIOLATIONS: Since the Holocaust, human rights violations have generated worldwide attention and concern. The United Nations Universal Declaration of Human Rights has provided a set of principles to guide efforts to protect threatened groups and has served as a lens through which historical occurrences of oppression can be evaluated.

Formative Performance Task

Create an illustrated timeline of apartheid policies and write a definition for apartheid.

Formative Performance Task

Add Nelson Mandela’s efforts to end apartheid to the illustrated timeline and write a two-sentence, evidence-based summary of them.

Formative Performance Task

Add the efforts of others in South Africa to end apartheid to the illustrated timeline and write a two-sentence summary using evidence.

Formative Performance Task

Add international bodies’ efforts to end apartheid to the illustrated timeline and write a two-sentence summary using evidence.

Featured Sources

Source A: Description and photo of the Pass Laws

Source B: Description and map of the bantustans, or “homelands”

Source C: Description and photo of forced removal efforts

Source A: Excerpt from Mandela’s statement from the dock at the opening of the defense case in the Rivonia Trial

Source B: Video What efforts were made by Nelson Mandela to end apartheid?

Source C: Excerpt from “Nelson Mandela, the Man Who Brought South Africa Out of Apartheid, Dies at 95”

Source A: Excerpt from “A brief history of the African National Congress”


Source C: Excerpt from “A Brief Organizational History of the South African Students Organization (SASCO) and the Student Movement”

Source A: Excerpt from address by Nelson Mandela to the conference of the Pan-African Freedom Movement of East and Central Africa

Source B: Excerpt from United States Comprehensive Anti-Apartheid Act

Source C: Excerpt from “United Nations: Partner in the Struggle against Apartheid”

Summative Performance Task

ARGUMENT What ended apartheid? Construct an argument (e.g., detailed outline, poster, essay) that addresses the compelling question using specific claims and relevant evidence from historical sources while acknowledging competing views.

EXTENSION The year 2019 will mark the 25th anniversary of the end of apartheid. Hold a class discussion on what should be done to celebrate the event, including who and what should be remembered.

Taking Informed Action

UNDERSTAND Research gains and pains of life in South Africa since apartheid officially ended in 1994.

ASSESS Weigh the extent to which the South African government, citizens, or other organizations are successfully responding to one of the challenges of life in post-apartheid South Africa.

ACT Using the platform of “Mandela Day,” create a class position statement outlining the actions citizens in the United States could take to help respond to one challenge of life in post-apartheid South Africa.
Overview

Inquiry Description

This inquiry leads students through an investigation of the efforts made by individuals, organizations, and institutions that eventually resulted in the end of apartheid in 1994. By investigating the compelling question “What ended apartheid?” students focus on the policies of apartheid and consider the various endeavors to end this system of racial separation and constitutional prejudice in South Africa. In investigating the work of Nelson Mandela, South African organizations, and international institutions, students create an illustrated timeline that showcases the breadth of the struggle to end apartheid and begin to evaluate the reasons that apartheid officially ended. Students’ illustrated timelines could take any form and might include photographs, quotes, textual evidence, and/or personal annotations.

In addition to the Key Idea listed earlier, this inquiry highlights the following Conceptual Understanding:

• (10.10c) Historical and contemporary violations of human rights can be evaluated using the principles and articles established within the UN Universal Declaration of Human Rights.

NOTE: This inquiry is expected to take four to six 40-minute class periods. The inquiry time frame could expand if teachers think their students need additional instructional experiences (i.e., supporting questions, formative performance tasks, and featured sources). Teachers are encouraged to adapt the inquiries in order to meet the needs and interests of their particular students. Resources can also be modified as necessary to meet individualized education programs (IEPs) or Section 504 Plans for students with disabilities.

Structure of the Inquiry

In addressing the compelling question “What ended apartheid?” students work through a series of supporting questions, formative performance tasks, and featured sources in order to construct an argument with evidence while acknowledging competing perspectives.

Staging the Compelling Question

The compelling question could be staged by having students examine various maps of the “homelands” in South Africa that existed under apartheid. Students could use the various maps to highlight the differences between free areas and “homelands,” particularly in terms of resources and economics. Then students could discuss the implications of and challenges to ending apartheid based on these differences. Teachers could use the maps from http://www.overcomingapartheid.msu.edu/listmaps.php and could use this discussion to foster students’ understanding of the extensive political and economic challenges facing those working to end apartheid.
Supporting Question 1

The first supporting question—“What was apartheid?”—helps students establish a foundational understanding of the social, political, and economic separation between the various races that was instituted by South Africa’s Afrikaner government, which was comprised of people of Northern European heritage. The formative performance task requires students to begin the creation of an illustrated timeline by identifying different apartheid policies and placing them in chronological order by date of adoption. They should highlight three specific apartheid policies, namely the pass laws, the bantustans or “homelands,” and forced removal efforts. The featured sources include photographs, maps, quotes, and descriptions of the apartheid system.

Supporting Question 2

The second supporting question—“What efforts were made by Nelson Mandela to end apartheid?”—allows students to build on their understanding of the policies of apartheid by examining the actions that Nelson Mandela took. The formative performance task calls on students to add Mandela’s efforts to their illustrated timeline and to write a two-sentence summary of his actions. The featured sources, a speech by Mandela, an oral history of photographer Jürgen Schadeburg, and an article on Mandela’s death, should help students trace the nonviolent and violent actions that Mandela took over time to help bring an end to apartheid policies.

Supporting Question 3

By answering the third supporting question—“What efforts were made by groups within South Africa to end apartheid?”—students’ interpretations of the factors that led to the end of apartheid are challenged as they focus on the efforts of collective organizations in South Africa. The featured sources consist of histories written by the African National Congress, the Black Sash, and the South African Student Organization. The formative performance task asks students to add annotations based on these readings to their illustrated timeline.

Supporting Question 4

By considering the final supporting question—“What efforts were made by international bodies to end apartheid?”—students continue to expand their understanding of the efforts that officially ended apartheid by examining the role of international bodies and foreign pressure. The featured sources are a speech by Mandela to the Pan-African Freedom Movement, excerpts from the United States Comprehensive Anti-Apartheid Act, and from the United Nations campaign against apartheid. The formative performance task directs students to add the efforts of the Pan-African States, the United States, and the United Nations to their illustrated timeline.
At this point in the inquiry, students have examined how Nelson Mandela, South African collective organizations, and international institutions all contributed to ending apartheid. Students should be able to demonstrate the breadth of their understanding and the ability to use evidence from multiple sources to support their claims. In this task, students construct an evidence-based argument responding to the compelling question “What ended apartheid?” It is important to note that students’ arguments could take a variety of forms, including a detailed outline, poster, or essay.

Students’ arguments will likely vary, but could include any of the following:

- Nelson Mandela was an irreplaceable leader of the anti-apartheid movement and was instrumental in inspiring the efforts of other groups to help end apartheid.
- Although Nelson Mandela proved an invaluable leader, his efforts to end apartheid would not have been as successful without the support and action of additional groups within South Africa.
- Despite the tremendous sacrifices made by those within South Africa, it ultimately took international economic and political pressure to end apartheid.
- No single effort ended apartheid; its elimination was the product of the combined efforts of Nelson Mandela, South African organizations, and international bodies.

Students could extend these arguments by holding a class discussion on the upcoming 25th anniversary of the end of apartheid. Students should discuss what could be done to celebrate the event and who and/or what should be remembered as contributing to the end of apartheid.

Students have the opportunity to Take Informed Action by continuing their investigation into how life has changed (or not changed) since the ending of apartheid in South Africa. They demonstrate that they understand by researching the gains and pains of life in South Africa since apartheid officially ended in 1994. They show their ability to assess by investigating post-apartheid life as they deep-dive into one of the challenges that still plagues South Africa. And they act by developing a class position statement that outlines actions citizens in the United States can take to help to respond to this challenge.
Supporting Question 1

**Featured Source**

**Source A:** Michigan State University, summary of the Pass Laws, “South Africa: Overcoming Apartheid, Building Democracy,” 2015

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Pass laws were designed to control the movement of Africans under apartheid. These laws evolved from regulations imposed by the Dutch and British in the 18th and 19th-century slave economy of the Cape Colony. In the 19th century, the new pass laws were enacted for the purpose of ensuring a reliable supply of cheap, docile African labor for the gold and diamond mines. In 1952, the government enacted an even more rigid law that required all African males over the age of 16 to carry a “reference book” containing personal information and employment history.

Africans often were compelled to violate the pass laws to find work to support their families, so harassment, fines, and arrests under the pass laws were a constant threat to many urban Africans. Protest against these humiliating laws fueled the anti-apartheid struggle—from the Defiance Campaign (1952–1954), the massive women’s protest in Pretoria (1956), to burning of passes at the police station in Sharpeville where 69 protesters were massacred (1960). In the 1970s and 1980s, many Africans found in violation of pass laws were stripped of citizenship and deported to poverty-stricken rural “homelands.” By the time the increasingly expensive and ineffective pass laws were repealed in 1986, they had led to more than 17 million arrests.

The Bantustans (also known as “homelands”) were a cornerstone of the “grand apartheid” policy of the 1960s and 1970s, justified by the apartheid government as benevolent “separate development.” The Bantustans were created by the Promotion of Bantu Self-Government Act of 1959, which abolished indirect representation of blacks in Pretoria and divided Africans into ten ethnically discrete groups, each assigned a traditional “homeland.” Established on the territorial foundations imposed by the Land Act of 1913 (amended in 1936), the homelands constituted only 13% of the land—for approximately 75% of the population.

The Bantu Homelands Citizenship Act of 1970 declared that all Africans were citizens of “homelands,” rather than of South Africa itself—a step toward the government’s ultimate goal of having no African citizens of South Africa. Between 1976 and 1981, four homelands—Transkei, Venda, Bophuthatswana, and Ciskei—were declared “independent” by Pretoria, and eight million Africans lost their South African citizenship. None of the homelands were recognized by any other country. Limiting African political rights to the homelands was widely opposed, and, in 1986, South African citizenship was restored to those people who were born outside the four “independent” homelands. After 1994, the homelands were reabsorbed into South Africa.

From 1960 to 1983, the apartheid government forcibly moved 3.5 million black South Africans in one of the largest mass removals of people in modern history. There were several political and economic reasons for these removals. First, during the 1950s and 1960s, large-scale removals of Africans, Indians, and Coloureds were carried out to implement the Group Areas Act, which mandated residential segregation throughout the country. More than 860,000 people were forced to move in order to divide and control racially-separate communities at a time of growing organized resistance to apartheid in urban areas; the removals also worked to the economic detriment of Indian shop owners. Sophiatown in Johannesburg (1955–1963) and District Six in Cape Town (beginning in 1968) were among the vibrant multi-racial communities that were destroyed by government bulldozers when these areas were declared “white.” Blacks were forcibly removed to distant segregated townships, sometimes 19 miles from places of employment in the central cities. In Cape Town, many informal settlements were destroyed. In one incident over four days in 1985, Africans resisted being moved from Crossroads to the new government-run Khayelitsha township farther away; 18 people were killed and 230 were injured.
Second, African farm laborers made up the largest number of forcibly removed people, mainly pushed out of their jobs by mechanization of agriculture. While this process has happened in many other countries, in South Africa these rural residents were not permitted to move to towns to find new jobs. Instead they were segregated into desperately poor and overcrowded rural areas where there usually were no job prospects.

Third, removals were an essential tool of the apartheid government’s Bantustan (or homeland) policy aimed at stripping all Africans of any political rights as well as their citizenship in South Africa. Hundreds of thousands of Africans were moved to resettlement camps in the bantustans with no services or jobs. The massive removals in the early 1960s to overcrowded, infertile places in the Eastern Cape such as Dmbaza, Ilinge, and Sada were condemned internationally. These were dumping grounds for Africans who were “superfluous to the labor market, “as a 1967 government circular called them. Ultimately, these people were to become the responsibility of “independent” Bantustans so that the white regime would have no financial responsibility for the welfare of people there. Hundreds of thousands of other Africans were dispossessed of land and homes where they had lived for generations in what the government called "Black spots" in areas that the government had designated as part of “white” South Africa. Also, some entire townships were destroyed and their residents removed to just inside the borders of bantustans where they now faced long commutes to their jobs. By the 1980s, popular resistance to removals was widespread, and government plans to remove up to two million more people were never carried out.

© Matrix Center for Digital Humanities and Social Sciences at Michigan State University. Used with permission.  
Supporting Question 2

| Featured Source | Source A: Nelson Mandela, statement from the dock at the opening of the defense case in the Rivonia trial (excerpt), 1964 |

NOTE: Teachers and students can read Nelson Mandela’s opening statement in the Rivonia trial in which anti-apartheid activists were accused of sabotage at this website: [http://www.anc.org.za/content/nelson-mandelas-statement-dock-rivonia-trial](http://www.anc.org.za/content/nelson-mandelas-statement-dock-rivonia-trial).
### Supporting Question 2

| Featured Source | **Source B:** Jürgen Schadeburg (photographer), videotaped oral history on the Defiance Campaign, “What Efforts Were Made by Nelson Mandela to End Apartheid?” *Remembering Nelson Mandela: The Defiance Campaign* The Economist, December 5, 2013 |

**NOTE:** The video "What Efforts Were Made by Nelson Mandela to End Apartheid?" part of “Remembering Nelson Mandela: The Defiance Campaign”, The Economist, December 5, 2013 presents an account of the Defiance Campaign from photographer Jürgen Schadeburg. It can be viewed at: [https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=h7o_jmOW5lg](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=h7o_jmOW5lg)

© The Economist newspaper
The story of his life—of his fight for democracy in South Africa and rights for all, regardless of race—is legendary. For many people, Mandela's story is the story of South Africa.

Mandela will be remembered as a man who went beyond the call of duty. He showed his fellow countrymen that it was possible—perhaps even imperative—to forgive one's enemies. Mandela led by example, inspiring South Africa's political and racial rivals to work together to build a democracy. Mandela was such a powerful leader during apartheid that the white minority government considered him a threat to the state, even from prison.

Authorities banned the publication of Mandela's writings. They refused to allow the media to show Mandela's image. When he was finally released from prison, in February, 1990, most of the world had no idea what he'd look like. And that only added to the drama when he was released, which was clear in a live BBC broadcast on that day:

"And now, Mr Mandela walks through the gates. He's a free man, as of this moment. He's waving his fists in the air, he's smiling. He's a very alert, very imposing-looking figure, slightly greying hair, upright, a beaming Winnie Mandela alongside him"....

Mandela joined the African National Congress two years after he graduated from college. At first, he espoused non-violent resistance to apartheid. But watching the white government's brutal suppression of protestors caused Mandela to change his position. He abandoned his non-violent stance after government troops killed 69 black protestors in Sharpeville in 1960.

"There are many people who feel that it is useless and futile for us to continue talking peace and non-violence against a government whose reply is only savage attacks on an unarmed and defenseless people," he said at the time.

Mandela helped found a military wing of the African National Congress. It was called Spear of the Nation. He was arrested in 1962 on charges of sabotage and treason. At the end of the trial, Mandela, facing a possible death penalty, spoke directly to the judge.

"I have cherished the idea of a democratic and free society in which all persons will live together in harmony and with equal opportunities," he told the judge. "It is an ideal for which I hope to live and to see realized. But, my lord, if needs be, it is an ideal for which I am prepared to die."

Mandela was sentenced to life in prison. But even in his cell, Mandela retained his dignity and his sense of humor....

South African President P. W. Botha opened secret talks with Mandela in 1986. Botha offered to release Mandela if he renounced the use of violence. Mandela refused. He wrote a defiant letter explaining why he chose to stay in prison. His daughter Zinzi read Mandela's message to a cheering crowd at a Soweto stadium.

"My father says: 'I cannot and will not give any undertaking, at a time when I and you, the people, are not free. Your freedom and mine cannot be separated! I will return!'" she said.
Mandela was already plotting his return. From prison, he'd begun talks with the government on forming a multi-racial democracy. In 1990, President FW De Klerk addressed South Africa’s parliament with words the world had been waiting to hear for more than a quarter of a century:

"I wish to put it plainly: The government has taken a firm decision to release Mr. Mandela unconditionally," De Klerk said.

De Klerk and Mandela shared the Nobel Peace Prize in 1993. South Africa held its first all-race elections a year later.

"Today is a day like no other before. Voting in our first free and fair election has begun. Today marks the dawn of our freedom," Mandela said.

Mandela was elected president. He was inaugurated on May 10, 1994. Mandela then outlined his vision for the future of South Africa....

Mandela stepped down in 1999 after his term ended. In retirement, Mandela occasionally used his celebrity status to help South Africa on the world stage. He was credited with helping to bring the 2010 Soccer World Cup to South Africa, the first time an African nation hosted the global event.

But in 2005, Mandela told a crowd in London of his proudest accomplishment: helping to end apartheid in South Africa.

"Never, never and never again shall it be that this beautiful land will again experience the oppression of one by another and suffer the indignity of being the skunk of the world. The sun shall never set on so glorious a human achievement. Let freedom reign, God Bless Africa," he said.

## Supporting Question 3


Calling themselves the 'Women’s Defence of the Constitution League', they organized marches, petitions, overnight vigils, protest meetings and a convoy of cars from Johannesburg to Cape Town. They became known for the symbol of a black sash, worn by members, and draped over a symbolic replica of the Constitution when the Senate Bill and the Separate Representation of Voters Bill were eventually passed.

While the Black Sash’s initial focus was on constitutional issues, it expanded to include the moral, legal and socio-economic issues around racial discrimination.

During the early 1960s the Black Sash protested against issues like the segregation of libraries, the Undesirable Publications Bill and the denial of permission for Dr. AC Jordan to travel to the USA. The Black Sash also organized a five-day vigil to demonstrate against the Sabotage Bill outside Johannesburg City Hall and other centres.

Initially, membership to the Black Sash was only open to female voters resident in South Africa (which signified white women). In 1963, all women residing in South Africa were able to become members of the Black Sash. Nevertheless, it remained mainly a “white” organization.

The following 20 years were bitter and difficult for those who actively opposed apartheid. Political movements and their leaders were driven underground or into exile and many opposition voices were brutally silenced. But the women of the Black Sash refused to give up or back down. Day after day, the women of the Black Sash stood in silent protest with their placards. Day after day, they continued to help those who queued outside the Black Sash advice offices. They sat in the courts, they witnessed the demolition of people’s homes and the forced removals of entire communities.

Their physical, witnessing presence enabled the Black Sash to speak with authority of what its members had experienced—in the courts and at Commissions of inquiry; monitoring at sites of forced removals, potential violence or police action. Every comment, every statistic, every statement issued by the Black Sash during these difficult years was underpinned and supported by these daily experiences—in the advice offices, in fieldwork and in personal witness. This strong foundation of first-hand knowledge earned the respect of many who came to rely on this information.

Despite the terrible ongoing violence in the early nineties, the time had come to prepare for the building of a new nation. The Black Sash took part in the work to develop a new Constitution as well as in the debates about the nature of transition and the shape of the new society. They also engaged in extensive voter education in the run up to South Africa’s first all-inclusive election in 1994.

Although Apartheid was over, the country was left battered, broken and divided. The Black Sash participated in the discussions which eventually led to the establishment of the Truth and Reconciliation Commission.

In recognition of its forty years of effort, the Black Sash was awarded the Danish Peace Foundation’s Peace Prize in 1995.
Members of the Black Sash peacefully protest during a stand.
Supporting Question 3

| Featured Source | Source C: South African Students Organization, “A Brief Organizational History of the South African Students Organization (SASCO) and the Student Movement,” (excerpt), 2010 |

Formation of NUSAS IN 1924

The year 1924 marked a great step in the history of the student movement in South Africa when students from all Afrikaans and English speaking campuses, met in Grey College to form the first student organisation in the country, the National Union of South African Student's (NUSAS). It is this conference that began to determine and set pace in the development to the student movement in South Africa.

NUSAS was a co-ordinator of SRC’s and it was able to exert progressive outlook to student organisation. This conference witnessed the walkout of conservative Afrikaner students to form the Afrikaner National Student bond.

Formation of South African Students Organisation (SASO).

NUSAS, whilst progressive in outlook, was dominated by white students who were removed from the reality of African Communities. African students felt that they were marginalized within NUSAS and sought to express their voices and influence the student movement.

Leaders like Steve Biko, Barney Pityana, Aubrey Mokoena, Patrick Lekota, Saths Cooper and countless others who become exponents of the Black Consciousness Movement lead a breakaway from NUSAS and formed the South African Students Organization (SASO) in 1969.

SASO linked students’ protests and their activities with community programmes by encouraging students become involved in community activity. This was done through the establishment of community health centres, advice offices and literacy classes. The leadership was put on trial for treason. This had the effect of weakening the student movement, but nonetheless new leaders who had their roots in community based organisations emerged to fill the vacuum.

SASO was banned in 1977 as part of a national crackdown in the aftermath of the June 1976 uprising. Whilst the dominant thought within SASO was Black Consciousness, many of the leaders of SASO had outgrown this philosophy had moved towards the more inclusive ideological school as represented by the Congress movement and the adherents to the Freedom Charter.

AZASO \ NUSAS Alliance

The Azanian Students Organisation (AZASO) was launched in 1981 to fill the vacuum left by the banning of SASO. It brought together the SRC’s of the Black campuses. NUSAS was less affected by the 1977 crackdown and it was still felt that black students had to organise separately to cater for their own specific conditions.
There was a strong alliance between AZASO and the Azanian Peoples' Organisation (AZAPO), which represented Black Consciousness. AZASO moved towards the non-racial outlook of the Freedom Charter which set it on a collision course with AZAPO which felt that the Freedom equal citizens in a future democratic South Africa.

AZASO was however coming under the influence of charterists who worked with NUSAS to defend the rights of students and to co-ordinate their struggles against apartheid. Campaigns like the anti Republic collaborated also to wage a campaign against the tricameral parliament, starting in 1983 as affiliates of the United Democratic Front (UDF).

Both organizations linked up with local UDF affiliates and undertook door to door visits to educate people about the dangers within the proposed new constitution. An intensive campaign was also waged in support of an education charter, which was to ensure that education becomes open to all.

Formation of SANSCO

AZASO become increasingly aloof from its Black Consciousness origins and sought to reflect the jettisoning of this baggage by changing its name to the more representative South African National Students Congress (SANSCO) to also reflect its complete adherence to the Freedom Charter and the congress movement led by the African National Congress which was still banned. SANSCO identified closely with community organizations was an active affiliate of the UDF.

SANSCO closely co-operated with NUSAS, against De Klerk's Education Bill that intended to reduce subsidies to politically active Universities. In February 1988, both government banned a wide range of organizations including the UDF and SASNCO. By this time there was increasing joint action by both SANSCO and NUSAS, recognizing the need for a single national students organization to articulate student aspirations.

The merger of SANSCO and NUSAS—Post 1990 era

In February, the banned liberation movements were un-banned and leaders were freed from prisons. This new political dispensation in the country led to SANSCO and NUSAS engaging in talks about the formation of one non-racial student organisation.

A launching congress was finally held on the 1st to the 6th of September. This was the most emotional congress as SASCO was now a single non-racial student organization and became the biggest in the country, which remains the only organization for student interest across the racial lines.

Courtesy of the South African Students' Congress (SASCO). Used with permission. Source:
http://www.sasco.org.za/show.php?include=about/history.html
### Supporting Question 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Featured Source</strong></th>
<th><strong>Source A:</strong> Nelson Mandela, speech describing international boycotts due to apartheid, “Address to the Conference of the Pan-African Freedom Movement of East and Central Africa” (excerpt), 1962</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

**NOTE:** Teachers and students can read Nelson Mandela’s “Address to the Conference of the Pan-African Freedom Movement of East and Central Africa” by clicking on this link: [http://www.anc.org.za/content/brief-history-anc](http://www.anc.org.za/content/brief-history-anc).
# Supporting Question 4

| Featured Source | Source B: United States Congress, congressional act placing sanctions on South Africa during apartheid, *United States Comprehensive Anti-Apartheid Act* (excerpts), 1986 |

**Title I: Policy of the United States with respect to ending apartheid** - Requires U.S. policy toward South Africa to be designed to bring about the establishment of a nonracial democracy in South Africa. Sets forth actions that the United States shall encourage South Africa to take, including releasing Nelson Mandela and establishing a timetable for the elimination of apartheid laws. Requires the United States to adjust its actions toward South Africa to reflect the progress made by South Africa in establishing a nonracial democracy.

Declares that U.S. policy toward the African National Congress, the Pan African Congress, and their affiliates shall be designed to bring about a suspension of violence that will lead to the start of negotiations. Requires the United States to work toward this goal by encouraging such organizations, through diplomatic and political measures, to: (1) suspend terrorist activities; (2) make known their commitment to a free and democratic post-apartheid South Africa; (3) agree to enter into negotiations for the peaceful solution to South Africa’s problems; and (4) reexamine their ties to the South African Communist Party. Requires the United States to adjust its actions toward South Africa not only to reflect progress or lack of progress made by South Africa in establishing a nonracial democracy but also to reflect progress or lack of progress made by such organizations in bringing about a suspension of violence.

**Title II: Measures to Assist Victims of Apartheid** - Amends the Foreign Assistance Act of 1961 to earmark a specified amount of the education and human resources development assistance funds for each of FY [fiscal year] 1987 through 1989 to finance education, training, and scholarships for the victims of apartheid. Authorizes the use of Economic Support Fund monies for such purposes in lieu of an equal amount made through the education and human resources development assistance.

Requires the use of Economic Support Fund monies, in addition to the funds used for purposes described in the preceding paragraph, to finance scholarships for students pursuing secondary school education in South Africa. Requires the selection of such scholarship recipients to be by a nationwide panel or by regional panels appointed by the U.S. chief of diplomatic mission to South Africa. Authorizes the use of up to $1,000,000 of Economic Support Fund assistance for such purposes for each of FY 1987 through FY 1989.

**Title III: Measures by the United States to Undermine Apartheid** - Prohibits exporting computers, computer software, or computer technology to or for the use of: (1) the South African military, police, prison system, national security agencies; (2) ARMSCOR and its subsidiaries or the weapons research activities of the South African Council for Scientific and Industrial Research; (3) the administering authorities for apartheid; (4) any apartheid enforcing agency; or (5) any governmental entity which performs any of the above functions.

Prohibits the importation from South Africa of: (1) any agricultural product; (2) any article that is fit for human consumption; and (3) iron or steel.

Prohibits exporting crude oil or refined petroleum to South Africa.

Public domain. [http://thomas.loc.gov/cgi-bin/bdquery/z?d099:HR04868:@@@D&summ2=m&](http://thomas.loc.gov/cgi-bin/bdquery/z?d099:HR04868:@@@D&summ2=m&)
Supporting Question 4

### Featured Source

**Source C:** United Nations, timeline of UN anti-apartheid actions, “United Nations: Partner in the Struggle against Apartheid” (excerpt), 2015

The elimination of South Africa’s system of legalized racial discrimination known as *apartheid* (“apart-ness” in the Afrikaans language of the descendants of the first Dutch settlers) was on the agenda of the United Nations from its inception. On 22 June 1946 the Indian government requested that the discriminatory treatment of Indians in the Union of South Africa be included on the agenda of the very first session of the General Assembly.

In the decades that followed the world body would contribute to the global struggle against apartheid by drawing world attention to the inhumanity of the system, legitimizing popular resistance, promoting anti-apartheid actions by governmental and non-governmental organizations, instituting an arms embargo, and supporting an oil embargo and boycotts of apartheid in many fields.

**Key dates in the UN campaign against apartheid:**

**2 December 1950**—The General Assembly declared that "a policy of 'racial segregation' (apartheid) is necessarily based on doctrines of racial discrimination" (Resolution 395(V)).

**7 August 1963**—The Security Council adopted Resolution 181 calling upon all States to cease the sale and shipment of arms, ammunition and military vehicles to South Africa. The arms embargo was made mandatory on 4 November 1977.

**13 November 1963**—The General Assembly, in Resolution 1899 (XVIII) on the question of Namibia, urged all States to refrain from supplying petroleum to South Africa. It was the first of many efforts by the UN to enact effective oil sanctions against apartheid.

**2 December 1968**—The General Assembly requested all States and organisations "to suspend cultural, educational, sporting and other exchanges with the racist regime and with organisations or institutions in South Africa which practice apartheid.

**1 January 1976**—The UN Centre Against Apartheid was established.

**17 August 1984**—In Resolution 554 the Security Council declared null and void the new racist constitution of South Africa.

**14 December 1989**—The General Assembly adopted by consensus the "Declaration on Apartheid and its Destructive Consequences in Southern Africa," calling for negotiations to end apartheid and establish a non-racial democracy (Resolution A/RES/S-16/1).

**22 June 1990**—Nelson Mandela addressed the Special Committee against Apartheid in New York—his first appearance before the Organisation.
30 July 1992—With political violence escalating and negotiations at risk, Nelson Mandela requested the United Nations to send observers to South Africa. On the following day the Secretary-General announced that he would send a small group of UN monitors. The United Nations Observer Mission in South Africa was established by the Security Council on 17 August 1992.

8 October 1993—The General Assembly requested States to restore economic relations with South Africa immediately, and terminate the oil embargo when the Transitional Executive Council in South Africa became operational (Resolution 48/1).

23 June 1994—The General Assembly approved the credentials of the South African delegation and removed the item of apartheid from its agenda. The Security Council removed the question of South Africa from its agenda on 27 June.

3 October 1994—The first democratically elected president of South Africa, Nelson Mandela, addresses the General Assembly.