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Introduction

Decolonization, a word that belongs majorly to the 1960's and perhaps one of the most important events in the twentieth century is a historical process that can only become comprehensible in the exact measure that the movement which gives it historical form or content is understood. When it became apparent that the European-centered world was no longer tenable, because of the unsettling of all empires during the Second World War, anti-colonial nationalism surged after 1945. Drawing from the lessons in mass politicization and mass mobilization of the 1920s and 1930s, anti-colonial nationalists set about dismantling the European colonial order and creating a free world of their own.

The process of decolonization and nation building followed three broad patterns - civil war, negotiation and incomplete decolonization. The first pattern can be identified in China, where the ousting of the Japanese occupiers led to a civil war and a national independence associated with a socialist revolution which culminated in a communist triumph. The second pattern can be gleaned in the Indian sub-continent and much of Africa. The third pattern is exemplified by Algeria and South Africa in which the presence of sizeable European settler populations complicated the path from colony to nation.

The chapter does not intend to discuss decolonization from the three patterns mentioned above. Rather, decolonization is discussed under Asia, Latin America and Africa. This intention it is hoped will offer a sufficiently comprehensive survey and explanation of shaping trends, movements, ideas and persons in the period of continental change when the colonies moved into the modern world and became fully part of it.

Asia

Unlike India and Africa, China was never formally colonized despite the fact that all great powers tried to bite on it. Nevertheless, its sovereignty was compromised by the presence of substantial concession areas established by various foreign powers on Chinese soil in the late nineteenth century. By eighteen hundred, Europeans had been in contact with China for more than two hundred years. But European merchants were restricted to a small trading post at Guangzhou (Canton 22). The British did not like this arrangement since they had a trade imbalance with China. To improve their trade imbalance the British began to trade opium with the Chinese (Loveli 30). The Chinese government had already seen how dangerous opium was and had made the opium trade illegal.

The Chinese government asked the British government to stop the opium trade but the British refused. The Chinese government then blockaded the foreign area in Guangzhou so that they could seize the opium before it came into the country. The British responded with force which started the first opium war from 1839-1842. (Loveli 55). The Chinese were no match for the British so the Qing dynasty decided to make peace with the British. In the treaty of Nanjing in 1842 the Chinese agreed to open

five coastal ports to British trade. In these ports, Europeans lived in their own section and were subject to their own laws. This practice is known as extraterritoriality. The Chinese also agreed to limit taxes on imported British goods and to pay for the cost of the war. China also gave the island of Hong Kong to the British (Fairband 1). But nothing was said in the treaty about the opium trade.

Qing dynasty's struggle with the western powers made it impossible for it to deal effectively with the internal problems especially economic problems at that time. From 1850-1864 Hong Xiuquan a Christian convert led the peasants in a revolt known as the tai Ping Rebellion (Kulin 266). One reason why the Qing dynasty was unable to deal effectively with these internal problems was its struggle with the western powers. Beginning in 1856, Great Britain and France used great force to gain more trade privileges. Because of the treaty of Tianjin (Wong 300), in 1858 the Chinese agreed to legalize the opium trade and open new ports to foreign trade. The United States Secretary of state's John Hay also gave the peninsula of Kowloon to Great Britain. When the Chinese resisted part of the treaty, the British seized Beijing in 1860.

By the late 1850's the Qing dynasty was in decline and European countries took advantage of these and began to create spheres of influence. These were the areas where the imperial powers had exclusive trading rights. Great Britain and the United States became afraid that other nations would overrun China if the Chinese government collapsed. In 1899, Hay presented a proposal that ensured equal access to the Chinese markets for all nations. It also preserved the unity of the Chinese Empire. When none of the other governments opposed the idea, Hay proclaimed that all major nations had agreed that China should have an Open-Door Policy (Hunt 78).

The Open-Door Policy did not end the system of spheres of influence. But it did reduce the limits on foreign imports that had been imposed within each sphere. The policy also lessened fears in Britain, France, Germany and Russia that other powers would take advantage of Chinese weakness and try to dominate the Chinese. The Open-Door Policy did not stop the Boxer Rebellion. Boxer was a popular name given by foreigners to members of a secret organization called Yihequan or I-ho-ch'uan meaning Society of the Righteous and Harmonious Fist. They were so named by the foreigners because their performance of calisthenic rituals and martial arts was referred to as shadow boxing. Author H. Smith noted that the name,

I-Ho Ch'uan...literally denotes the 'Fist' (Ch'uan) of Righteousness (or Public) (I) Harmony (Ho), in apparent allusion to the strength of united force which was to be put forth. As the Chinese phrase 'fist' and 'feet' signifies boxing and wrestling, there appeared to be no more suitable term for the adherents of the sect than 'boxers,' a designation first used by one or two missionary correspondent of foreign journals in China, and later universally accepted on account of the difficulty of coining a better one (154-55).

The boxers were upset by the foreign takeover of Chinese lands. Their slogan was "destroy the foreigners." They especially disliked Christian missionaries and Chinese converts to Christianity. At the beginning of 1900, boxers roamed the country side and

killed missionaries and Chinese Christians. Their victims also included foreign businessmen and even the German envoy to Beijing. In response to the killings, an allied army of twenty thousand British, French, Germany, Russia, America and Japanese troops attacked Beijing in August 1900. The army restored order and demanded more concession from Chinese government. The Chinese government was forced to pay a heavy indemnity to the nations that had crushed the rebellion (Hunt 549)

After the Boxer Rebellion, the Qing dynasty tried to make reforms. The reforms did nothing for the peasants, artisans and miners. Their living conditions were getting worse because of tax increase and this resulted in unrest especially in the country side. The first sign of a revolution appeared during the last decade of the nineteenth century. The 1911 revolution and the overthrow of the Manchu dynasty established in 1844 marked the beginning of the prolonged revolutionary process that started with a small but zealous Chinese Communist Party that refused to dissolve but rather cause increasing trouble for the *Kuomintang* (Nationalist) rulers of China until it won control of the entire country a quarter of a century later (Yang 2).

The father of these “Chinese Revolution”, (It should either be “The Father of these “Chinese Revolutions” Dr. Sun Yat-sen, died in 1925 (Hu and Lui 55) and was succeeded by General Chiang Kia-Shek (1887-1973). In foreign as in domestic affairs, General Kai-Shek had to cope with many stubborn and perplexing problems. But the most worrisome was Japan which had nursed a plan to transform China into a vast Japanese protectorate and to establish a New Order in Asia (Beasley 3)

In 1937, Sino-Japanese relations entered a more desperate phase following the capture of Peking, Shanghai, Nanking and many other prominent Chinese cities (Gordon 137-182). The Japanese hoped that the mounting tensions in Europe will result in a war like the European extremity in World War 1. By 1939, the war broke out but by 1945 Japan had surrendered (Herbert 55). Although Japan’s defeat by American forces left China politically independent, some of its leaders notably the Chinese Communists painfully aware of China’s long semi-colonial subordination, vowed to free themselves from Western colonialism but most importantly from Japan’s expansionist tendencies. .

By early 1930’s, Mao Zedong or Mao Tse-tung, also known as Chairman Mao (1893 – 1976) had promulgated a new marital law forbidding arranged marriages and allowing either partner to initiate divorce proceedings (citation needed). They also promised improvement in healthcare, rent reduction, carefully defined electoral systems, graduated taxes, mutual aid, access to education, cooperate farming and anti-Japanese propaganda to gain popular support and access to education (Schwartz 172). These measures helped to mobilize support for the Communist party whose membership swelled during the pre-war years.

In late 1934 under attack from Chiang’s nationalist forces Mao and his forces abandoned their base and embarked on a year-long costly journey from October 1934 to October 1935 for the communist population. Known as the Long March in Communist lore (Salisbury 45) this lost occurred at a time when the Japanese invasion diverted the Nationalist troops and offered Mao and the survivors a chance to regroup. While the Japanese concentrated on China’s major cities, the communists were able to expand their support among the peasantry whom they had organized for years. They moved in behind the Japanese lines particularly in the northern part of the country and

established their governing and administrative apparatus. It has been argued that the communists “feed on the popular discontent and support of the poor peasantry by systematic policy of expropriation and distribution of large landed estates as well as by intensive propaganda” (Mgbada 33-4).

After Japan surrendered in August 1945 to end World War II, the civil war between the Nationalist and the Communist resumed. The Nationalist even with financing from United States of America and control of the cities proved no match for the Communist because apart from their demoralizing defeat in the hands of Japan, they had lost popular support having ran a corrupt government (Westad 192-3). Faced with the Communist victory, the nationalist leaders escaped and set up a rival Chinese state on the island of Taiwan (timelines.latimes.com. Indicate date accessed).

In 1949, Mao proclaimed the Communist Republic of China and asserted in bold terms that China had stood up to the world and had experienced a great people’s revolution. This peasant revolution a deviation from orthodox Marxist belief in the urban proletariat, proved immensely effective. On 1 October 1949, Mao became Chairman of the Central People’s Government of the Republic of China. That winter he made his first trip abroad to Moscow where he signed a 30-year treaty of friendship and alliance with Joseph Stalin (Mgbada 34). Mao’s effort at the reconstruction and rehabilitation of the nation greatly paid off and Mao’s success served as inspiration to many later revolutionaries in largely agrarian societies notably Ho Chi Minh (1890-1969) in Vietnam (Yinghong 487) and Fidel Castro 1926-2016 in Cuba (Yinghong 359).

Southeast Asia countries include Burma, Cambodia, East Indies, Laos, Philippines, Singapore Thailand and Vietnam. These countries, except Thailand which was not colonized, were shared between Britain, French and the United States (Christie 2-4). Though many people in Southeast Asia were very unhappy about being ruled by foreign powers, the first open resistance came from the ruling class. In Burma for example, the monarch Thibaw Min himself fought against British rule (Myint-U 200). Sometimes, resistance to western rule took the form of peasant revolt because many peasants were driven off the land to make way for plantations (Antilov and Tennenson 67). Early resistance movement failed, but a new kind of resistance based on nationalism began to emerge at the beginning of the twentieth century (Von de Mehden 89). The leaders were often part of a new class that had been created by colonial rule itself-westernized intellectuals in the city. They were the first generation of Asians to understand the colonial institutions and the values of the west. At first many of the leaders of this movement did not focus on the idea of nationhood. They simply tried to defend the economic interest and religious beliefs of the natives. It was not until the 1930s that these resistant movements begin to demand national independence (Von der Mehden 17).

Unlike China where the part out of semi-colonial domination involved first a war against Japan and then a prolonged civil war ending in a ‘people’s revolution,’ the Indian sub-continent achieved political independence without armed-insurrection. British racial attitudes led to the rise of Indian Nationalist Movement (Anil 23). The first Indian nationalists were members of upper class and English educated elite. Some were trained in British law and were members of the civil service. In 1885 a small group of Indians formed the Indian National Congress ((INC). the INC did not demand immediate

independence but did call for a share in the governing process. The INC has difficulties because of religious diversities and differences. Many of its leaders were Hindu and reflected Hindu concerns. Muslims began to call for the creation of a separate Muslim League to represent the interest of the Muslims in India (Jalal57).

In 1915, Mohandas Gandhi (1869 – 1948) brought new life to Indian struggle for independence (Brown 22). Born in India, Gandhi studied Law in London and went to South Africa; the most important background for understanding some of the basic elements of his faith and firm action like Satyagraha (passive Resistance). Gandhi's twenty year long stay in South Africa metamorphosed his personality "from an ordinary person looking for better prospects he turned into a renunciation with all the trappings of a Mahatma- Great Soul." (Huttenback 1). After he returned to India, he became active in the nationalist movement and set up a movement based on non-violent resistance (Brown 77). At this time, the threat of a mass peasant uprising with more radical aims as was occurring in China where Mao was organizing the peasants into a revolutionary force encouraged the British to hasten negotiations for the transfer of power.

Jawaharlal Nehru (1889-1964) returned to India in 1912 from England after acquiring his education. Heavily influenced by Gandhi, Nehru joined the INC in 1919 which was fighting for greater autonomy from the British at this time (Tyson 32). During the 1920's and 1930's he was repeatedly imprisoned by the British for civil disobedience. In 1928 he was elected president of congress and by the end of World War 11 he was recognized as Gandhi's successor (Tyson 101). Shortly after his election the congress decided to adopt a resolution calling for Purna Swaraj (complete independence) from British rule. Meanwhile relations between the Hindus and Muslims had deteriorated and during the latter years of World war 11 when the leaders of the congress including Gandhi, Nehru and Sardar Patel were incarcerated, the Muslim leagues which declared itself in support of the British war effort had a free hand to spread the message of Muslim (Harrison 360).

When in the aftermath of WW II and the triumph of the Labour Party the British Prime Minister Clement Atlee declared that the British would grant India its independence. Negotiations commenced with all major political parties and communities including Sikhs, the INC and the Muslim League. As negotiations for independence moved forward Hindu-Muslim unity deteriorated basically due to the bugging question of which of the two cultures will define the new nation dominated discussion. The Muslim League advocated for separate states, Nehru opposed the Muslim League insistence on the division of India on the bases of religion. The last British Viceroy Louis Mountbatten advocated the division as the fastest and most workable solution which Nehru reluctantly agreed (Copland 388).

In launching the "Direct Action Day" on 16th August 1946, Mohammed Jinnah called for Muslims all over the country to "suspend all business" so as to put pressure on the British government to relent to the Muslim League a country on the bases of religion (Tsugitake 112). Riots broke out between Hindus and Muslims and led to immense communal killings in Calcutta. The leader of the Muslim League, Muhammad Ali Jinnah demanded that British India be partitioned into separate Hindu and Muslim states if there were no constitutional guarantee for Muslims (Ambedkar Chapter 1). The Direct-Action Day marked the beginning of several acts of violence spread over a couple

of days in what came to be known as “Week of the Long Knives” (Tsugitake 113). This events sowed the seeds for the eventually partition of India. The attainment of independence from British rule on 15th August 1947 was accompanied not only by the declaration of independence for India with Nehru as a Prime Minister, but also the creation of the new state of Pakistan comprising of Muslim majority areas in both the eastern and western part of India with Mohammed Jinnah as the first Governor General (Khan 150)

Latin America

Decolonization in Latin America mostly took the form of nationalist revolts. During the eighteenth century nationalist revolts were happening all over Europe. Many countries in Latin America influenced by the successful revolts in America wanted their independence from Spain. They were particularly attracted to the ideas of freedom and equality and hoped to achieve this from Spain (Benedict 23). Social classes based on privileges divided colonial Latin America into various strata. At the top were Peninsulares - a Spanish or Portuguese official who resided temporarily in Latin America for political and economic gains and returned to their mother country from time to time. They held all of the important positions (Burkholder 5)). Next on the hierarchy were the Creoles who were descendants of European born in Latin America and lived there permanently. They controlled land and business but were regarded as the second-class citizens by Peninsulares (Burkholder 8). The third group was made up of the Mestizos who were people of European and Indian descent and were the largest group but worked as servant or labourers (Brading 20-30)

The Creoles deeply resented the Peninsulares but found the principles of equality of all people, free trade, and free press as expressed in the revolution in Europe at that time very attractive. The creoles elites denounced the rule of the Spanish and Portuguese because of its oppressive and exploitative nature. When Napoleon Bonaparte overthrew the monarchies of Spain and Portugal, their colonial authority was greatly weakened. Between 1807 and 1825, a series of revolts brought independence to most of Latin America (Humphreys and Lynch 7). But before these revolts, an unusual revolution took place in the French colony of Saint Dominique on the island of Hispaniola. Unusual because it was the only slave revolt which led to the founding of a state and it is generally considered the most successful slave revolt ever to occur in America (Lynch 341-5). Led by Francois-Dominique and Toussaint-Louverture who said “I was born a slave, but nature gave me the soul of a free man” (Girard 56) led more than a hundred thousand slaves to revolted and they took control of Hispaniola (Lynch 341-5). On 1st January 1804, the western part of Hispaniola (now Haiti) announced its freedom from France and became the first independent state in Latin America. After considerable vacillation and hesitancy, the independence of Haiti was recognized by many nations.

Beginning from 1810, Mexico also experienced revolts. The first real hero of Mexican Independence was a parish priest by name Miguel Hidalgo Costilla (1753 – 1811) who rang the bell of his Church, starting the *pronunciamiento* (call for arms) that triggered the Mexican War of Independence. He had read much about the French Revolution and encouraged the local Indians and Mestizos to free themselves from Spanish rule. On 16th September 1810, a crowd of Indians and Mestizos formed a mob

army and attacked the Spaniards. Although this revolt was crushed and Hidalgo was subsequently sentenced to death, 16th September is still celebrated as Mexico's Independence Day (Robertson 50). Frightened by these joint revolts by the Indians and Mestizos, the Creoles and Peninsulares co-operated in defeating the revolts and made a decision to overthrow Spanish rule to preserve their own powers. To achieve this, they selected a Creole military leader, Agustin de Iturbide (1783 – 1824), as their leader. In 1821 Mexico declared its independence from Spain and Iturbide named himself emperor in 1822. He was deposed in 1823 and Mexico then became a republic (Robertson 127).

Jose de San Martin of Argentina and Simon Bolivar of Venezuela both bourgeoisie Creoles influenced by liberalism and with military training from the metropole have been called the "Liberators of South America" because they led revolutions throughout the continent. Libertadores (liberators) in Latin America refers to Principle Leaders of Latin America war of independence from Portugal and Spain. They were named that way in contrast with the conquistadors who were so far the only Portugal and Spanish people recorded in Latin America History (Harvey 1-2). San Martin believed that the Spaniards had to be removed from all of South America if any South American nation was to be free. By 1810, his forces had liberated Argentina (Harvey 511). In January 1817, San Martin led his forces over the Andes to attack the Spanish in Chile. The Spaniards were badly defeated at the battle of Chacabuco on February 12, 1817 (Lansing 15-39). Thereafter, San Martin moved on to Peru where he was joined by Bolivar and his forces. Bolivar began the struggle for independence in Venezuela and then went on to lead revolts in New Granada (Colombia) and Ecuador. The last significant Spanish army was crushed at Ayacucho on 9 December 1824 (Brown 105, Lansing 39-59)

By the end of 1824, Peru, Uruguay, Paraguay, Colombia, Venezuela, Argentina, Bolivar and Chile had all become free of Spanish rule. Earlier in 1822, Brazil had gained its independence from Portugal. The Central American states had become independent in 1822. In 1838 and 1839, they divided into five republics: Guatemala, El Salvador, Honduras, Costa Rica and Nicaragua. (Rodriguez and James 19-27) There was still one major threat to the independence of the Latin American states - the members of the concert of Europe who wanted to use troops to restore Spanish control of Latin America. The British disagreed because of its economic interest in Latin America (Kaufman 12) and for this singular reason the British joined with the United States of America against any European moves in Latin America. In 1823, the United State President, James Monroe (1758 – 1831) issued the Monroe Doctrine (Whitaker 15), in which he among other things guaranteed the independence of the new Latin American nations and warned against any European intervention in the Americas.

After its independence from Spain on 28th of November 1821, modern day Panama became a part of the Republic of Gran Colombia which consisted of today's Colombia, Venezuela, Panama and Ecuador. The political struggle between federalist and centralist that followed independence from Spain resulted in a changing administrative and jurisdictional status for Panama. Under centralism Panama was established as the department of Isthmus and during federalism as the sovereign state of Panama (Gustavo 120). Although Panama is part of modern day Central America geographically, it is often not associated with Central American history. Its history and culture is linked to South America (Woodward 4). Belize officially in Central America is the only English

speaking country in Central America being a British colony that was called British Honduras (Bolland 3). The official name was changed to Belize in June 1973 and gained its full independence on 21st September. But progress towards independence was hampered by a Guatemalans claim to sovereignty over the Belizian territory supposedly inheriting rights to the land from Spanish Crown which had claim to all New World territories west of the line in the Treaty of Tordessillas in 1494 (Assad 5-6). Belize is the only country in Central America with strong ties to both Latin America and the Caribbean region. She is a member of the Community of Latin America and the Caribbean States (CELCA) (Rutheise 71).

Africa

We all overseas soldiers are coming back home with new ideas. We have been told what we fought for. That is 'freedom.' We want freedom nothing but freedomPlenty of his mates by 1945, had got the same idea. (Ayoola in Davidson199)

Pa Theo Ayoola, a Nigerian Volunteer in World War 11 wrote this to a very prudent Herbert Macaulay from India in 1945. In these few words this voice from afar sets forth the programme upon which new movements in every region of Africa will campaign for independence, raise the banner of nationalism and at the same time consciously or not, accept without further question or inquiry the whole bag and baggage of the European nation-state. Faced with rising nationalist demands and the rise of new world's power - United States and Soviet Union- who favoured decolonization, European powers agreed to decolonize their colonies in Africa. Gold Coast renamed Ghana became Africa's first independent state in 1957, headed by Kwame Nkrumah, 1909-1972 (Cook12). Other British colonial territories followed in rapid succession so that by 1963 all of British ruled Africa except Southern Rhodesia was independent. (Hargreaves 7)

Decolonization in much of French ruled Africa followed a similar smooth path, though the French were initially more hesitant to decolonization than the British. Immediately after World War II, the French planned to respond to growing anti-colonial sentiments by drawing protesting territories closer to France rather than giving such states more autonomy as the British had. Believing that their empire was eternal and their culture unrivaled, the French treated decolonization as assimilation (Clayton 85). Instead of negotiating independence, the French tried to accord fuller voting rights to their colonial subjects, and made it possible for African and Asian constituencies to send delegates to the French National Assembly. This was not favourable to the French electorates in France. Under the leadership of Charles de Gaulle (1890-1970) France dissolved its political ties with French West Africa and French Equatorial Africa in 1960, when it had already given the protectorates in Morocco and Tunisia their independence in 1956 (Manning 122).

Always regarded as an integral part of France overseas, Algeria was a different matter as its independence did not come easily and quickly. A sizeable French settler population known as the Colon stood in the way of a complete and peaceful decolonization (Ling 2). With nearly 1 million European inhabitants, Algerian colon population ranked second on the African continent only to the four million Europeans in South Africa (Ling 10). Although the colon constituted a minority to the nearly nine million indigenous Arab and Berber people, they held the best land and lived in wealthy residential quarters in major cities in Algeria. In addition, although all of Algeria was supposed to be a part of France, and entitled to the rights and privileges of French citizenry, the colon reserved these advantages to themselves.

After World War II, when the colon refused to share the privileges with the indigenous people, and the French military responded to anti-colonial demands with counter measures, the movement for independence gained momentum as the leading nationalist party, The Front de Liberation Nationale (FLN) used violence to provoke its opponent (Morgenthau 48). By 1954 a full-fledged war which dragged on for eight years (1954-1962) had erupted between the FLN guerrillas and troops against thousands of French troops (Horne 63). The war only ended when Charles de Gaulle negotiated a peace accord with the nationalist with a final agreement in Evian on 18 March 1962. In June when the first president of the independent republic Ahmed Ben Bella took over, more than 300,000 colon left Algeria (Gillespie 55). By the end of 1962 over nine-tenths of the European population had departed from Algeria. At independence, Algeria had a population mix not different from that of the other countries of North Africa.

Even in British ruled Kenya where the European settler population had never exceeded 20,000 a violent war of independence broke out between European settlers and African nationalists (Anderson 85). Kenya's largest ethnic group, the employing secrecy and intimidation, organized an uprising known as the Mau Mau Revolt in favour of independence from British colonial rule. The revolt which began in 1952 forced the British to fly in troops to suppress it. But rather than quell the revolt, the British were ultimately persuaded to concede independence to a black majority in 1963 (Ogot and Ochieng 78). Jomo Kenyetta (1898-1978) a nationalist leader who had been jailed by the British became Kenya's first President.

Decolonization proved even more difficult in the southern third (southern third means what?) of the African continent where the political independence of Portuguese Angola, Portuguese Mozambique and British Southern Rhodesia (Zimbabwe) had to wait until the 1970's. The last fortresses under direct European control were the Portuguese colonies of southern and western Africa, which dating to the fifteenth century had been the first European colonies on the continent. But by the mid-1970s efforts to suppress African nationalist movements had exhausted Portugal resources. Demoralized and fed up, Portuguese officers pushed aside the dictatorship founded by Antonio Salazar (1889-1970) and began the Portuguese experiment with democracy in 1974-75. The African nationalists demand for freedom led to a hurried Portuguese withdrawal from Guinea-Bissau (Chicote 56-61), Angola (Birmingham xvi), and Mozambique (Isaacman 50).

Elsewhere in Africa, white rule still prevailed. A tiny white minority in Rhodesia clung to power and resisted all international pressure to give way to black rule.

Independent African neighbours helped support a liberation guerrilla movement under Robert Mugabe which brought the white minority to recapitulate (Krieger 76). In 1979 Mugabe swept to power with massive electoral support. The new constitutional government renamed the country Zimbabwe depriving the long-deceased British expansionist Cecil Rhodes of having a country bearing his name on the African continent.

South Africa defied the wind of change and black majority rule. The largest and wealthiest settler population in Africa resided in South Africa where more than 4 million white residents resisted the strings of black power (Dubow 5). After winning the elections of 1948, the Afrikaner dominated National party enacted an extreme form of racial segregation known as apartheid. One of the leaders of African National Congress (ANC) Nelson Mandela (1918-2015) who advocated for peaceful resistance and campaigned for an end to discriminatory legislation was detained and tried by the government on numerous occasions. After the Sharpeville Massacre in 1960 Mandela and the ANC decided it was time to oppose the apartheid regime with violence (Walshe 155).

Responding to Sharpeville, the government announced a state of emergency, banned the ANC and arrested those of its leaders who had not fled the country or gone underground. A South African court sentenced Mandela to life imprisonment and sent him to the most notorious of South African Prisons, Robben Island in 1962, while other black leaders were tortured and some were beaten to death (Walshe 175). Unfortunately, despite such blatant human rights violation the whites still retained external support. In 1990, President F.W. de Klerk of the National Party released Mandela from prison and legalized the ANC and the Communist Party of South Africa. In 1994 South Africa conducted its first free mass election with an overwhelming victory for the ANC with Nelson Mandela elected president (Uzoigwe128). Majority rule had finally come to South Africa and for the first time in many centuries Africans ruled all of Africa.

Conclusion

The conclusion that readily comes to mind is that during the period between 1945 and the early 1950's there was considerable diversity among European colonial powers, in terms of economic standing, political influence and – connected to both- ideological and legal relationships between metropolitan powers and colonial territories. This diversity explains the complexities of process by which different territories achieved 'liberation.' The years following World War II were crucial in determining the nature of decolonization ideologies. The process of decolonization transformed colonial and European metropolitan societies culturally, politically and economically. Its legacy continues to affect post-colonial politics as well as cultural and intellectual life in Europe and its former colonies and overseas territories.

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